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EVALUATION AND PREDICTION OF SUCCESS OF
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GRADUATE COLLEGE

EVALUATION AND PREDICTION OF SUCCESS

OF VOLUNTEER COUNSELORS

A DISSERTATION

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EVALUATION AND PREDICTION OF SUCCESS
OF VOLUNTEER COUNSELORS

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EVALUATION AND PREDICTION OF SUCCESS OF VOLUNTEER COUNSELORS

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

At present there is a growing number of mental health and court-related agencies which are using the additional manpower of volunteer para-professionals. The entry of volunteers into court and delinquency prevention programs has grown from a small pilot program under the direction of Keith Leenhouts in 1960 (VIP, 1972) to many such programs today. In 1972 over 2,000 court-related projects were using volunteers as an integral part of their programs (Leenhouts, 1972). The growth of volunteers in court-related programs is evident in the increased numbers of persons involved. Leenhouts (1972) reported that in 1959 virtually no such programs existed, but by 1969 there were approximately 200,000 citizens involved as court volunteers. He projects that there will be a million such volunteers by 1981.

Not only do the volunteers ease the strained budgets of the agencies, but they also provide a wider scope of services to the community. For

this reason, in the last five years there has been an increasing availability of federal funds from Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, (YDDPA), and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW).

The Mid-Del Youth and Family Center was funded as a delinquency prevention, treatment, and control center. Funds for the center were channeled from LEAA through the Oklahoma Crime Commission (OCC), and they are considered as "seed money" to begin new programs. In 1970 OCC provided \$219,000 for demonstration projects, three of which involved training of volunteers. The 1973 OCC state plan provides for funding similar programs in the amount of \$452,000. The trend for funding volunteer oriented projects has been established, but it is always possible that funding can be discontinued. It is expected by Crime Commission officials that the local communities will assume the support of the centers, so the percentage of support from OCC decreases each year. The funding sources have provided the impetus for research in the area of screening, training, and evaluation of volunteers.

The services provided by the volunteers in court-related programs are similar to the services rendered by volunteers at the Mid-Del Center. The purpose of the program is to divert juveniles from the court process and to reduce the rate of recidivism if the youth has already been adjudicated. The services are also similar to the community

mental health centers, since a full range of counseling and related services are provided to youth and their families.

The present study considers the evaluation of volunteer counselors and methods of predicting volunteer success.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature is divided into two parts; background information, and the theoretical foundations for using volunteer counselors. It has been estimated that forty or fifty million individuals in the United States volunteer their services to a church, hospital, political party, Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Big Brother, PTA, and others (Holmes, Hargadine, & Sheier, 1968). However, since the purpose of the Center is to provide counseling services to predelinquents and their families, the literature pertinent to this study is limited to data concerning volunteers in correctional and mental health facilities only.

Background Information

Historically, the concept of using volunteers in corrections is well established. In 1822 a group known as the "Philadelphia Society for Alleviating Miseries of Public Prisons" was formed to help inmates while they were in correctional institutions (Case, 1965). Probation started in Massachusetts in 1830, when an accused woman was released on her own recognizance. She was later sentenced to prison on the

1830 charge because of a subsequent offense in 1831 (Johnson, 1968). John Augustus, a Boston bootmaker is considered to be the father of probation because he volunteered his services to supervise an offender charged with a misdemeanor in 1841, and he continued to help misdemeanants who appeared in the Boston court thereafter (Morrison, 1972).

The first juvenile courts in the United States started in Chicago and Denver in 1899, just months apart. Chicago had the first separate juvenile court legislation, as Denver's court was included under a school law. Today all states have either a separate juvenile court or some provision in other courts for juvenile court procedures (Taft, 1964). Although the services of the first juvenile courts were highly specialized, "...it took almost twenty-five years before probation developed from a system confined to volunteers and inefficient workers (Cooley, 1927, p. 21)."

The use of volunteers in juvenile courts vanished as these courts became more professionalized and paid probation officers were employed. The renewed interest in the use of volunteers in juvenile court settings is relatively new (Morrison, 1972). In 1960 Judge Keith Leenhouts invited eight citizens to serve as volunteer probation counselors. The use of volunteers extended from a single court setting to over 2,000 courts in the United States (Leenhouts, 1972). Scheier (1970) reported, "No less than 155 distinct court volunteer job descriptions have been catalogued as actually filled by volunteers in one court

or another, in twenty major categories of contribution, and several major program areas (p. 21)." Based on the growth of programs since 1960, it has been estimated that in 1981 there will be a million volunteers in corrections (Leenhouts, 1972).

Voluntarism is not limited to the United States, but has been accepted internationally as well. In 1970 the first conference of Volunteers in the Rehabilitation of Offenders was held in Detroit. Ohtani (1971) reported that Japan had 50,000 volunteer citizens who had been nominated as volunteer probation officers by the Minister of Justice. Another report described widespread use of volunteers in Canada and the Netherlands (Klaas, 1971).

Theoretical Foundations for Using Volunteer Counselors in Mental Health Centers

This section is divided into two parts: the relevant studies advocating the use of volunteers, and the theoretical arguments against using volunteers.

Relevant Theories and Related Studies

The theoretical bases for training volunteer counselors stem from motivation theory of McClelland, personality theory of Rogers, and the learning theory of Bandura and other behavior modification advocates. First, Sprinthall (1972) compared the training of lay counselors to the need achievement (n. Ach.) training techniques of McClelland.

In some ways, of course, David McClelland was among the very first to decide that we could effectively give psychology away....the McClelland break-through in the 1950's indicated that intervention other than the usual counseling and psychotherapy modes was feasible. More important theoretically and pedagogically was the idea that principles from psychology could be directly taught to the lay public (p. 56).

Second, both Carkhuff and Truax have made significant contributions in the area of training lay counselors. Aspy (1972) summarized Carkhuff's contribution to theory as follows:

He (Carkhuff) is not bound by the luxury of one theory... Carkhuff's developing theory and practice should be an inviting prospect for the new generation of helpers. As he suggests in his reference to training conferences, the need for new and more effective theories, procedures and points of view is essential for the growth, indeed the survival, of the helping professions (p. 37).

Truax, along with Carkhuff, recognized the implications of Rogers' triad.

When Rogers' research indicated and isolated specific therapeutic ingredients such as empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard, it was Carkhuff and Truax who took the next step and moved into new ground. Rather than suggest that the Rogerian triad should become a new form for professional training as Rogers had concluded, the then young, new generation say beyond the obvious...the new generation of therapeutic psychologists rightly concluded that the ingredients that made for successful treatment could be taught directly to the lay public (Sprinthall, 1972, p. 57).

There is a growing body of data which suggests that the outcome of counseling is more closely related to the personal qualities of the counselor than to his technical background (Bergin, 1963); Truax, 1963).

Carkhuff & Truax (1964) indicated that after a training program involving

less than 100 hours, lay personnel and clinical psychology trainees did not differ markedly from a group of highly experienced psychotherapists in the process measures of the psychotherapeutic interviews.

Third, there are theoretical bases not only in Rogers' personality theory and McClelland's n. Ach. theory, but also in Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1965). Bandura suggested that modeling procedures can be used in counselor training. Modeling via tapes, films, and observing actual counseling sessions, have been used in training professionals. Bandura recommended observation as a potent means of acquiring counseling skills. It follows that the interpretation of counselor could be applied to volunteers as well as professionals.

Other behavior modification techniques have been effectively taught to parents (Wagner, 1968; Bernal, 1971), teachers (Buckley, 1970), and teacher's aides (Wetzel, 1970). The precedent of training nonprofessionals in behavior modification is well established. Numerous studies refer to the training of mothers or parents specifically as therapists (Howard, 1970; Shah, 1967; Wahler, 1965; Zeilberger, 1968). It follows that volunteers, who are generally parents as well, could be trained as reinforcement therapists, as well.

Cowne (1970) reviewed the Behavioral Analyst Training Program of Southern Arizona, which trained volunteers in the use of behavior modification techniques. The project began as a pilot program with prelinquents, and has extended to treat a wide variety of behavioral dis-

orders. Initial reluctance on the part of the professional was mentioned but has reportedly dissipated since the program has been effective.

Volunteer counselors have also been accepted by psychiatrists who staff the Southern California Counseling Center (The Washington Post, 1970). The director of the center, Dr. Weininger, maintains that a person learns to be a psychiatrist after seeing patients for a couple of years. He maintains that the same principle works for volunteers, that they become counselors after seeing clients for a period of time under the supervision of a professional. He expressed his confidence in his volunteers who see the complete range of clients: suicidal, homicidal, delinquent, or whatever.

Leslie J. Cowne (1970) examined 200 volunteer programs in mental health. He noted the critical need for mental health manpower, and that "The educated volunteer can perform a variety of services at a level comparable with professionally trained persons (p. 337)." The only obstacle he reported was the acceptance of the professionals who had not had experience working with volunteers. A survey undertaken by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare also reported a critical shortage of mental health workers and funds to pay them. The report stated that volunteers could effectively alleviate the manpower shortage (Alcabes & Piven, 1969).

Other studies (Golann, Breiter, & Magoon, 1966; Poser, 1966; and Verinis, 1970) reported that the volunteer counselors performed as

well or better than the traditionally trained professionals. The successful performance of volunteer counselors was attributed to their enthusiasm and spontaneity.

Davidoff, Lauga, and Walzer (1969) hypothesized that carefully screened mothers, after one year of intensive training under professional supervision, could contribute significantly to improving the social functioning of the chronically ill patients. Eight volunteers received training for four days per week for eight and one-half months. Their supervisors were reportedly impressed with their creativity in problem solving and their resilience in working with "hopeless" cases. The "in-between specialist," or "mental health rehabilitation worker" were terms used to describe their volunteers. The project had been in progress for four years at the time of the report, and they had accepted their hypothesis that volunteers could contribute significantly to improving the social functioning of chronically ill patients.

Similar findings were reported by Slear (1959); Williams (1953); and Klonoff, Hutton, Grundy, & Coulter (1960). Slear reported that volunteers had been effective in helping patients who were clinically improved but socially disabled. Williams also commented on the difficulty encountered by the chronically mentally ill persons in finding group gratifications and friendships. He reported that the volunteers functioned as "quasi-relatives" in providing support and understanding to patients. Klonoff, et al. reported there is firm reason to believe many chronic

schizophrenic patients are able to learn to be at least partially self-supporting when given the opportunity for continuing rehabilitation in the community. The volunteer can serve well in this capacity. Riessman & Hallowitz (1967) described a center as a "psychosocial first aid station" where volunteers provide counseling, information, and assist the client in coping with their problems. "This center provides an essential mental health service (p. 1409)."

Volunteers have been a part of many in-patient treatment centers as well as community mental health centers, with great success. Rosenbaum (1966) explained the therapeutic success of these untrained therapists in terms of eagerness, enthusiasm, and general unawareness of the implicit principle that chronic patients cannot be helped. "The nonprofessionals in effect, do not know enough to be pessimistic, and it is this optimism, poorly based in reality as it may be, that is the crucial therapeutic variable (p. 293)." ("Untrained" refers to a lack of traditional academic training rather than a lack of training.)

Poser (1966) speculated that "naive enthusiasm" and lack of "professional stance" helped the lay therapist perform significantly better than professionals in three of six tests. The outcome of group therapy for psychotic patients was used as the dependent variable in comparing the effectiveness of the lay counselor with the professional therapist. Undergraduate students with no training or any experience in psychology functioned as the lay counselors in the study. There were two patients who

acted as counselors. Although the group was too small to report statistical significance, their results were the same as for the professionals and lay personnel. "Those who knew the patient-therapists clinically agreed that participation in the project had enhanced their mental health. Both are now discharged after prolonged hospitalization (Poser, 1966, p. 289)." Rioch (1966) reported that patients feel closer to the volunteer and they perceive them as closer to themselves in the social hierarchy.

Number of patients discharged from hospitals was the criterion of success for several studies. Verinis (1970) reported that patients who interacted with volunteer aides significantly improved their social behavior. The patients became less hostile verbally, had a better sense of humor, and appeared to be less withdrawn. Five of the thirteen in the treatment group were discharged from the hospital, while none of the nine in the control group were discharged.

Beck, Kantor, & Galineau (1963) and Spitzer, Lee, Carnahan, & Fleiss (1964) report conflicting results in regard to the likelihood of patients being discharged after a hospitalization of twelve or thirteen years. Beck, et al. reported the results of Harvard undergraduate volunteers who worked with 120 psychotics. Those who were discharged had been hospitalized for an average of 4.7 years. It was reported that this was consistent with earlier studies suggesting that after four years of hospitalization, only three percent of the patients are likely to be

discharged. Spitzer, et al. reported that

...lay group counseling produced significant improvement in patients who had on the average spent an average of 13 1/2 years in their current hospitalization, had had one previous hospitalization, had a seventh grade education, and who were already 50 years of age (p. 6).

The personal growth and satisfaction of the volunteer have been described by Holzberg, Knapp, & Turner (1964). The volunteer

...tended to acquire more enlightened attitudes concerning the field of mental illness, became more self-accepting of themselves and more tolerant of others, and showed a tendency to increased self-awareness and self-examination (p. 398).

Similar findings were reported by Hines (1970); Holzberg, Gewirtz, & Ebner (1964); and Perlmutter & Durham (1965).

Resistance to the Use of Volunteers

Not all centers have welcomed the participation of volunteers, however. Morrison (1972) reported, "One of the major problems many courts see in the use of volunteer probation officers is that they may be viewed by the professional as a threat to his status and prestige (p. 52)." Gorlish (1967) reported that professionals sometimes consider the volunteer to be a threat to job security and administrators fear conflict between paid staff and volunteers.

Walls & Davis (1971) listed only three advantages of using volunteers according to the staff, while eight disadvantages were listed. The disadvantages were:

(1) doesn't stay with his job, (2) over-identifies with proba-

tioners, (3) has problems working with probationer and his family, (4) can't handle serious problems, (5) tries to get too much personal gain in his relationship, (6) becomes too dependent on the probation officer or tries to take his place, (7) staff tend to lose contact with probationer, (8) they feel that there is little overlap in roles between staff and volunteers (p. 33).

Further, it may be argued that volunteers will not maintain confidentiality, and that they lack the necessary background in counseling theories and techniques. It may be questioned whether volunteers will damage clients rather than help them, and whether the clients will accept them without professional credentials. Lower intelligence and inferior preparation have also been attributed to volunteers. That volunteers require too much supervision time and increase the staff's workload, is another frequent allegation.

Not only may the educational backgrounds of the volunteer be questioned, but also the personal needs of the volunteers. One center did report that they had two homosexuals volunteer, and that it temporarily created a difficult situation (Galusha, 1972). It is possible that some people volunteer in mental health settings to seek personal help or therapy. Carkhuff (1969) reported that

...it would appear that lay persons are motivated to help by other than the overdetermined needs of the professional to find in the helping role position, status, prestige, money, and perhaps some 'handles' on his own psychological difficulties. Perhaps the lay person is motivated to help simply because he is most in contact with the need for help, for himself and for others (p. 7).

It is a popular belief that psychologists and psychiatrists generally choose their vocation because of personal needs to analyze themselves and their behavior.

The legality of using volunteers in courts has also been questioned in New York City. The suit was filed by the Probation and Parole Officer's Association of Greater New York, Local 599. The petition alleged that the use of volunteers violated the New York State Civil Service Laws and constituted an unfair labor practice. Judge Pino ruled in favor of the volunteers (VIP Examiner, 1973). Harris (1960) reported that there is evidence that most volunteer programs have encountered difficulty and resistance by the existing staff members. In agencies which use volunteers, they are highly regarded, but there is little support for introducing volunteer programs in agencies which do not currently use them.

In spite of the possible arguments against using volunteers, numerous studies have been cited in which volunteers have been effective in counseling situations.

More specific to the present study is a project in San Mateo, California, which listed duties for their volunteers which are similar to those performed by the Mid-DeI volunteers. Gurevitz & Heath (1969) summarized the volunteer duties as:

The variety of volunteer activities includes provision of specific types of crafts and skills, transportation, assistance in research (gathering and collating data), co-leading groups, providing public information and public relations services, leading community-

centered social activity groups, home visiting, assisting in development of liason with other community agencies or agencies outside the community (for example, state hospital), and educational efforts in the community (p. 410).

The description applies equally well the Mid-Del volunteers, who have served in each of the capacities listed above.

One surprising thing to the researcher was the number of large federal grants which were awarded to several agencies cited in the review of the literature. (Davidoff, Lauga, & Waizer, 1969; Rioch, 1966). The grants were for periods of 3-5 years and were granted for the purpose of training, utilizing, and evaluating the services of 8 volunteers. By carefully screening the number to so few, and by giving the extensive investment of attention, training, and supervision, positive results would appear to be assured. These samples of volunteers are not truly representative of the volunteer population. Few agencies have the financial backing to give equal advantages to their volunteers. Larger numbers of volunteers are used in settings which have fewer staff and smaller budgets, thus precluding research departments the ability to provide experimental validation of the effectiveness of volunteers. This is not meant as a negative reflection on the volunteers or to depreciate their accomplishments but as a reminder of the reality factor.

The general consensus in the review of the literature was that the volunteers' successes were due to naive enthusiasm. Their enthusiasm

was also braced by training programs, however, Carkuff (1965) refers to the training out of spontaneity and empathy, yet the volunteers in the programs mentioned above had long intensive training programs.

There was some conflict in the studies concerning the use of affluent volunteers with disadvantaged youth. There is evidence that volunteers with dissimilar backgrounds from their clients can be effective. It is analogous to insisting that only a former alcoholic or addict can be effective with an alcoholic or drug abuser. It seems the more important attributes are flexibility and a basic acceptance of people. If the volunteer has not always enjoyed a high level of affluence, it appears that he can more easily be effective than one who has not worked through a few difficulties to achieve his goals.

The problem of professionals' resistance to volunteers appears to be a problem only before the volunteers are incorporated in the agency. After they work together the resistance generally fades. If a volunteer is recruited because of a personal commitment to one particular staff member rather than the project, there are obvious difficulties.

If general the use of volunteers is wholeheartedly advocated by the researcher. The position is supported by the literature and by personal experience.

CHAPTER III

PROBLEM

This chapter includes the background of the Center, statement of the problem, definitions, conceptual hypotheses, and limitations.

Background of the Center

Since the Center is relatively new and differs from the existing agencies which do not utilize volunteers, a brief description of the purpose and available services has been included. The Mid-Del Youth and Family Center is a special project funded through LEAA funds via the OCC and local funding by the cities of Midwest City and Del City. The Center has been available to area residents since August, 1971, for counseling and related services. The purpose of the Center is to focus on the preventive aspects of mental health.

Volunteers were trained and began helping in the numerous services of the Center. Together with the traditional services, innovative techniques were encouraged and developed. The program for the first year included the services listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Services Offered by the Mid-Del Center 1971-72

Direct Client Services	Community Related Services
Individual therapy	Teacher-Counselor Seminars
Family Counseling	Discussion Groups for Clergy
Tutoring	Contacts with Outreach Program
Growth Groups	School Ray Groups
Single Parents' Group	Attitude Toward Police-Attitude
Parents' Group	Toward Adolescent Project
Crafts	Volunteer Training Programs
Relationship Counseling	Humanities Conference
Charm & Modeling Groups	Speaking at Community Organi-
Supervised Field Trips	zations.
Extended Family Placements	

Description of the Staff

The director of the center is a licensed clinical psychologist who sees clients and supervises volunteers as well as administers the program. Two Ph.D. candidates in counseling psychology are also full-time staff members. One staff member, who has recently been accepted in a counseling psychology doctoral program, works 4/5 time while completing course work. His title is Educational Director. Another staff member works 1/5 time as Director of Intake Services. He has an honorary Doctorate of Divinity, a Master's of Theology, and academic training in counseling.

The staff members listed above are involved in counseling, school groups, consulting with volunteers, community groups, and school counselors. Although the official titles vary, there is little difference in the responsibilities and activities of each staff member. One exception would obviously be the responsibilities of the director. Others are grant writing and special projects which are assigned to particular staff personnel.

The secretary is the only other salaried staff member. The Director of Volunteers is a position filled by a volunteer who works approximately 1/2 time. Assignments are coordinated through her so that some volunteers will not be overtasked while others are neglected.

Volunteer Background and Training

The specific area of concern for this study is the evaluation of the volunteers at the Mid-Del Center, a new agency in its second year of existence. The prospective volunteers were generally persons in the community who were interested in the Center from its inception and had met weekly prior to the training period. There was a preselection factor in that several people came to the weekly sessions, helped in many ways, but decided not to take the training program as planned. It appears that the less motivated persons elected to drop out before the tests and training period. Thirty-one men and women eventually enrolled in the volunteer training program, but only twenty-seven of these people took the tests. The others reportedly wanted the training for personal enrichment and did not intend to work as volunteers. The four who did not take the tests have contributed time and professional expertise to the program but did not have direct involvement with clients. The trainees had varied occupations which are presented in Table 2.

Each applicant paid \$20.00 for books and educational materials which were related to counseling adolescents and their families. The assigned readings were recommended by the various training consultants and corresponded to the topic of discussion for each session. Seven area professionals augmented the Center staff in presenting an overview of juvenile services, judicial processes, human growth and development, and various counseling theories and techniques. There were eight

TABLE 2

Occupations of Volunteer Sample at Mid-Del Center

Occupations	Number	
	Male	Female
Gynecologist	1	
Nurses Aide		1
Housewives *		8
University Students	2	2
Teachers		2
Former Teachers		4
Optometrist	1	
Tinker Air Force Employees	2	
Motel Manager	2	
Professional Artist		1
Registered Occupational Therapist		1
Attorneys **	2	
Judge *	1	
Legal Secretary		1
Cosmotologist		1
Totals	11	21

Note -- The asterisks indicate number of persons who took the training but not the tests.

required lecture/discussion sessions and eight discussion/role playing sessions during the two-month period.

There was a great deal of discussion about the term "volunteer," which reportedly had a negative connotation of "busy-body," or "do-gooder." The volunteers helped to decide on the title of Staff Assistant to designate a volunteer who had completed training and was in fact assisting the staff. According to their comments, the new title implied more status, which they enjoyed and appreciated. They were capable and responsible in performing their assigned tasks.

Weekly on going supervisory meetings followed the initial training phase. Individual supervision was also given by the staff member who assigned the staff assistant to a particular case. Each staff assistant worked in some capacity with each staff member. The staff members retained the responsibilities of counseling, while the staff assistants assumed the responsibility for counseling-related activities such as tutoring, craft groups, and sitting in on intake interviews. Their activities did require counseling skills, however. Although they were not expected to function as staff counselors, many staff assistants became increasingly confident and competent in counseling skills. Two of the consultants, who are practicing psychology and psychiatry, respectively, worked with the staff assistants on several occasions. Both were impressed by the personal effectiveness of the staff assistants and wrote letters expressing their endorsement of the group (Wright, personal communica-

tion, 1972; Lester, personal communication, 1972).

The sample of staff assistants has been compared with a national survey made by the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training (1969). The Joint Commission's sample consisted of volunteers working in corrections or court-related projects. The Mid-Del volunteers work with many court referrals and predelinquent youths, so their activities are comparable. The figures reporting the United States population of persons 25 years and over are taken from the 1960 census report. See Table 3.

The strength of the educational preparation of the Mid-Del Volunteers, especially in college degrees, is evident when compared with the Joint Commission data. Also, there were no Mid-Del volunteers who did not have a high school diploma. Our sample is therefore not truly representative of the total correctional volunteer population. Scheier, et al. (1968) reported a positive relationship between the educational level of the volunteer and the quality of their performance. Volunteers with higher educational levels performed more effectively than volunteers with lower educational levels. Scheier's findings raise some doubt about the importance of matching volunteers and youths in terms of a common socio-economic background. His study indicated that disadvantaged youths could be effectively helped by volunteers of a higher economic and educational level.

However, volunteers who have not completed high school have been successfully used in special projects involving disadvantaged and minority

TABLE 3

Comparison of the Education Level of Mid-Del Volunteers
With the Volunteers in Corrections and
with the General Population

Education	Mid-Del Volunteers %	U. S. Volunteers %	U. S. Population 25 years & over %
11th Grade or Less	0	6	49
High School Graduate	22	20	32
1-3 years College	19	26	9
College Graduate	33	24	10
Some Graduate Work	11	10	NA*
Masters' Degree	11	10	NA*
Doctor's Degree	4	4	NA*

Note -- NA* designates information not available.

clients (Lynch & Gardner, 1970; Hines, 1970).

Community Climate

Because the Center was partially funded by two city governments and worked closely with school personnel, law enforcement personnel, local ministers, and others, there were many demands made. Some wanted to know how results were to be measured, and various councilmen insisted that volunteer screening devices were imperative. Other councilmen and community leaders wanted statistics concerning number of cases, presenting problem, number of groups, number of individual counseling hours, cost per hour total volunteer hours, referral sources, number of families seen, number of male and female clients, school attended by client, and various combinations of these and other data. The requests for detailed reports seemed to reflect a suspicion of rather than an interest in the Center. There is evidence that most volunteer programs have encountered difficulty and resistance (Harris, 1969). "Significant change in any system is always anxiety provoking (Gurevitz & Heath, 1969, p. 442)."

Coleman (1954) cited several reasons for community conflict which relate to the controversy present during the first few months the Center was opened. His list included conflict over economic issues, such as competition for funds, power or authority issues centering around control, and attitudes toward particular persons or groups. All of these areas

outlined by Coleman were sources of controversy which had to be resolved by the Center in order to give effective delivery of services.

The economic concern was twofold; one part was due to availability of community funds for mental health services, and the other was due to a fear of property devaluation. A petition protesting the present location of the Center was circulated by nearby residents. One resident, who later became a client, reported that the neighbors had been afraid the "juvenile delinquents" would steal from their homes or mutilate their cars. No such incidents have been reported, however. Also, businessmen from the nearby shopping center asked their councilmen to vote against allowing the Center to be placed in their proximity, as they feared that it would be detrimental to their business interests.

The conflict over power and authority was another obstacle. It centered around personalities who wanted to control the Center, but it was expressed in more subtle ways. The attitudes toward particular persons and groups were disguised. The bias appeared in the form of comments and criticism directed toward the volunteer aspect of the program, instead. Fears that unsuitable volunteers would be recruited were openly and vehemently expressed. Of especial concern was that the volunteers would not maintain the level of confidentiality necessary, particularly since the clients and volunteers lived in the same catchment area. Comments like, "volunteers just ruin a program," were circulated by a small group which wanted to discredit the Center. Suggestions that the

Center could be directed by the administrator of an existing center more efficiently, expressed the power struggle more directly than most of the criticism. A similar situation was described by Gurevitz & Heath (1969):

There were questions about how the regional program chief and the clinical director were to fit into the hierarchy of division administration. The pattern of a single regional administration was taken some as a tacit criticism of our familiar organizational structure in mid-county....Bitter exchanges were not uncommon, since this new design was frequently taken as a threat (p. 442 & 443).

The school system was also hesitant about making referrals. Again, it was a problem of control, as one department wanted to have all referrals channeled through that office. The local school personnel preferred to refer directly to the Center and avoid the time lag of going through a central office.

For whatever the reasons, there was a definite generalized concern about the existence of a Center which used volunteer services. Much of the resistance has now subsided, however.

Statement of the Problem

The primary concern of this paper is to define an effective volunteer counselor for settings such as the Mid-Del Youth and Family Center. Two basic questions considered are: (a) How can the successful volunteer be operationally defined?; (b) How can volunteer success be predicted? Each single predictor is compared with several criteria and with the other predictors, taken collectively.

Need for the Study

It is recognized that a need exists for research in the area of volunteer screening, training, supervision, and evaluation procedures.

Those of us deeply involved in the movement to use volunteers in various phases of the correctional process have long suspected that there was a dearth of hard research about the effectiveness of these programs or their impact on their participants. The National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts has made a determined effort to gather reports of studies on various facets of volunteer programs. This effort has resulted in the acquisition of about 35 completed studies and a similar number in process. Most of those are descriptive surveys but a substantial minority are experimental and use one kind or another of a control group. This is still quite a meager supply in view of the fact that the modern volunteer movement is now in its second decade. One can only surmise that practitioners have been so busy inaugurating, expending, and experimenting with volunteer programs that they have not had the time to sit down and plan how to evaluate what was going on (Shelley, 1971, p. 1).

Many of the articles on volunteers in corrections were found to be fairly repetitious surveys of who volunteers and why. Boulder County Juvenile Delinquency Project, Boulder, Colorado, mailed surveys to 55 volunteers of their program who had moved to other communities. Their basic question was whether or not court volunteers were sensitized by their experience with the court. Only 20 replies were received, and seven of the respondents were reportedly active in volunteer programs in their new communities. No information was given about the possible memberships in organizations such as Junior Service League, which would require volunteer participation. Only two of the respondents indicated that they were currently working with youth as they had with the Boulder

County Juvenile Project. (Boulder County Juvenile Delinquency Project, 1967).

Adams, Smith, & Wiseman, (1970) reported a study in which the Volunteers in Washington State Adult Corrections submitted a written questionnaire to 220 randomly selected volunteers. Fifty-six percent (124 persons) completed the form, which included demographic data such as age, sex, race, marital status, religious background, educational level, employment status, and annual income. It was reported that 2/3 of their volunteers joined the program because they felt a real need to help others. Three-fourths of the group had participated in other volunteer projects, primarily church and youth work. No attempt was reported to determine the effectiveness of the volunteers with clients.

The former Research Director, National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts, summarized the literature in his comment,

a number of very good descriptive surveys of current practice have been made...and, aside from the natural interest of a local agency about a more detailed picture of what is happening in its program, we do not need more surveys (Shelley, 1971, p. 45).

There are numerous reports which feature subjective or descriptive data (Auslander, 1969; Farhar, 1971; Walls & Davis, 1971), but relatively few reports of controlled experimentation. Ivan Sheier, current Director of the National Information Center on Volunteers in Courts, pointed out that the bulk of research has been in an effort to show the positive impact of the presence of volunteers vs. the absence of volun-

teers in a program.

The trouble is, people seem now inclined to keep on doing this basic thing over and over again, when in fact, the point has already been made, and this type of research is quickly becoming passe in terms of current conditions and needs (Scheier, 1970, p. 7).

By writing and talking with many volunteer coordinators, it was found that few agencies had more than an informal, intuitive screening process. Generally volunteers were screened by personal interviews together with biographical data and references (Galusha, personal communication, 1972; Field, 1971; Children's Medical Center, undated). A typical example of screening procedures was reported by McMahon (personal communication, 1972).

Mental Health Case Aide Program at Metropolitan State Hospital selects volunteers on the basis of maturity, responsibility, and empathy. This is carried out by personal interviews with applicants, supported by references, Our social workers have found that unsuitable applicants for case aide work can be helped to 'screen themselves out' and to choose a different kind of volunteer activity.

Formal training programs existed primarily when required by federal funding sources such as LEAA (Comprehensive Law Enforcement Action Plan, 1972, NIMH (National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information, 1970). More attention has been given to the use and supervision of volunteers as reported in the form of descriptive articles. Little attention has been given to the problem of evaluating volunteers and predicting volunteer success (Shelley, 1971).

The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training report, (Harris, 1969) summarized the needs for training, evaluation, and

supervision:

Corrections does very little in the way of purposeful recruiting, training, or supervision of volunteers. Only half of the volunteers received any initial training or orientation. Only one in five received any training for his current job. Only one in four has been formally evaluated by a staff member. Only one in six has as a supervisor a staff member whose sole responsibility is to coordinate the work of volunteers (p. 10).

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is that it will be one step in the direction of filling the research gap in the area of evaluation and prediction of effective volunteers. The findings of this paper have been used in the screening program for the second cadre of volunteers trained in the Fall of 1972 at the Mid-Del Center. Other volunteer supervisors have expressed their interest in predictive instruments which they could incorporate in their projects.

The writer will be presenting the findings of the study at the National Conference for Volunteers in Prevention and Diversion Programs at Denver in May, 1973.

Definitions

Staff Assistant (SA)

A staff assistant is a volunteer who has completed the required training program and has been assigned a variety of tasks at the Mid-Del Center.

Successful Staff Assistant

The successful staff assistant is one who is personally mature, flexible, open to new experiences, non-judgmental, nonauthoritarian, and respects adolescents. Personal maturity is defined as receiving a positive rating on the Behavioral Rating Scale. Flexibility, openness, tendency to be non-judgmental and non-authoritarian, are defined by scores on the California F-Scale (Authoritarianism). Respect for adolescents is measured by responses to a questionnaire asking their views on juvenile delinquency, lists of things they like about teenagers, and lists of things they would like to change in teenagers.

The successful staff assistant shall also have the qualities necessary to establish good client relationships. These qualities are designated as congruence, empathic understanding, level of regard, and unconditionality of regard as measured by the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory.

Congruence

The degree to which one person is functionally integrated in the context of his relationship with another, such that there is absence of conflict or inconsistency between his total experience, his awareness, and his overt communication....The concept is theoretically centered on consistency between total experience and awareness... (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, p. 4).

Empathic Understanding

Empathic understanding is conceived as the extent to which one person is conscious of the immediate awareness of another....It is

the full present and changing awareness of another person, of reaching out to receive his communication and meaning, and of translating his words and signs into meaning that matches at least those aspects of his awareness that are most important to him at the moment (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, p. 3).

Level of Regard

Level of regard is the composite 'loading' or all the distinguishable feeling reactions of one person toward another, positive and negative, on a single abstract dimension. The 'lower' extreme of this dimension represents maximum predominance and intensity of negative-type feeling, not merely a lack of positive feeling (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, p. 4).

Unconditionality of Regard

Unconditionality of regard is the degree of variability (as contrasted with the mean tendency) or one person's affective response to another...in particular, the more that A's immediate regard for B varies in response to change in B's feelings toward himself, or toward A, or the different experiences or attitudes that B is communicating to A, or differences in A's mood that are not dependent on B, or any other varying condition, the more conditional (or less unconditional) it is (Barrett-Lennard, 1962, p. 4).

Ego-involvement

Ego-involvement refers to the arousal of an ego attitude (or combinations thereof), which is triggered by a stimulus situation relevant to it. Ego-involving psychological activity brought through the arousal of a situationally relevant attitude of the person generates modes of behavior that are more consistent, more selective, and more characteristic of the person in that respect (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, p. 296).

Latitude of Acceptance

The latitude of acceptance is that segment that includes the own position of the person on the issue, plus other positions he will tolerate around his own position (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, p. 296).

Latitude of Rejection

The latitude of rejection is that segment that includes the position on the issue most objectionable (obnoxious) to the person, plus other positions also objectionable to him (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, p. 296).

Latitude of Noncommitment

The latitude of noncommitment is that range on which the individual expresses neither acceptance nor rejection—for reasons of his own (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, p. 297).

Limitations

It was not possible to have a control group, since the funding sources specifically requested that all volunteers receive training prior to working with clients. Only one training program was possible for practical and financial reasons. Had there been two groups, the size of N would have been too small.

Although the training program was uniform, the experiences should not be confused with an experimental treatment. Staff assistants were involved in a variety of activities with many types of clients. It can not be assumed that they each saw an equal number of clients for the same number of sessions, nor that the clients were comparable. Number of hours volunteered also varied widely. Although the staff assistants were involved in different types of activities and for varying numbers of hours, the relationship with the client was considered to be the primary factor in each assignment.

Randomization was not possible, due to the commitment required by a staff assistant. There was a preselection factor apparently operating, also. Most of the staff assistants were recruited prior to the opening of the Center and prior to the writer's association with the Center. In general, the prospective staff assistants were female and active in other service organizations such as Junior Service League, church groups, and others. Some had been exposed to the training programs of Contact and to the Oklahoma City Juvenile Court Volunteer program. It appears that the

first group of staff assistants represented a highly motivated and experienced sample. Any interpretations of the data will need to consider the backgrounds of the volunteers and how they compare with the backgrounds of other volunteers. As noted in Table 3 listing educational level of the volunteers, they have a higher percentage of degrees and educational preparation than the national sample of volunteers in corrections.

The limitations listed above do not negate the value of the study.

According to Pinto (1971),

The absence of control groups does not destroy the value of the study. Descriptive, exploratory analysis at least indicates which phenomena are actually together in the real world....If we thus can learn which phenomena are actually linked together in the real world, then we can begin to investigate the results and conditions of that linkage (p. 46).

The most serious difficulty in the study is the small sample size.

The smaller the sample, the more difficult it is to validate predictors.

However, even if the battery would not predict volunteer success based on this number of cases, the procedures for developing a battery have been established and can be used with other instruments as appropriate.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

The general plan of the research can be classified as a field study, since there are no independent variables which can be manipulated. Typically, in ex post facto field studies, it is not possible to select subjects randomly, and a control group was not feasible. Although Kerlinger (1964) pointed out the usefulness and the realism of field studies, he suggested caution in inferring causal factors.

The study has procedures similar to Gilmer (1966), which listed the steps necessary when supervisor ratings are used as criterion measures. Briefly, they are: define successful performance, construct a measure for each statement in the definition, determine interrelationships and weight of each, give the items, measure the performance after a suitable time interval, and determine which are the best predictors. In addition it was determined if the joint prediction of several instruments added significantly to the predictive power of a single measure.

Description of the Instruments

The predictive instruments used in the study are the California F-Scale

(Authoritarianism), Counselor Personality Scale (Cs Scale) of the MMPI, and lists of what the volunteers liked and what they would change in teenagers (Lists). The criteria used in the study included the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, the subjective estimate by supervisors, and the Behavioral Rating Scale.

California F-Scale (Authoritarianism)

Adorno's scale has been widely used in research settings for a number of years. Since World War II, "the scale which has stimulated the greatest number of studies...is the authoritarianism or F-Scale (Farnsworth & McNemar, 1963, p. 236)." There have been numerous studies which considered the reliability of the instrument. In the original study conducted by Adorno, the reliability coefficients for the total score, odd half, and even half, were reported for four populations. The populations included University of Oregon student women, a combination of University of Oregon and University of California student men, and one group of service club men. Total scale score correlation coefficients were reported as .86, .96, .93, and .81, for the four groups respectively (Adorno, 1950). The populations of the four groups do not differ substantially from the educational level of the volunteer sample population used in the present study.

Although Kerlinger (1964) has noted the heuristic value of the F-Scale, he has pointed out that in recent years the scale has been criticized because of inadequate validity. Adorno (1950) reported validation

by case study, a detailed report on Larry and Mack. The scale has been found to be related to the E-Scale (Ethnocentrism). The F-Scale is an indirect measure of ethnocentrism, while the E-Scale is a direct measure of the same quality.

Scoring the scale is easily accomplished in a minimum amount of time. Each of the 29 items is assigned a value ranging from -3 to +3 representing the respondent's degree of disagreement or agreement with the statement. A constant of +3 is added to each item score to eliminate negative numbers. The scores are summed and the total is then divided by the number of items. Possible scores after the division are 0 to 6. Low scores indicate low authoritarian personalities and high scores indicate high authoritarian personalities.

Cs Scale of the MMPI

The MMPI is a well established research tool and well documented by sources such as Dahlstrom & Welch (1960). Several studies have been closely related to prediction of volunteer success. Barron & Donohue (1951) were interested in predicting the success of ancillary personnel in therapeutic programs. Supervisor rating on attitude and job performance in several areas were criterion measures. The MMPI was reportedly useful in eliminating psychopathic applicants, but was not sensitive to other variations in efficiency in the performance of duties by psychiatric aides.

Kelly & Fiske (1951) attempted to predict promising candidates for

training as clinical psychologists (not just therapists). The criteria included content examinations and clinical diagnostic skills, and the MMPI was used as a predictor. No more than chance level correlation was demonstrated.

Similar criteria were used by Gough (1957a), who found a reliable predictor of clinical competencies in the Social Status (St Scale). The Intellectual Efficiency (Ie Scale) also indicated a positive relationship with a number of ratings and with the diagnostic competence measure. Gough (1957b) also developed a scale for graduate students in psychology (Py Scale). When scored on the clinical candidates of the Kelly & Fiske project, the Py Scale showed some significant correlation with ratings of clinical competence.

Cottle, Lewis, & Penney (1954) used membership in a training program rather than a rating of competence as a criterion measure. They identified 51 items of the MMPI, which they designated as Counselor Personality (Cs Scale), to evaluate the personality characteristics of counseling psychologists. The scale was found to differentiate college students in general from counseling students at a stable level. The scale held up in cross-validation. The educational level was similar to the sample of staff assistants in the present study. The goal of predicting counseling skills was consonant with the goal of this study.

The scale designated as Counselor Personality appeared to be an appropriate one to use in the present study. Dahlstrom & Welch (1960)

expressly stated the need for more work in this area, especially the development of specific criteria.

Questionnaire

The volunteers were asked to complete a questionnaire which consisted of several pages of forms to complete. Part of the form required fairly routine demographic information and an autobiography was requested. Two sections of the form began with the instruction, "Name ten things you really like about teenagers as they appear to you," and "Name ten things you would like to change in teenagers." Each of the instructions was followed by ten numbered blanks to complete, and together are referred to as Lists. Another section was headed by the instructions, "Briefly state in your own words your views on juvenile delinquency. (Use back of sheet if necessary.)"

The rationale for using the completion items lies in the theories of Rogers and Sherif. The purpose of the measures was to determine the ego-involvement of the volunteers in an indirect manner. Content analysis was selected as a technique to quantify the completion data. The rationale is given in greater detail in the section which discusses the theoretical foundation of the instruments.

Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory

The Relationship Inventory consists of 64 items which compose four sub-scales: Level of Regard, Empathic Understanding, Unconditionality

of Regard, and Congruence. There are several forms of the inventory which vary the personal pronouns in number and gender, according to the person or persons taking the test. Form OS-M-64 was modified as provided for by Barrett-Lennard (1962) to read client or clients, rather than me or I.

The scoring of the items provides for four subscale scores and one total score, if desired. In order to group the responses according to subscales and to separate the positively and negatively stated items, a special scoring sheet is necessary. Two subtotals for each subscale are added according to their sign. The subtotals containing the negatively stated items are multiplied by a negative 1. The two subtotals for each subscale are added to yield four subscale scores. These scores can be added to yield a total score. Positive scores on the total scores suggest that the respondent would be effective in relationships with clients. Total scores possible range from plus or minus 192. High negative scores suggest that the respondent would be unsuccessful in client relationships, while the high positive scores suggest that the respondent would be successful in client relationships.

Numerous studies have considered the reliability and validity of the four subscales. Reliability coefficients computed by Snelbecker (1961 & 1967) by split-half method ranged from .74 to .94. Hollenbech (1965) obtained split-half reliability coefficients ranging from .83 to .95 and test-retest reliability coefficients ranging from .61 to .81. Berzon

(1964) obtained a test-retest correlation of .86 for the total scores.

The form which was modified for this study was checked by test-retest methods (Barrett-Lennard, 1969) and the coefficients ranged from .79 to .89 on the subscales and .85 on the total score. Similar coefficients were reported by Mills and Zytowski (1967) on test-retest reliability. Their correlations ranged from .80 to .87. Although these reliability checks did not involve supervisory studies, the scale appears to be reliable in other varied uses.

The validity of the Relationship Inventory scales has been established by carefully designed and conducted studies in which predicted associations between Relationship Inventory measures and other variables stemming directly from the theoretical and logical scheme on which the instrument is based were found (Thornton, 1960); Emmerling, 1961; Clark & Culbert, 1965; Gross & DeRidder, 1966; van der Veen, 1965; and Cahoon, 1962). As in the reliability studies, the validity checks dealt with a wide variety of significant relationships increasing the generalizability of the scales (Barrett-Lennard, 1969).

The instrument has been a heuristic one. More than sixty studies using the Relationship Inventory have been reported (Barrett-Lennard & Elliott, 1969). The instrument has been used in these studies with very diverse samples of subjects and in the context of a wide variety of specific research problems. It was learned that there are many other investigations currently in progress using this instrument

(Barrett-Lennard, personal communication, 1972).

Subjective Estimate

A global estimate of the effectiveness of the volunteers was made by four staff members who nominated the eight most successful staff assistants. No ranking was indicated on the ratings. Supervisor designated members in either group on the basis of their number of nominations to a given category. Names not included in either category were considered as functioning as moderately successful staff assistants. The distribution of ratings was negatively skewed with the moderately successful and the more successful staff assistants being clustered closely together. The least successful group was easier for the supervisors to identify.

Behavioral Rating Scale

This scale was constructed by the researcher as a criterion for volunteer success. In order to determine how useful the items might be, a questionnaire was mailed to fifty volunteer supervisors across the United States. Fifty-four percent of the sample returned the form. The respondents rated each item from 1 to 7 on an assumed equal-interval scale varying from "least important" to "most important" in rating volunteer success. The mean rating was computed for each item, and varied from 4.1 to 6.7 on the 23 items. Since the mean for each item was in the area of the scale indicating "very important" in rating volunteers,

the response suggested that the items may be appropriate for criterion measures. A rater bias is always possible, however.

Space was given for other suggested items and for a description of techniques or instruments they use for evaluation. There were many comments expressing interest in the study, but none which gave specific measures for evaluations. Only two respondents suggested additional items.

The questionnaire asked for educational background, number of years in supervising volunteers, and number of volunteers currently under their supervision. The sample of supervisors included nine with undergraduate degrees, fourteen with master's degrees, and three with doctorate degrees. Eleven of the respondents did not include their college major, but the others are as follows: two each from Sociology, Psychology, & Religion; five from Social Work; one each from Counseling, Criminology, Education, Law, and Journalism.

The sample population was selected randomly from the participants in the second Annual Convention for Volunteers in Probation. The population of supervisors was predominately male. Only six of the respondents were female.

Theoretical Foundation of the Instruments

The theoretical rationale of the instruments and the training of the raters is given primary emphasis in this section. The theoretical founda-

tion cannot completely be isolated from any part of the study, however. In general, the theoretical bases of the instruments are found in the theories of projective testing, the personality theory of Carl Rogers, and the attitude theory of Sherif & Sherif.

Each theory referred to in this study has had ample research which suggests that the theory offers a viable means to predict behavior.

According to Rogers (1951) the person is best studied from an internal frame of reference which will reflect his experience and his perceptions. The data collected from the volunteers relating their views of delinquency, lists of what they like and what they would change about teenagers, and the autobiography are examples of utilizing the volunteer's frame of reference. Qualitative studies which analyze client verbalizations are frequently found in the literature (Rogers, 1942, 1948, 1951). Rogers' theories are compatible with projective techniques, in that the basic premise of projective tests is that the individual will project his personality or need system into the unstructured or minimally structured situation.

The underlying hypothesis of projective tests is that the way in which the individual perceives and interprets the test material, or 'structures' the situation, will reflect fundamental aspects of his psychological functioning (Anastasi, 1968, p. 494).

The projective sections dealing with the completion sections of the questionnaire allowed the volunteers to structure their responses and to project their personalities into the task. They were included in the

battery to complement the MMPI and other standardized techniques.

Content analysis represents one method of quantifying data in the study. Porter (1943) laid the groundwork in the area of content analysis by formulating a set of categories which can be classified and counted. Lazarfeld & Barton (1951) developed a workable category system but did not attempt to relate one variable to another.

Berelson (1952) expanded the use of content analysis and listed sixteen uses of his method to "reflect attitudes, interests, and values ('cultural patterns') of population groups." Berelson's objectives of content analysis are:

...to create reproducible or 'objective' data, which are susceptible to measurement and quantitative treatment, have significance for some systematic theory, and may be generalized beyond the specific set of material analyzed (p. 512).

His system provided for nominal and ordinal treatment of the material. Words, themes, characters, items, and space-and-time measures are some of the suggested units of analysis by Berelson.

In this study, the quantification unit for the content analysis of the two lists will be the number of words per list. Berelson stressed the importance of relating the analysis to a theory. The present study will relate the content analysis to the attitude theory of Sherif & Sherif (1969).

According to Sherif & Sherif, the degree of ego-involvement of a person can be measured and predictions made by comparing the sizes and relationships of the latitude of acceptance, rejection, and non-

commitment. The successful staff assistant would be expected to be ego-involved in a positive manner and would be nonjudgmental in his approach to teenagers.

The greater the degree of ego-involvement in an issue (or identification with a group or ideology), the greater the size of the latitude of rejection relative to his latitude of acceptance.... The less the degree of ego-involvement, that is, the less committed he is on an issue...the more nearly equal the sizes of the latitudes of acceptance and rejection (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, p. 297).

The latitudes described by Sherif & Sherif are measured by the responses on a Sherif scale. This type of scale has nine statements which vary from negative to neutral to positive. A Sherif scale was not used in this study, but the sentence completion section dealing with what is liked or suggested changes in teenagers is analogous to his scale. A quantitative comparison of positive and negative attitudes is possible with both sentence completion and Sherif scales.

The number of words included in the positive section of what is liked about teenagers were counted and the number of words included in the negative section were counted and subtracted from the first total. This technique yields a negative number when the number of words on the negative list totals more than the number of words on the positive list.

The higher the negative number, the greater the ego-involvement in a negative position toward teenagers. Positive scores will occur when the positive list is quantitatively longer than the negative list. The

greater the positive score, the more ego-involvement in a positive position toward teenagers. This position is the most desirable for the staff assistant to hold. The more nearly the score approaches zero, the less ego-involved the staff assistant is toward teenagers. Extremity of the position reflects the personal importance of ego-involvement of the person as well as the relative size of the three latitudes (Cantril, 1946).

Although Sherif & Sherif (1969) measure the various latitudes by means of a Sherif scale, the same attitude positions can be measured by the sentence completion method in this study. Sherif & Sherif (1969) stated that,

...projective techniques for attitude assessment (including response to pictures, sentence completion tasks, doll play, etc.) can reveal the person's attitude or bias, particularly if it is very strong (p. 347).

The difficulty he attributed to this form of measurement is the reliance on judges to code the responses. This difficulty is not a factor in the present study, as the method of content analysis relied solely on the quantification of the number of words in each list.

The theoretical bases for the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory are clearly evident in the literature. The instrument was originally designed as a research instrument to measure the therapeutic conditions by the participants in the therapy relationship (Barrett-Lennard, 1971). It was based on the Rogerian triad of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard, but the latter was separated into "level of regard"

and "unconditionality of regard."

Studies which have used the Relationship Inventory as a supervisory measurement tool include Boyd (1970) in which the Relationship Inventory was used by supervisors to rate practicum students. Blumberg (1968) reported on perceptions of supervisors by teacher subjects as measured by the Relationship Inventory. Desrosiers (1967) used the Relationship Inventory for supervisors to rate the personal growth of counseling trainees. Thus, the use of the relationship inventory as a supervisory rating scale has been found to be methodologically acceptable. It

... evidently can be applied in almost any situation where there is significant involvement and interaction between persons (i.e. between the subjects and referent others)...appropriate changes in the instructions and the pronouns referring to self and other yield a variety of additional levels; for example...how as an external observer, I perceive or judge A to be responding to B or B to A (Barrett-Lennard, 1969, p. 7).

By the specific uses for the scale listed by Barrett-Lennard (1969), the scale is appropriately used as a supervisor rating, and as an estimate of the quality of relationships established by the staff assistants with their clients.

The California F-Scale (Authoritarianism) was included to measure the degree of authoritarianism in the staff assistants. The rationale of the test can be summarized briefly. It was designed as an indirect measure of authoritarianism, with the underlying premise that the quality measured would apply in a generalized way. High scores indicate a more closed system, or intolerance, while low scores suggest openness and

tolerance. The test performance is assumed to be similar to the manner in which the person characteristically approaches persons or situations. More tolerant, or nonjudgmental persons are expected to have lower scores on the F-Scale than closed or intolerant persons (Titus & Hollander, 1954).

The F-Scale was the only one on which lower scores indicated the more desirable scores. Low scores indicated low authoritarianism, and high scores indicated high authoritarianism. Thus, to avoid confusion in interpreting the F-Scale scores, the following transformation was performed. First the F-Scale was scored in the manner prescribed by the test author, which yields a score ranging from 0 to 6. The transformation then involved subtracting the score from 6, so that the resulting size of the scores were then interpretable in a manner consistent with other scores, i.e. the higher scores were now the more desirable or positive scores representing lower degrees of authoritarianism. Since the volunteers are expected to be accepting of a wide range of behaviors or ideas, the F-Scale appears to be an appropriate instrument to include in the study.

The MMPI has been widely used as a clinical tool and a research tool. Profiles of a variety of populations have been established and have been widely used in assessment, selection, and prediction. In the present study the Counselor Personality scale appeared to be most closely related to the prediction of volunteer counselor success.

Procedure

This section describes the collection of the data and discusses the statistical treatment of the data.

Collection of the Data

Twenty-seven Mid-Del Youth and Family Center volunteers were administered a battery of scales, which consisted of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, Cs-Scale of the MMPI, California F-Scale (Authoritarianism), and a sentence completion questionnaire. The questionnaire included demographic information, views toward juvenile delinquency, lists of what they like, lists of what they would change in teenagers, and an autobiography. All the forms were given at the Center within a few days of each other at the time of enrollment in the training program.

It was explained that the purpose of the forms was to satisfy the requirements of community leaders. The volunteers understood that their test scores would not make them ineligible to participate in the program, and that the test data would be used in a dissertation. Since no one was denied admission to the program on the basis of test scores, they accepted the tests as a formality rather than as selection instruments. However, the scores did influence the assignment of particular tasks, so they acted as screening devices in that way.

The volunteers were requested to answer questions with their first impression and not to talk with each other during testing. Questions were discouraged. They were informed that the information would enable the staff to make assignments more compatible with their talents and interests, and that it would be kept confidential. Generally, the volunteers followed the instructions, showing no behaviors indicating feelings of personal threat.

After the data collection, there was a 40-hour training program over an eight-week period of time. The volunteers were then designated as staff assistants and began working in the program. The training sessions should not be considered an experimental treatment, inasmuch as there was only one group and they all participated in the same training program.

After the period of six months of service to the Center, the staff assistants were rated using the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory, a Behavioral Rating Scale devised by the researcher, and subjective estimates of the most successful and the least successful staff assistants. Standardized instructions were given to the raters, and in order to minimize error (Anastasi, 1968), a short training session was held to discuss possible sources of errors, response bias, the importance of variance in the ratings, and their purpose. The raters were the Director, a Ph. D. candidate working as Director of Volunteer Services, and two other supervisory members of the staff. After the

training session, the ratings were made independently.

Statistical Procedure

The basic purpose of the study was to determine whether or not success as a volunteer could be predicted. The following three instruments were used as predictors: F-Scale, Cs Scale, and Lists. The reliability of each predictor was determined by methods described in this section.

The F-Scale was given to the subjects according to standardized procedures. The scores were transformed as described earlier, so that high scores would represent positive scores and low scores would represent negative scores. The F-Scale was the only instrument which required transformed scores.

The reliability of the test was determined by using a variance-covariance matrix yielded by the computer program factor of THE EDSTAT PACKAGE. The columns and diagonals of the matrix were summed, enabling the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 to be computed (Winer, 1962). This method of estimating reliability is a split-half reliability estimate based on the mean of all possible item splits, and is a lower-bound estimate.

The second predictor was the Counselor Personality (Cs Scale) taken from the MMPI. The MMPI was administered following standardized procedures. The 51 items of the Cs Scale were scored and the

number of "correct" or appropriate responses noted. The individual's score was the total number of appropriate responses on the Cs scale. The raw score was used in estimating the reliability. The method of obtaining the reliability of the Cs Scale was the same method used for the F-Scale. The variance covariance matrix and the Kuder-Richardson formula were used in the same procedure described above.

The third predictor, Lists, was an instrument constructed by the writer. The volunteers were asked to write the ten things they liked about adolescents (list 1), and ten things they would like to change in adolescents (list 2). The score was obtained by subtracting the actual word count of List 2 from List 1.

The reliability of the Lists was not estimated. It is the only instrument used in the study which has an unknown reliability.

Four criterion measures were observed on each volunteer. These included the Barrett-Lennard Scale, Subjective Rating Scale, Behavioral Rating Scale, and the sum of the three criteria.

The first criterion, Barrett-Lennard Scale, was scored according to standard procedures. The combined subtotals of the four subscales became the total score. The range was a possible plus or minus 192. The reliability of the instrument was estimated by means of one-way analysis of variance techniques (Winer, 1962). The calculations were made by means of a computer program for repeated measures and by using formula (7) in Winer (1962, p. 287).

Scores on the second criterion, the Subjective Rating Scale, were obtained by combining ratings of four judges. The judges were instructed to assign a rating of plus one to the eight most successful staff assistants. A negative one was assigned to the eight least successful staff assistants. A zero score was assigned to the middle group. Possible scores ranged from -4 to +4. The reliability of the test was estimated by means of one-way ANOVA procedures as described above (Winer, 1962, p. 287).

On the third criterion, the Behavioral Rating Scale, each person was rated on each item of a Likert type scale of values from one to seven. Summing the individual's item scores yielded the total score for the scale. As in the other ratings, the high scores represented the positive scores. The reliability of the scale was also estimated by means of one-way ANOVA as described above.

The scores of the criterion measures were weighted according to the reliability coefficient. The scores on the Barrett-Lennard and Subjective Rating Scale were assigned a weight of 1, and the Behavioral Rating Scale was assigned a weight of .7. A multiple regression analysis was then accomplished using the REGRAN program from THE EDSTAT PACKAGE. The procedure yielded the multiple correlations for each criterion and the total criterion with the three predictors combined.

The prediction of each criterion was examined as follows:

1. The best single predictor of each criterion measure was determined;
2. Multiple regression was used to determine the multiple correlation between the three predictors and each of the four criteria;
3. For each criterion measure, it was determined whether or not multiple regression gave significantly better prediction than the best single predictor;
4. Finally, estimates of cross-validity for each multiple regression equation were computed.

These steps were accomplished in the following manner. The best single predictor of each criterion was determined by analyzing the contents of the Intercorrelation Analysis (See Table 5.). The multiple correlation between the three predictors and each of the four criteria was reported on the computer printout accompanying the intercorrelation analysis. No further computations were required for the correlation coefficients.

The Intercorrelation analysis also provided the components to compute the multiple regression equations. The general linear model (Darlington, 1968) was used.

$$Y_j = \beta + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3$$

Y_j = the j th predicted criterion score ($j = 1, 2, 3, 4$). β = the regression constant. X_i = predictor scores ($i = 1, 2, 3$).

TABLE 5

Intercorrelations among Predictor and Criterion Measures

R MATRIX							
Predictors				Criteria			
	F Scale 1	Cs Scale 2	Lists 3	Rel. Inv. 4	Sub. Est. 5	B. R. Scale 6	Sum 7
1 F Scale	1.00	.27	.49	.56	.57	.56	.57
2 Cs Scale		1.00	.27	.43	.36	.36	.42
3 Lists			1.00	.64	.58	.70	.65
4 Relationship Inventory				1.00	.91	.91	.99
5 Subjective Estimate					1.00	.85	.91
6 Behavioral Rating Scale						1.00	.93
7 Sum of the criteria							1.00

The only hypothesis testing involved in the study was the statistical determination of whether the multiple regression equation was significantly better than any single regression equation for predicting volunteer success. The F-test was used to determine the level of significance for each equation. The F-test used should not be confused with the procedure which evaluated the hypothesis, $\rho = 0$. The F-test in this study compares the best single predictor (Lists) against the regression equation for all criteria in order to determine whether the multiple regression equation gives significantly better prediction than the best single predictor (McNemar, 1962).

Finally, the estimate of the cross-validated multiple regression coefficient ($\hat{\rho}_{cv}$) was computed by a formula from Herzberg (1969), and Darlington (1968). This procedure gives an estimation of the multiple correlation if the regression equation were applied to another sample. It is based on a random regression model. Since the sampling distribution of ρ_{cv} is unknown, a significance test was not possible.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

The results of the study show that volunteer counselors can be evaluated reliably and that success as a volunteer counselor can be predicted by the instruments selected for the study.

The reliability of each of the predictors and criteria, except Lists (of likes and suggested changes in teenagers), were estimated. The results are reported in Table 4 together with the mean and standard deviation of each measure. The estimated reliabilities of the predictors were found to be .95 for the F-Scale, .64 for the Cs scale; the reliability of Lists was not determined. The estimated reliabilities of the criteria were found to be .97 for the Relationship Inventory, .96 for the Subjective Rating Scale, .74 for the Behavioral Rating Scale, and .98 for the summed criteria.

Line three of Table 5 shows that the best single predictor for each criteria was Lists. In addition, it offers the advantage of being administered and scored easily. The score is the arithmetic difference between the number of words on the list of likes minus the number of

TABLE 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients
for Predictor and Criteria Measures

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Reliability
<u>Predictors</u>			
F-Scale	4.61	.85	.95 *
Cs Scale	35.56	5.36	.64 *
Lists	-1.81	18.97	Undetermined
<u>Criteria</u>			
Relationship Inventory	91.78	221.52	.97 **
Subjective Rating Scale	.04	2.83	.96 **
Behavioral Rating Scale	239.59	32.69	.74 **
Summed Criterion - Measures	331.41	254.29	.98 ***

Note - * Derived by Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (Winer, 1962).

** Derived by one-way analysis of Variance (Winer, 1962).

*** Derived by Jackson-Ferguson Battery Reliability (Rajaratnam, Cronbach, & Gleser, 1965)

words on the list of suggested changes.

The F-Scale was the second best predictor across all criteria. It was included on the assumption that low ;authoritarian volunteer counselors would be more successful than high authoritarian volunteer counselors. The findings of the study are consistent with that assumption.

In Table 5 the intercorrelations of the predictors and criterion measures are shown. High intercorrelations between the criteria and low intercorrelations between the predictors are reported. This suggests that the criteria are measuring the same thing and allows them to be added. Summing the criteria offers the advantage of using a single validity measure. Since the predictors have lower intercorrelations, they can be interpreted as tapping different portions of volunteer success. The high intercorrelations between criterion measures suggest that the selection of the criteria was appropriate.

The Beta weights of each instrument are listed in Table 6. The regression equations can be written from the information given in the table. Further, the F-test was computed to determine whether the multiple regression equation yielded significantly better prediction than the best single predictor. The F values show that in two instances, when the Relationship Inventory or the Summed criteria is used, the multiple regression equation predicts significantly better than the best single predictor. In the two cases where Lists did as well as the

multiple regression equation, the correlation is significantly better than zero.

The intercorrelation of the Relationship Inventory and the Sum of the criteria was .99 (see Table 5). Thus, the Relationship Inventory explains sufficient summed criterion variance to make the other measures redundant.

An estimate of the cross-validity of the instruments yielded validity estimates ranging from .56 to .67 (see Table 6).

The basic questions of the study have been answered. Volunteer success can be predicted, and a set of procedures to do so has been outlined.

TABLE 6

Regression Analysis Showing Beta Weights for Perspective Criteria

Measures, Multiple R's, F values, and

Estimation of Cross-validated

Multiple R Coefficients

Criteria	Beta Weights				R	F*	Estimated Cross-Validated R
	Reg. Constant	F-Scale	Cs Scale	Lists			
Relationship Inventory	594.47	79.02	9.31	5.11	.74	3.50**	.63
Subjective Rating Scale	8.35	1.20	.08	.06	.69	3.15	.56
Behavioral Rating Scale	161.97	10.57	.86	.93	.76	2.48	.67
Summed Criterion	441.04	90.79	10.26	6.10	.75	3.51**	.64

Note - critical F = 3.42 at .05 level.

** Significant at .05 level.

* F-test determined whether the multiple regression equation predicted significantly better than the best single predictor.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The reliabilities of the instruments were generally high. Four of the reliability coefficients were .95 or greater, while only two were lower than .95: .64 on the Cs Scale and .74 on the Behavioral Rating Scale. One flaw in the study is that the design of the study did not include a procedure to allow an estimation of the reliability for the best single predictor of the study, Lists. One possible way to estimate reliability in a future study would be by the test-retest procedure. In the present study a retest was given after the training period and after true changes would be expected to occur. Therefore, the retest was not used in statistical analysis or to find the reliability of the scale.

The Table of intercorrelations (Table 5) reports Lists as the best single predictor and the F-Scale as the second best predictor. Correlations between the Cs Scale and the various criteria are rather low. Apparently the Cs Scale does not add appreciably to the predictive power of the battery.

The reliability of the Relationship Inventory and the Summed criteria was .97 and .98 respectively (Table 4). Since the inter-correlation was .99, the Relationship Inventory explains most of the variance yielded by the other criteria. The F-test shows only two multiple regression equations to be significantly better than any single regression equation. These were the equations using the Relationship Inventory and the Summed criteria. Since there is minimal difference in the reliabilities, interreliabilities, and the F-test results, it appears that the most conservative decision is to use the equation with the Relationship Inventory and all the predictors. There would be negligible advantage in using the other criteria.

Each of the predictors can be administered with a small amount of staff time. Scoring requires only a few minutes per test, also. The only major investment of staff time is required by the Relationship Inventory. There are 64 items, and the supervisor must have spent considerable time observing, consulting, and training the volunteers in order to rate them on the scale. There is no appreciable cost in the materials required for the tests.

One difficulty in the study is the small sample size. It would have been difficult to have trained more than 30 volunteers during the first training session, however. The size of N was 27, which makes generalization to other populations tenuous. The cross-validated estimates were high enough to suggest that the measures could be valid for other

populations, however. Nevertheless, the procedures have been established which could be applied to a larger sample.

It is recommended that the study be replicated using a larger sample size. One possibility would be to use volunteers from agencies across the state in order to get a reasonable sample size. Project Misdemeanant in Oklahoma City is one of the largest volunteer programs in the state which trains volunteers for counseling-related activities. They currently have eighty trained volunteers and are training fifteen more. By combining their volunteers and those of the Youth Service Bureaus around the state, a more representative sample could be obtained. The Youth Service Bureaus have already developed uniform reporting systems and have worked cooperatively with other agencies on that project.

A different aspect of the study is the qualitative material. Consideration of the predictive value of the content, quality, and emotional investment in the autobiography, Lists of likes and suggested changes in teenagers, and Views of juvenile delinquency, could be another study. As expected, the highly successful volunteers were more ego-involved in a positive position about teenagers. They wrote longer descriptions of what they liked about teenagers rather than what they would change in teenagers. The volunteers who were less successful were more ego-involved in a negative position about teenagers, and wrote longer descriptions of what they would like to change in teenagers.

Successful staff assistants tended to be concrete and reasonable when expressing their expectations of teenagers. For instance, one successful staff assistant stated, "I do not expect them to have perfected or completed their lives or attitudes," while the least successful volunteers expressed idealistic changes which would make teenagers more like their view of the ideal adult. "Refusing to be productive (drawing welfare checks)," was one complaint of a least successful volunteer. Another objected to "their noisiness."

One of the volunteers attempted to "fake good" by not responding to the list of changes. Another said, "I can't respond to this. Most of the teenagers I know have excellent self-images. I wouldn't change anything about them" The same volunteer responded to her view of juvenile delinquency with, "All I know is what I read in the papers..." The two responses are incongruous and reflect a lack of understanding or willingness to see. This volunteer was one of the least flexible and most judgmental of the group. Another volunteer wrote, "Many are the same as above," when listing changes. The "above" referred to the things he liked about teenagers. It is difficult to see how the lists of likes and changes could be the same.

When giving their statement of their views of juvenile delinquency, the least successful volunteers consistently blamed "parents," "home," or "society." The most successful volunteers were less judgmental in their responses and did not blame anyone. In comparison, a success-

ful volunteer responded, "...juvenile delinquency is the result of fears and needs in a child's life which have never been resolved or met..."

After the training sessions and the six months' experience as staff assistants, they were again asked to fill out the sheet asking for their views of juvenile delinquency and the lists of likes and changes. The volunteer who answered, "All I know is what I read in the papers," answered, "my views have not changed since I last answered these questions." This is viewed as other evidence of her inflexibility and resistance.

The data yielded by the autobiography was also revealing. In general, the successful volunteers used more personal pronouns, and gave more details about family. They reported unhappy events without remorse, and seemed to have worked through them.

The least successful volunteers gave several types of responses. Four autobiographies clearly were a request for therapy. They were asking for sympathy and for someone to help them with their personal problems. Their autobiographies reflected a feeling of helplessness. The least successful male volunteers wrote achievement-oriented statements. There was only one male in the "most successful" group to compare with, and his answers were family-oriented. Male staff assistants from the moderately successful group also gave family or person-oriented responses. The number of males was much too small to allow statistical treatment of sex differences. The third type of

response from the unsuccessful volunteers was a "Pollyanna" response. They seemed too artificially good and lacked maturity in their presentation. "I wish everyone could write what I have just written," was the conclusion to one autobiography. Another began with a list of his organization memberships and shifted abruptly to devote more than one-half of the space to the accomplishments of his son. The response suggested that the volunteer was unsure of himself and demonstrated it in later performance. The response suggested that his success feelings were dependent on his son's activities rather than his own.

A content analysis of the autobiographies and views of juvenile delinquency would have been interesting, but would have required more data and judges than were available for this study.

Another possible study would be the effects of the volunteers' experiences at the Center on their personal growth and effectiveness. Early comments by the staff assistants concerning their doubts about personal capacity to help people would be noted. Their gradual realization that they have a great deal to offer and their willingness to do so would be described. At first, it takes much time for some volunteers to agree to accept various tasks. Then, after a varying time period when they become more confident, they ask to do more difficult assignments. The time it takes before they request more demanding assignments could be charted for future reference. It would be helpful to be able to predict which would require too much staff time in preparation

for their effective participation in the program.

Many of the volunteers have reported that their family lives and jobs have been favorably changed because of the training and experience at the Center. Seven of the volunteers have begun college course work since completing their training. There were several who were already students, but these were new students who became interested in additional course work, reportedly, as a result of their experiences at the Center.

A more complete study might include photographs of the staff assistants with their clients in informal situations. The staff has frequently commented on the noticeable, favorable changes in the client's appearance after working with the volunteers for a period of time. The young people lose their look of mistrust and appear more confident and happy with themselves. This same confidence and increased self-esteem can be noted in the staff assistants.

Also, the staff assistants began moving into other situations of community leadership and responsibility. Their experiences here have been generalized into other areas of commitment. This also might serve as the basis for further study.

Other suggested studies could deal with:

1. The impact of volunteer programs on the staff, clients, volunteers, and community.

2. Personality changes or behavior changes in the clients of volunteer counselors.
3. How to match the volunteer and client for optimal effectiveness.
4. Innovative techniques in training and service delivery.

Sampling, control groups, and random assignment of treatments have been stumbling blocks for many studies involving volunteer participation. There is a great demand for carefully controlled experimental studies in many aspects of volunteer activities.

In the present study the primary consideration was defining volunteer success and non-success, and predicting this success using single and multiple predictors. It was recommended that the equation with the Relationship Inventory and all three predictors be used. Further, it is recommended that a method of computing the reliability of Lists be provided in any replication of the study. In general, the study was valuable to the researcher and the Mid-DeI Youth and Family Center. Further research in the area of volunteer participation is planned. Future studies will incorporate the responses of the clients to the volunteers and staff members.

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APPENDIX A

BEHAVIORAL RATING SCALE ITEMS

1. Behaves in a relaxed and friendly manner.
2. Is flexible in stress situations.
3. Works well with a variety of people.
4. Expresses strong feelings in appropriate ways.
5. Avoids taking the feelings of others too personally.
6. Appears to be nonjudgemental toward clients.
7. Appears to be nonjudgemental toward other staff assistants.
8. Does not appear to be competitive with other staff assistants.
9. Sustains confidence in professional personnel.
10. Maintains confidentiality of information.
11. Subordinates personal interest to service responsibility.
12. Accepts a variety of assignments readily.
13. Follows through with a minimum of direction.
14. Is open to new experiences.
15. Is on time for appointments with clients and staff.
16. Is committed to goals of the program rather than to a particular staff member.
17. Acts as a good ambassador for the Center.
18. Accepts supervision without resentment.
19. Displays willingness to listen to others.
20. Appears to respect the feelings of non-supervisory staff personnel.

21. Maintains a sense of humor.
22. Creatively extends himself beyond specific assignments in growth experiences. (Enrolled in classes, attends seminars and workshops, etc.)
23. Submits written reports on time.

APPENDIX B

RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY
FormOS-M-64

Below are listed a variety of ways that one person may feel or behave in relation to another person.

Please consider each statement with reference to the staff assistant's relationship with his clients.

Mark each statement in the left margin, according to how strongly you feel that it is true, or not true, in this relationship. Please mark every one. Write in +3, +2, +1, or -1, -2, -3, to stand for the following answers:

- | | |
|---|--|
| +3: Yes, I strongly feel that it is true | -1: No, I feel that it is probably untrue, or more untrue than true. |
| +2: Yes, I feel it is true. | |
| +1: Yes, I feel that it is probably true, or more true than untrue. | -2: No, I feel it is not true. |
| | -3: No, I strongly feel that it is not true. |
-

- _____ 1. He respects the client as a person.
- _____ 2. He wants to understand how the client sees things.
- _____ 3. His interest in the client depends on the things the client says or does.
- _____ 4. He is comfortable and at ease in their relationship.
- _____ 5. He feels a true liking for the client.
- _____ 6. He may understand the client's words but he does not see the way the client feels.

- ☐ 7. Whether he is feeling happy or unhappy with himself makes no real difference to the way he feels about the client.
- ☐ 8. The client feels that he puts on a role or front with him.
- ☐ 9. He is impatient with the client.
- ☐ 10. He nearly always knows exactly what the client means.
- ☐ 11. Depending on the client's behavior, he has a better opinion of the client sometimes than he has at other times.
- ☐ 12. The client feels that he is real and genuine with him.
- ☐ 13. The client feels appreciated by him.
- ☐ 14. He looks at what the client does from his own point of view.
- ☐ 15. His feeling toward the client doesn't depend on how the client feels toward him.
- ☐ 16. It makes him uneasy when the client asks or talks about certain things.
- ☐ 17. He is indifferent to the client.
- ☐ 18. He usually senses or realizes what the client is feeling.
- ☐ 19. He wants the client to be a particular kind of person.
- ☐ 20. The client nearly always feels that what he says expresses exactly what he is feeling and thinking as he says it.
- ☐ 21. He finds the client rather dull and uninteresting.
- ☐ 22. His own attitudes toward some of the things the client does or says prevents him from understanding the client.
- ☐ 23. The client can (or could) be openly critical or appreciative of him without really making him feel any differently about the client.

- _____ 24. He wants the client to think that he likes the client or understands the client more than he really cares.
- _____ 25. He cares for the client.
- _____ 26. Sometimes he thinks that the client feels a certain way, because that's the way he feels.
- _____ 27. He likes certain things about the client and there are other things he does not like.
- _____ 28. He does not avoid anything that is important for their relationship.
- _____ 29. The client feels that he disapproves of the client.
- _____ 30. He realizes what the client means even when the client has difficulty in saying it.
- _____ 31. His attitude toward the client stays the same: he is not pleased with the client sometimes and critical or disappointed at other times.
- _____ 32. Sometimes he is not at all comfortable but they go on, outwardly ignoring it.
- _____ 33. He just tolerates the client.
- _____ 34. He usually understands the whole of what the client means.
- _____ 35. If the client shows that he is angry with him he becomes hurt or angry with the client too.
- _____ 36. He expresses his true impressions and feelings with the client.
- _____ 37. He is friendly and warm with the client.
- _____ 38. He just takes no notice of some things that the client thinks or feels.
- _____ 39. How much he likes or dislikes the client is not altered by anything that the client tells him about himself.
- _____ 40. At times the client senses that he is not aware of what he

is really feeling with the client.

- _____ 41. The client feels that he really values the client.
- _____ 42. He appreciates exactly how the things the client experiences feel to the client.
- _____ 43. He approves of some things the client does and plainly disapproves of others.
- _____ 44. He is willing to express whatever is actually in his mind with the client.
- _____ 45. He doesn't like the client for himself.
- _____ 46. At times he thinks that the client feels a lot more strongly about a particular thing than the client really does.
- _____ 47. Whether the client is in good spirits or feeling upset does not make him feel any more or less appreciative of the client.
- _____ 48. He is openly himself in their relationship.
- _____ 49. The client seems to irritate and bother him.
- _____ 50. He does not realize how sensitive the client is about some of the things they discuss.
- _____ 51. Whether the ideas and feelings the client expresses are "good" or "bad" seems to make no difference to his feeling toward the client.
- _____ 52. There are times when the client feels that his outward response to the client is quite different from the way he feels underneath.
- _____ 53. At times he feels contempt for the client.
- _____ 54. He understands the client.
- _____ 55. Sometimes the client is more worthwhile in his eyes than the client is at other times.

- _____ 56. The client has not felt that he tries to hide anything from himself that he feels with the client.
- _____ 57. He is truly interested in the client.
- _____ 58. His response to the client is usually so fixed and automatic that the client doesn't really get through to him.
- _____ 59. The client doesn't think that anything the client says or does really changes the way he feels toward the client.
- _____ 60. What he says to the client often gives a wrong impression of his whole thought or feeling at the time.
- _____ 61. He feels deep affection for the client.
- _____ 62. When the client is hurt or upset he can recognize the client's feelings exactly, without becoming upset himself.
- _____ 63. What other people think of the client does (or would, if he knew) affect the way he feels toward the client.
- _____ 64. The client believes that the staff assistant has feelings he does not tell the client about that are causing difficulty in their relationship.

APPENDIX C

Items of the Counselor Personality (Cs scale)
taken from the MMPI

Item No.	No. on MMPI	Item
1.	32	I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job.
2.	33	I have had very peculiar and strange experiences.
3.	45	I do not always tell the truth.
4.	71	I think a great many people exaggerate their misfortunes in order to gain the sympathy and help of others.
5.	81	I think I would like the kind of work a forest ranger does.
6.	94	I do many things which I regret afterwards (I regret things more or more often than others seem to).
7.	105	Sometimes when I am not feeling well I am cross.
8.	112	I frequently find it necessary to stand up for what I think is right.
9.	124	Most people will use somewhat unfair means to gain profit or an advantage rather than to lose it.
10.	128	The sight of blood neither frightens me nor makes me sick.
11.	129	Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy.
12.	136	I commonly wonder what hidden reason another person may have for doing something nice for me.
13.	142	I certainly feel useless at times.

- | | | |
|-----|-----|---|
| 14. | 160 | I have never felt better in my life than I do now. |
| 15. | 195 | I do not like everyone I know. |
| 16. | 198 | I daydream very little. |
| 17. | 217 | I frequently find myself worrying about something. |
| 18. | 223 | I very much like hunting. |
| 19. | 237 | My relatives are nearly all in sympathy with me. |
| 20. | 238 | I have periods of such great restlessness that I cannot sit long in a chair. |
| 21. | 241 | I dream frequently about things that are best kept to myself. |
| 22. | 244 | My way of doing things is apt to be misunderstood by others. |
| 23. | 248 | Sometimes without any reason or even when things are going wrong I feel excitedly happy, "on top of the world." |
| 24. | 250 | I don't blame anyone for trying to grab everything he can get in this world. |
| 25. | 255 | Sometimes at elections I vote for men about whom I know very little. |
| 26. | 258 | I believe there is a God. |
| 27. | 271 | I do not blame a person for taking advantage of someone who lays himself open to it. |
| 28. | 278 | I have often felt that strangers were looking at me critically. |
| 29. | 280 | Most people make friends because friends are likely to be useful to them. |
| 30. | 292 | I am likely not to speak to people until they speak to me. |

31. 319 Most people inwardly dislike putting themselves out to help other people.
32. 324 I have never been in love with anyone.
33. 348 I tend to be on my guard with people who are somewhat more friendly than I had expected.
34. 359 Sometimes some unimportant thought will run through my mind and bother me for days.
35. 378 I do not like to see women smoke.
36. 383 People often disappoint me.
37. 386 I like to keep people guessing what I'm going to do next.
38. 390 I have often felt badly over being misunderstood when trying to keep someone from making a mistake.
39. 395 The future is too uncertain for a person to make serious plans.
40. 396 Often, even though everything is going fine for me, I feel that I don't care about anything.
41. 404 People have often misunderstood my intentions when I was trying to put them right and be helpful.
42. 408 I am apt to hide my feelings in some things, to the point that people may hurt me without their knowing about it.
43. 409 At times I have worn myself out by undertaking too much.
44. 416 It bothers me to have someone watch me at work even though I know I can do it well.
45. 418 At times I think I am no good at all.
46. 442 I have had periods in which I lost sleep over worry.

47. 447 I am often inclined to go out of my way to win a point with someone who has opposed me.
48. 461 I find it hard to set aside a task that I have undertaken, even for a short time.
49. 468 I am often sorry because I am so cross and grouchy.
50. 504 I do not try to cover up my poor opinion or pity of a person so that he won't know how I feel.
51. 537 I would like to hunt lions in Africa.

APPENDIX D

Scoring key for the Cs scale

True	False
45	32
105	33
160	71
195	81
198	94
237	112
255	124
442	128
	129
	136
	142
	217
	223
	238
	241
	244
	248
	250
	258
	271
	278
	280
	292
	319
	324
	348
	359
	378
	383
	386
	390
	395
	396
	404
	408

APPENDIX E

(Taken from questionnaire)

Briefly state in your own words your views on juvenile delinquency.

(Use back of sheet if necessary.)

Name ten things you really like about teenagers as they appear to you.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

Name ten things you would like to change in teenagers.

1.

2.
