center for community change

LEAA TRAINING AND INFORMATION MANUAL

DEVELOPED BY:

COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION SERVICES PROJECT STAFF

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May I take this opportunity to express my appreciation to the Office of Community Anti-Crime Programs who have funded the Phase-Out Cluster Workshops, the Trainers Manual and the Training and Information Manual. Additional expressions of gratitude are extended to the Community Crime Prevention Services Project staff for without their cooperation, diligence and the continued spirit of moving right along, the development of this document would not have been possible. The CCPSP staff who developed modules contained in this document were Bonnie Wood, Julia Singham, Bob Brown, Michelle Hannahs and Deborah Brouse. Hyveth Williams provided invaluable assistance in our research.

A special thanks is extended to the clerical support team whose willingness to keep moving (typing) right along, also made this document a reality. The clerical support team was Yolanda S. Green, Esther Mattox, Workshop Coordinator, and Charlene M. Howard.

The opportunity to facilitate the conceptualization and development of this document has been personally and professionally rewarding. It is my personal hope that as a member of the training community, you will reap the same rewards.

In the spirit of sharing, training, teaching and learning with all members of the training community, I wish you success in imparting your skills, information and resources with members of your community anti-crime program.

R. Laurence Coates
Director of Training
Center for Community Change

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INTRODUCTION

HOW TO USE THE INFORMATION AND TRAINING MANUAL

As you participate in the LEAA/OCACP Phase-Out Cluster Workshop, we hope that you will gain information useful in designing strategies to continue your crime prevention activities beyond LEAA/OCACP funding.

In addition, we anticipate that you will want to transfer your new information and skills to your staff upon return to your organization. The Information and Training Manual has been designed to assist you in this effort. Therefore, it contains not only resource materials to support and embellish the content presented in the workshop, but also includes materials which should help you to facilitate the learning of this content among your own staff. We are making the assumption that merely making a brief report on your attendance at this workshop upon your return is not enough for you, that you want to actively encourage new learning among your staff and that you are willing to spend some time in doing this.

Specifically, this manual contains the following items:

- Cluster workshop goal
- Workshop agenda

For each of the five workshop modules, you will find a section which includes:

- Learning Goals
- Intended Outcomes/Learning Objectives
- Outline
- Narrative Overview
- Resource Materials
- Bibliography
- Learning Log

It is important to point out that you do not have to read this manual as you would a novel. You can begin wherever you want, with any section. However, the content of the workshop has a logical flow and, consequently, so does the manual. We suggest that you read the table of contents and then skim through the pages to gain a perspective on what the workshop is about and how it was put together.

Of course, we expect that the other workshop participants and the Community Crime Prevention Services Project staff will serve as valuable resources to you during the lifetime of the workshop. This should be true with respect to the overall goal of the workshop — assisting you in identifying strategies to continue your crime prevention activities and in developing the ability to convey this new information back to your staff. The opportunity to learn from others in the workshop setting and the information contained in this manual should prove an effective combination in achieving both of these outcomes.

WORKSHOP GOAL

TO ASSIST PARTICIPANTS IN IDENTIFYING INITIAL STRATEGIES TO CONTINUE THEIR PROJECTS BEYOND LEAA/OCACP FUNDING

LEAA/OCACP GRANTEE PHASE-OUT CLUSTER WORKSHOP DESIGN

DAY I		DAY II		DAY III	
9:30 to 10:00	Registration Coffee/Pastries Informal Introductions	9:30 to 10:00	Coffee/Pastries	9:00 to 9:30	Coffee/Pastries
10:00 to 10:30	Opening of Workshops - Introduction of Participants - Overview of Learning Objectives - Review of Agenda	10:00 to 12:30	Preview-Review Networking and Coalition Building	9:30 to 12:30	Preparing to Impact Local Government Budgets
10:30 to 12:30	Volunteer and Community Involvement				
12:30 to 2:00	L U N C H	12:30 to 2:00	L U N C H	12:30 to 2:00	L U N C H
2:00 to 4:15	Volunteer and Community Involvement	2:00 to 4:15	Network and Coalition Building	2:00 to 3:00	Preparing to Impact Local Government Budgets
4:15 to 4:30	B R E A K	4:15 to 4:30	B R E A K	3:00 to 3:15	B R E A K
4:30 to 6:00	Volunteer and Community Involvement	4:30 to 5:30	Network and Coalition Building	3:15 to 4:45	The LEAA Grant Close-Out Process
		7:30 to 9:30	Developing Strategies for Continuing your Crime Prevention Activities * Optional	4:45 to 5:00	Workshop Evaluation and Closure

MODULE I

VOLUNTEER AND

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

MODULE I

Learning Goals:

During the conduct of this session the facilitator intends to:

- Enhance participants' awareness of the potential for community involvement in the continuation of crime prevention activities.
- Increase participants' awareness of how to generate and utilize volunteer interest and capability within their communities.

Intended Outcomes/Learning Objectives:

By the completion of this session, participants should be able to:

- Identify areas of programmatic responsibility where volunteer involvement is necessary.
- Identify strategies for volunteer recruitment relevant to their respective communities.
- Determine training needs of volunteers and begin the design of a relevant volunteer training program.

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

MODULE OUTLINE

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Concept of Program Institutionalization

B. Developing the Capacity Within the Community to Continue Crime Prevention Activities

C. Extension of the Focus on Community Organizing

D. The Classic Volunteer Program as Compared to a Community Involvement Program.

II. DEFINING THE NATURE OF THE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

A. Designing Volunteer Roles

B. Roles Related to Goals and Objectives of the Crime Prevention Program

C. Assessing Current Volunteer Roles

D. Designing Other Volunteer Roles

III. RECRUITMENT OF VOLUNTEERS

A. Finding the People Needed

B. Motivating these People to Become Involved

C. Gathering Information About the Community

D. Potential Sources of Volunteers

E. Techniques for Recruiting

F. Motivation

IV. CAPACITY BUILDING

A. Transference of Skills, Information, Resources Necessary to Continue the Program

B. Developing Volunteer Leadership

C. Orientation

D. Training

V. SUMMARY

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT
NARRATIVE OVERVIEW

This session is an exploration of the concept of program institutionalization through the extensive involvement of community volunteers in the conduct of program activities. The emphasis is on the development of the capacity of the community to continue crime prevention activities.

A distinction is made between the classic volunteer program, in which paid staff retain primary programmatic responsibility, and a genuine community involvement program, in which community volunteers assume major responsibility for the program.

In the interest of time, this session will focus attention on only three aspects of developing a volunteer/community involvement program. These include: defining the nature of the community involvement, recruitment of volunteers and capacity building. It should be pointed out that developing such a program requires careful attention to many other aspects of working with community volunteers, and that these are covered in the resource materials accompanying this workshop.

Defining the nature of the community involvement refers to the development of volunteer roles which are meaningful and which reflect the goals and objectives of the crime prevention program. A point of emphasis is on the attempt to provide enough structure to assure that critical activities are carried out, yet remain flexible enough to effectively integrate the interests and skills of volunteers.

Recruitment of volunteers can only be done after it is clear who is needed for the program and what they are to do. Recruitment refers to locating the people that are needed and motivating those people to become involved in the program. The design of a recruitment strategy demands attention to several steps:

- Assessing the community
- Identifying potential sources of volunteers
- Selecting techniques for recruiting
- Building incentives into the program and conveying them to potential volunteers

Capacity Building refers to the transfer of skills, information and resources necessary to carry out crime prevention activities from paid staff to community volunteers. To be successful in the attempts to institutionalize the program, there must be a development of volunteer leadership, to ensure that volunteers are capable of planning and directing activities as well as carrying them out. Capacity building also refers to the techniques of orientation and training, as mechanisms to ensure that volunteers will be prepared and will develop the skills necessary to carry out program activities. As a program moves towards institutionalization through the use of community volunteers, paid staff should begin to see themselves more as trainers and supervisors and less as "doers".

This session is built on the assumption that organizations are committed to the concept of community involvement and that staff of those organizations largely have faith in the ability of community members to play a responsible role in programs that meet their needs. Therefore, the content of the session is designed to reinforce this trust in the community and to allow participants to explore ways of increasing the community's capability.

E X E R C I S E S

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Current Mechanisms for Volunteer Involvement

Exercise 1

- Group members should list the roles currently available to volunteers in their programs.
- List the program activities associated with each role.
- Identify the program goal to which the activity relates.
- Identify what has been demanded from staff for the implementation of this role.

TIME: 30 minutes

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Recruitment Strategies

Exercise II

- Generate a list of recruitment strategies that have proven successful.
- Identify three factors that often inhibit community involvement. (Three factors for the entire group).
- For each inhibiting factor, brainstorm a list of techniques which may help combat it.

TIME: 40 minutes

VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Planning A Training Program

Exercise III

This exercise is designed to give you a chance to practice some of the steps in planning a training program. Specifically you will be asked to:

Assess training needs.
Write a learning goal.
Write two learning objectives.

For purposes of the exercise I will ask you to think of a training program with the following PURPOSE STATEMENT. The PURPOSE of the training program is to enable volunteers to organize block clubs within their neighborhoods.

Please complete the following steps:

- Identify the volunteer role for which the training program will be designed.
- Identify and list the skills needed to carry out this role. Do the same for information that is needed.
- Reviewing the two lists above, mark those items which volunteers must bring into the program. The items that are not marked are those for which training will be necessary.
- From the list of training needs, select one or two items of high priority and develop:

  A. Learning goal (1)*
  B. Learning objectives (2)*

TIME: 1 hour

An example of these steps completed for a different type of training program is attached for your information.

*Definitions:

A learning goal is a general statement of what is to take place during the training.

A learning objective is a specific, measurable statement of what participants should be able to do as a result of training.

PLANNING A TRAINING PROGRAM

EXAMPLE

GOAL of the training program: To enable volunteers to develop and implement a public relations campaign for the crime prevention project.

ROLE of the volunteer: Public relations manager.

NEEDED TO CARRY OUT THE ROLE	
Information	Skills
Program activities and results	Writing skills, public speaking ability
Program impact on the community	Ability to schedule appointments
Names and contact people for local newspapers, radio and TV stations	Ability to work with others
The importance of public relations	Ability to respond to requests for information quickly and accurately.

Learning Goal: To increase participants understanding of ways to convey program information non-verbally.

Learning Objectives: By the completion of the training program, participants should be able to:

- Write an acceptable public service announcement for local radio stations
- Develop an outline for information to be included in a program brochure

RESOURCE MATERIALS

DEVELOPING AND

SUSTAINING VOLUNTEER

AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Developed by:

Bonnie Wood
CENTER FOR COMMUNITY CHANGE
COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION
SERVICES PROJECT

INTRODUCTION

This manual is intended to provide a framework for the planning and implementation of a volunteer component to a community-based organization, given that there is the involvement of paid staff in that organization. It does not address the issue of community control of the organization (Board of Directors), but does address issues of involving citizens in the overall scope of work of the organization.

The information presented here is not intended to be exhaustive. Instead, it should be used to stimulate discussion of some of the critical issues involved in volunteer management and as a tool to organize your thoughts as you move toward increasing citizen involvement in your activities.

Contents

Planning

Before an organization can effectively recruit and use community volunteers, it is helpful to take the time to fully plan the volunteer/community involvement program.

The success of recruitment efforts and the ability to keep the community involved in important activities largely depends on how clearly the need for volunteers is conveyed, and how well organized the mechanisms for volunteer management are.

Issues that are important to address in planning for the program would include the following:

The level of Commitment in the Organization to Community Involvement.

- Can community volunteers contribute meaningfully to the organization's purpose and goals? Can they offer an aspect to the organization that paid staff cannot?
- Is it realistic to think of community volunteers assuming primary responsibility for important organizational activites? Why or why not?
- Is the organization committed to providing a needed service to the community or to enabling the community to identify and address its own needs? Is there a commitment to both of these intentions? How does the involvement of community members fit into this perspective?
- Is there a desire to involve community members in organizational activities because funds for staff are limited and additional person-power is necessary?
- If sufficient funds existed, would there be an attempt to involve the community in the conduct of organizational activities?

The Involvement of Organizational Staff with Volunteers.

- Will staff retain responsibility for most program activities and use volunteers to assist them?
- Will staff transfer program responsibilities to volunteers and see themselves as trainers or supervisors?
- How will work done by volunteers be integrated into the overall workplans for the organization? Will one person be given the responsibility for developing program workplans and to reflect volunteer involvement?

- Is the selection and placement of volunteers as important as the selection and assignment of paid staff? Why or why not?
- Will staff within the organization expect a certain level of performance from volunteers? Why or why not?

Obviously, these are not easy questions to address and individuals within your organization may answer them differently.

However, it is important to recognize that the answers to these questions will determine the overall design and the implementation of the volunteer/community involvement program. An organization's philosophy toward community involvement will determine the roles and responsibilities given to volunteers, will determine the emphasis to be placed on volunteer training, and will dictate the relationships of paid staff to volunteers.

A suggestion would be to involve organizational personnel in a thorough discussion of the questions above, before a volunteer/community involvement program is started or expanded. Encourage staff and board members to examine their thoughts and perceptions of volunteers and to examine the role of community volunteers in the efforts to institutionalize program activities.

Even though there may be differences among individuals, the discussion should produce some agreement on the direction to take in designing the program.

It is also important to repeat these discussions periodically. People sometimes change their attitudes as a result of experience and you may find that individuals develop different perceptions of volunteers as a result of interacting with them. By often assessing the perceptions you can continually improve your volunteer/community involvement program.

The Final Question

Proceeding on the assumption that your organization has made a decision that volunteer/community involvement is desirable and that you have begun to address the question of how important such involvement will be in carrying out the activities of the organization, there is one more critical question to be confronted before the program can get off the ground.

Who Will be Responsible for the Management of Volunteers?

- How much time will be necessary for the recruitment, screening, coordinating, supervision, training and evaluation of volunteers?

- Will these responsibilities be spread out among several staff members?

- Will one person maintain all of the responsibility? Will that person be able to use other staff members as resources? Will that person have programmatic duties beyond the management of the volunteer program?

This manual takes the perspective that volunteers are essential to the purpose of an organization, that the organization will consist of paid and non-paid personnel and both are important in meeting the goals of the organization. Further, it is assumed that organizations interested in institutionalizing program activities are transferring meaningful responsibilities from paid staff to community residents. If this is a valid perspective, then, the development of mechanisms for managing volunteer resources is as important as that for managing paid-staff resources.

In short, personnel management in an organization will necessarily refer to volunteers as well as paid staff. While it is desirable to create a high level of autonomy among volunteers, so that program activities may be carried out with minimal staff involvement, it is also necessary to coordinate these activities.

The necessity for assigning responsibility for the management of the volunteer program may become more apparent if we look at the five functions of a manager:

- <u>Planning</u> is determining what has to be done.

- <u>Organizing</u> is determining how the job will be done.

- <u>Staffing</u> is determining who is going to do the job.

- <u>Directing</u> is enabling people to accomplish the tasks assigned to them.

- <u>Controlling</u> is the process of evaluation which is essential if the manager is to determine whether goals and objectives are being met.

Each of these functions are relevant and necessary if a volunteer/community involvement program is going to serve the community successfully. Needless to say, the allocation of organizational time to the effective management of this program would be a critical factor in ensuring its success.

<u>Designing Volunteer Roles</u>

Effective recruitment of volunteers, and, ultimately, the success of those volunteers in meeting goals and objectives will depend upon the careful design of <u>what</u> the volunteer will be doing.

If the purpose of developing a volunteer/community involvement program is to ensure the continuation of activities initially performed by paid staff, then it is critical that determination of what needs to be done be given a high priority.

The key to a successful volunteer program is to assign meaningful work to volunteers so that they, in turn may see how their efforts contribute to the accomplishment of overall program results. As a manager you must be clear about what activities need to be carried out and you must be able to use available resources to maximum benefit.

The challenge of designing volunteer roles is to remain flexible enough to accomodate varied interests and skills, to allow for varying schedules and time commitments and to provide enough structure to ensure that critical activities are being conducted.

Many volunteer programs fail to use volunteers effectively because they allow volunteers to design their own roles, to determine when they will be available and how much time they will commit. This often produces gaps in the program or duplication of effort by several people.

In contrast, other programs fail because roles are defined so rigidly that volunteers with unique interests or skills are overlooked or given roles they are ill suited for.

The ideal is to find the balance between these two extremes. This demands making initial decisions about roles that must be filled and the qualifications and commitment necessary, but remaining open to the <u>consideration</u> of other roles.

A worthwhile approach to this aspect of planning your volunteer/community involvement program may be to establish a set of key volunteer roles which contribute directly to program goals and objectives. Identify the necessary activities (responsibilities) associated with each of these roles, and make a determination of what is necessary to effectively implement that role (what information or skill must the volunteer possess, how much time they should be prepared to contribute). Then, use this information to recruit a core set of volunteers, and to select those that most appropriately fit the role.

This set of volunteers then becomes a resource to you in reassessing the roles and responsibilities. They can offer input into the design of additional roles for volunteers.

In appendix 1, you will find a suggested process for designing volunteer roles. This involves two steps: assessing current volunteer roles and assessing the potential for expanded roles for volunteers.

As you gain more experience with volunteers and as you gather information from those initially coming into the program, you will begin to see where greater flexibility or greater structure is needed. You will become more adept at breaking the work to be done into discrete units which can be assigned to individuals and you will find it easier to define the qualifications that are necessary.

As this happens, you may want to formally define job descriptions for volunteers. These will assist you in managing the work to be done and in spelling out your expectations to volunteers. Job descriptions should only be viewed as tools to assist you and should be reviewed and rewritten periodically as needed. Appendices 2 and 3 are examples of formats for volunteer job descriptions.

Recruitment

Strategies for recruiting volunteers will be determined by the nature of the activities to be conducted.

The necessity of defining volunteer roles and qualifications before recruiting any volunteers is to guide you in obtaining maximum benefit from your recruitment efforts.

For example, if you know that you can only use volunteers to answer phones or handle correspondence, it would be a waste of your time to design a recruitment strategy that may yield a number of professional people who would be dissatisfied with a role involving so little responsibility.

The relationship between defining volunteer involvement and recruiting volunteers is emphasized by a description of two basic methods of recruitment:

Focused Recruitment

Focused or goal-oriented recruitment refers to contacting particular individuals or groups about specific jobs. After identifying work that needs to be done; and, identifying the personal qualities and/or skills needed to accomplish these tasks; look for people who have the necessary skills and talents.

Generalized Recruitment

Generalized or shotgun recruitment refers to general appeals for volunteers aimed at broad public audiences. Such efforts typically utilize the mass media and rely on public relations techniques. A generalized recruitment presentation might emphasize:

- Contributions volunteers can make through working with your program
- The range of available volunteer opportunities
- Incentives and resources available to participating volunteers

Since generalized recruitment is not based upon recruiting people with specific qualifications to fill specific jobs, it does not serve as an effective screening device. Rather, it is through the general entrance interviews that you learn of the specific skills potential volunteers have and that they learn of the specific jobs available.

Generalized recruitment increases the burden of other personnel management activities and, thus, is not a desirable approach unless you need large numbers of volunteers and/or have a wide range of volunteer job opportunities. Recruiting volunteers and then finding things for them to do based upon their skills is a case of being managed by resources rather than managing resources. Generalized recruitment can place you in the position of having to turn down or reject large numbers of volunteer applicants.

Other points that may be helpful in designing a recruitment strategy would include:

- Encourage prospective volunteers to discuss their needs, interests, and expectations. Give them time to think over if, how, and when they might best serve.
- Do not over-recruit. Having long waiting lists or turning down prospective volunteers you have recruited is bad public relations.
- Show enthusiasm about the project and the role prospective volunteers can play.
- Recruit within one month of the time you are ready to put someone to work. If there is a longer lag, they are likely to feel they weren't really needed and to lose interest and enthusiasm.
- Develop a systematic plan of rewarding participants and communicate to prospective volunteers how they can benefit from their involvement in the project.
- If possible, indicate your willingness to reimburse volunteers for out-of-pocket expenses like parking fees, postage, and perhaps baby-sitting costs. If such reimbursements are not possible, indicate that mileage, parking fees, and some other expenses are tax deductible.

The most important point to remember is that this is not your program. Volunteers are not being asked to contribute their time and energy to assist you but to improve the community.

After thinking about recruitment in general terms, and thinking about the needs of the program, it is time to design a recruitment strategy. Elements of this design will include:

- Collecting information on volunteerism in your community
- Identifying potential sources of volunteers
- Selecting appropriate recruitment techniques
- Building incentives (rewards) for volunteers into the program and conveying this information.

Developing A Community Volunteerism Profile

The most important step in designing an effective recuitment strategy is to gain as much information as possible about your community.

The answers to the following questions should guide you in making decisions about where to go in the community for volunteers and in selecting techniques for encouraging participation.

1. Is there a history of volunteerism?
2. Are there sources of volunteers which have been historically overutilized?
3. Are there potential sources of volunteers that other organizations have overlooked?
4. Is there intense competition for volunteers?
5. Where are you most likely to find individuals with the skills necessary?
6. What segments of the community have more time with which to volunteer?
7. What do people in the community do with their free time? What benefits do they derive from this? Can this be associated with benefits that could be derived from involvement in the program?
8. What other programs in the community have successfully used volunteers? What can you learn from them to enhance your efforts?
9. What programs have failed in attempting to use volunteers? Why? Can you gain insight into what to avoid in your own efforts?
10. What do people in the community define as significant problems or needs? Does your program adequately reflect these?

Potential sources of volunteers:

Organized groups:

- Civic associations, tenants groups, neighborhood associations
- Religious groups and their affiliates. Church leaders are often excellent sources of information and entry to memberships
- Community service organizations
- Business and professional associations
- Corporations and businesses
- Colleges, universities
- High schools - classes and clubs
- Adult education classes
- Associations of retired persons
- Other agencies
- Voluntary Action Center or Volunteer Bureau

The local Chamber of Commerce usually maintains directories of organizations for various communities.

The most overlooked source of volunteers are those individuals that are not affiliated with some organization. These may include:

- Individuals new to the community
- Individuals that don't work or work part-time
- Handicapped people
- Ex-offenders

Techniques for recruiting:

Recruitment should be an on-going activity and should be linked to any public relations activities.

- Speaking engagements -

  Contact leaders of community groups and invite yourself to a regular meeting.

- Newspapers -

  Feature and news stories, ads, volunteer opportunity column, volunteer recognition, article, pictures. Don't forget small newspapers or local newsletters.

- Radio and TV -

  Public service spots, interviews or talk shows, news stories

- Posters, billboards, bumper stickers
- Brochures, newsletters
- Displays at community fairs, shopping centers, business or company lobbies.
- Community bulletin boards at laundromats, grocery stores, community and youth centers, employment offices.
- Personalized appeals - letters or phone calls.

The most effective technique for recruitment is WORD OF MOUTH.

Current volunteers should be encouraged to participate in the recruitment effort as much as possible.

They usually make the most effective spokespeople for the program.

Volunteers will talk to their friends about their experiences. A meaningful role for a volunteer, with clearly identifiable benefits is the single most effective technique for developing community involvement.

A word about recruitment approach:

Remember that people will volunteer for a recruiter as much as for a program.

In all recruitment efforts the recruiter must show enthusiasm. Commitment to and excitment about the program must be apparent. Benefits of the total program should be emphasized.

Design your appeal to the audience you are addressing. People will be interested in different things.

Motivation:

Why do people volunteer?

- Desire to help others
- Desire for recognition or status
- To feel needed, useful
- To gain new knowledge, develop new skills
- To explore career possibilities
- Desire to utilize special skills and knowledge
- Need to be part of activities that have neighborhood importance
- To gain visibility and skills that will help advancement in employment
- Belief in the program and its mission
- Desire to help create social change
- To meet new people, make new friends
- To reduce boredom or loneliness

Encourage potential volunteers to discuss their needs and motivation and be clear about the likely benefits they can expect.

It is not enough any more to say, "Here's your chance to become involved in something worthwhile." Your program must provide concrete incentives for people to become involved.

These may include:

- Academic credit
- Tax benefits (volunteer expenses are deductible)
- Work credit (the federal Civil Service Commission and many states credit volunteer experience on job applications)
- Enabling funds (babysitting fees, gas allowances, meal allowances)

- Work references
- Training, education
- Formal recognition
- Being able to see a change in the community - be sure to stress the program track record

A final word about recruitment.

Recruitment of volunteers will necessarily be an on-going activity. The average length of commitment from a volunteer is about eight months, and in many communities this will be shorter. Don't expend energy being frustrated by this. Accept high turnover as a given and plan for it.

Screening and Selection

The type and intensity of screening of volunteers demands critical attention in designing a program that will legitimately serve the community. The mechanism for screening and selecting volunteers will be determined by the volunteer roles to be filled and the qualifications needed to handle the attendant responsibilities.

In some instances, the necessity for screening will be minimal. As we discussed in the section on designing volunteer roles, a prospective volunteer may not be suited to perform certain functions, but will likely have something to contribute and can be useful in some manner. If a person who wants to be a part of the program doesn't fit any of your job descriptions, consider developing a job to fit the person. Such flexibility is particularly desirable in the case of persons possessing unique qualifications or coming from one of the nontraditional sources of volunteers (e.g., poor, ex-offenders, etc.). Often, all that will be necessary to effectively utilize the special expertise of such persons is to break out and regroup some of the tasks included in a volunteer role or to establish a special advisory role.

Extensive screening is also inappropriate when attempting to secure the services of persons with particular skills to perform specialized tasks. In such cases, the selective recruitment effort might better be described as a 'talent search', and the personal interview may be characterized more appropriately as a personal plea for help.

Yet screening is an important function, particularly where a great deal of responsbility is a part of an identified role. Rather than resenting it, many prospective volunteers react favorably to intensive screening. Careful and rigorous screening indicates that the work is considered important and that attempts are being made to avoid placing volunteers in inappropriate positions. Thus, for many new volunteers, screening can reduce the anxiety and fear of being assigned to threatening jobs.

In most instances, screening will mean gathering enough information about the potential volunteer so that you can make a deliberate decision about where that person can be used most effectively. You do not serve the program or the volunteer by placing that person in a role just because it is open and the person is available. Unless there is some attempt to match the person's interests and skills to work within the program, there is the risk that the role will not be carried out effectively, and that the volunteer will become frustrated or disinterested and drop out of the program.

Keep in mind that individuals want different things from the volunteer experience, as well as having different things to offer. There will be some volunteers who will want a role with minimal responsibilities and others who want and are qualified to be involved in roles with a great deal of decision-making responsibility. Therefore, you should be

attempting to "match" not only people's skill areas with the work that needs to be done, but attempting to match people's needs with the rewards of the program. It is important to remember that an initial assignment to a volunteer need not be the only role that volunteer can assume while in the program. You may find that after several weeks the assignment should be reevaluated and the volunteer given increased responsibilities. Screening is only a mechanism to help you to select the most appropriate volunteers for your program. A system which provides for the growth and development of these volunteers can and should be built into the program.

Since focused recruitment is the technique of going after only those people who possess information and skills necessary to carry out certain roles, when this technique is practiced minimal screening is necessary.

Another important screening technique is the personal interview. The purpose of the interview is for you to become familiar with the person and for him/her to become familiar with the program. Remember to design your interview to collect all of the information that you need and to give the person ample opportunity to ask questions. Don't hesitate to check the compatibility of the person's ideas with the philosophy and intent of the program — this can have as much of an impact on how well the person will support the program as the skills he/she possesses.

Also don't be afraid to ask someone else to participate in the interview or to talk to the person afterward. It is helpful to get others' perceptions of how to best use the person.

A sample interview format and some tips for interviewing appear in the appendices 4 and 5.

Before leaving the topic of screening, it is important to note that the screening process often does not end with the interview and the acceptance of the volunteer into the program. The orientation and training of the volunteer also provides an opportunity to get to know that person better and to make final decisions about placement.

In addition, volunteer self-screening is important and should be encouraged.

Self-screening implies that prospective volunteers are given adequate information about the jobs available and their requisite skills and commitments. Such information should be provided during recruitment, interviewing, and orientation training; each of these stages provides the opportunity for "honorable exits" by prospective volunteers.

Orientation and Training

One of the most critical tasks confronting you in your attempts to institutionalize your program is to transfer the skills, information and resources currently held by paid staff to the community residents that have chosen to become involved in the continuation of program activities.

Your goal is to enable these community volunteers to successfully carry out the activities and tasks, with minimal support from paid staff.

The distinction between a classical volunteer program in which community volunteers enhance the work of paid staff, and genuine efforts at institutionalization in which community residents will be assuming primary programmatic responsibility is a critical point in the design of orientation and training. To be successful, true capacity building means more than the development of skills; the opportunity to develop autonomy is also a critical aspect.

Orientation usually is the first step in familiarizing the volunteer with the program and with the organization. It encompasses the recruitment approach, the initial interview and, perhaps, a short meeting after a volunteer has been accepted into the program.

In designing the orientation, be sure to ask yourself:

- What does the volunteer know already?
- What does the volunteer need to know?

Both of these questions are important and often ignored. Volunteers often have some information about the program or the organization or the concept of volunteerism and the information needs to be checked for accuracy. Also, giving the person the chance to tell you what he/she knows will make the orientation more meaningful, participatory and remove you from the role of the teacher. This is an especially useful technique when orientation takes place in a meeting of several volunteers.

In designing orientation, ask yourself what the volunteers need to know to effectively begin carrying out their roles. This will of course include the expectations that you have of how they will conduct their work, how their work will be scheduled and coordinated, and what expectations they should have of you.

But orientation should also include information on:

- The program and the organization
- The criminal justice system

- Crime in the community
- Nature of crime prevention
- The impact of your program

Orientation is a critical step in the effective integration of a volunteer. However, it is important to remember that people may be easily overwhelmed by too much information too soon. The best approach is to set priorities as to what information is most critical to have right away, and then continue to give information to the volunteers as they begin to work.

It also helps to vary the technique used to orient new volunteers. Include written documents, verbal explanations from you and other staff and the opportunity to learn from others, especially experienced volunteers.

Training is the activity that goes beyond preparing a volunteer to assume a role in the program. It is intended to develop the capability of that individual to successfully carry out the role.

The most important step in designing effective training is to be realistic. Taking a critical look at the resources you have available (staff, administrative time, money for materials, space, volunteer time) and determining how much you can accomplish in the development of volunteers' information and skills is perhaps the most difficult task to accomplish.

However, being realistic about your training capability will be important in determining what volunteers you will look for and accept into the program. If you need volunteers to plan activities for the upcoming year, and determine that you do not have the time to teach those volunteers how to plan effectively, then you know that you need to recruit and select volunteers who already have some knowledge of planning.

It should be apparent that the training component of your program will be affected by the design of the entire program. True capacity building cannot take place if staff see themselves as the experts and volunteer roles are designed with little autonomy and responsibility. Further, the success of training will be affected by how willing staff is to share the knowledge and the skills they have.

Of course, some activities, because of legal or ethical considerations, or because of the amount of time they require, cannot be assigned to volunteers, and should remain the responsibility of paid staff.

However, the training component represents the extent of the organization's commitment to capacity building and genuine community involvement.

Providing Incentives and Support

It is obvious that people volunteer their time and energy for reasons other than monetary reward. As we discussed recruitment, we listed many of the reasons often cited (page 11).

Understanding the motivations of volunteers is important in designing recruitment strategies and in placing volunteers in appropriate roles, but it is even more important as you look for ways to keep volunteers involved in the program. Even though the typical volunteer will make a commitment of only a few months, it is not unusual for programs to experience turnover every few weeks. This is usually because little attention is paid to ensuring job satisfaction for the volunteer once she/he has made a commitment.

Turnover is a reflection of how well you understand the motivation/needs of the volunteers and the extent to which you can meet them.

To provide job satisfaction you should first determine what benefits each volunteer seeks from his/her involvement with the program. This is, in part, the purpose of interviewing prospective volunteers before assigning them particular roles and responsibilities. Don't mislead prospective volunteers by promising more rewards than they are likely to find in their assigned work. Such discrepancies are a major cause of job dissatisfaction, low productivity, and decisions to withdraw from voluntary involvements. Variables related to job satisfaction are the work itself and the opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and growth.

If the motivation for using community volunteers is truly to increase the capability of the community to meet its own needs, then recognition of these volunteers is a day-to-day practice. This motivation inspires careful recruitment, purposeful orientation and training and well-conceived, meaningful assignments.

The volunteer will know from the work he/she is given, the way it is presented and from the interactions with others in the program whether the work is useful or not and therefore whether he/she is valued.

Some typical techniques for providing support and recognition to volunteers include:

- Provide feedback to the volunteers on their performance and how it is contributing to the impact of the program.
- Provide the opportunity for volunteers to comment on the program, offer criticism, suggestions, recommendations.

- Respect them, make reasonable demands, voice expectations.
- Let them know that they are important, valuable and trusted.
- Involve the volunteers in decisions affecting the program and their roles within the program.
- Keep them informed of developments as they occur.
- Publicly thank every person who makes a contribution to the project.
- Present certificates of appreciation and achievement at meetings. Consider humorous awards, also.
- Share the limelight at every possible opportunity.
- Send thank-you letters and make thank-you calls to volunteers who complete a job or do something spectacular. Send carbon copies to employers, teachers, parents.
- List volunteers in news releases so that their names will appear in local newspapers.
- Make new volunteers feel welcome by including them in social get-togethers.
- Have teas, lunches, dinners, etc., in honor of volunteers.
- Look for some degree of success even in big failures, and point these out.
- Write letters of reference or commendation that can be used when volunteers are applying for paid employment, entrance into educational programs, or other voluntary opportunities.
- Send greeting cards on birthdays and other special occasions.
- Involve prominent community leaders in recognition programs.
- Provide the opportunity for continuing education and enhancement of skills.
- Provide opportunities for advancement and changes in responsibilities or duties.
- Don't ask for more than the volunteer can or has agreed to give.

The techniques you choose will be based on the individuals who volunteer. What will mean a great deal to one may be interpreted as belittling by another.

On occasion, it may seem that the time and effort required to recognize and motivate volunteers could be better spent in "production activities", and that volunteers should derive sufficient reward just from doing worthwhile work. This is not the case, especially not in the beginning. Increased personal satisfaction leads to increased productivity, and increased productivity leads to even greater personal satisfaction.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Work performed by community volunteers is as important as work performed by paid staff and therefore should contribute to the accomplishment of given goals and objectives. A program evaluation which did not include volunteer efforts as part of program activities would be incomplete.

However, the purpose of this section is not to address program evaluation. It is assumed that an organization is interested in determining the impact of its efforts on a given community problem and will develop techniques to do this.

At this point, the emphasis is on the volunteer/community involvement program specifically. Documentation of work performed by volunteers is often required by funding sources, is useful in public relations campaigns, is helpful in the recruitment of other volunteers and is often requested by volunteers themselves. Further, there should be an on-going attempt to improve the volunteer program and to assess whether or not it is actually bringing about institutionalization of the program.

Record-keeping

The person that is responsible for the coordination of volunteer work should also design a mechanism to document the work performed.

At a minimum, there should be a recording of the number of hours contributed by each volunteer, and how that time was spent. In this way, there is an accounting of individual contributions, which can be used in providing feedback to that individual, and which should be given to the volunteer periodically, or at the end of their service for their own records. Often volunteers will ask for recommendations to be sent to employers or teachers and these can be more effective if the specifics of the volunteer service can be noted.

Keeping records of individual contributions is also important for the overall accounting of volunteer involvement. These records are necessary to document how much work is being performed by the community and the nature of that work and will help pinpoint gaps in volunteer service.

All of this information is critical when relating to other organizations and the general public. Statements can be made as to the extent of community involvement in programs and these statements can be supported.

Appendix 6 is an example of a volunteer data sheet which can be adapted to obtain the necessary statistics on volunteer activity.

Evaluation

Beyond gathering statistics to document community involvement, there should be an attempt to gather data to assist in the design of that program.

The most critical element in evaluating the community involvement program is to obtain regular feedback from the volunteers. Ask them about the strengths and weaknesses of the program. Ask them if roles are adequately defined, if the level of responsibility is manageable and realistic, if orientation and training adequately enable them to do the job. Ask for suggestions and recommendations. Ask for feedback individually and in group settings.

Keep in mind that people are often hesitant to give feedback while they are involved in the program. Therefore it is critical to arrange an interview (person-to-person or by phone) as a volunteer is leaving the program. Keep the interview open-ended or develop a set of questions, but be sure to get specific information about many aspects of the program.

Others who interact with the community volunteers are another excellent source for data on the program. If volunteers are required to work with staff members of another organization, contact those staff members and ask their perception of how well informed/trained those volunteers are. Again, ask for suggestions and recommendations.

A second aspect of evaluation of the volunteer program is to take a critical look at whether or not program institutionalization is taking place. Are community members developing the capacity to carry out program activities autonomously? Are there mechanisms being developed that ensure the continuation of program activities despite turnover of individual volunteers? Is there an emerging volunteer leadership? Is there a system of shared leadership or a mechanism for transferring leadership? Does the community believe that the program is <u>theirs</u>?

These questions are difficult to answer and there will be little quantitative data to draw upon. The observations and perceptions of others will prove all important and it is critical to maintain clear and open communication with people involved in the program and those affected by it.

The management of volunteers and the documentation of their efforts is <u>not</u> effective if the original goals for encouraging their involvement are not met. Do not be satisfied only with a program in which work is well organized and everyone is busy. This is only worth the effort if the community is experiencing a benefit.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

Designing Volunteer Roles

The process of designing volunteer roles can be divided into two major tasks. The first is to make an assessment of the volunteer roles that currently exist within your program. The second is to identify program activities which currently are only performed by paid staff and assess the potential for volunteers to assume responsibility for these activities.

It is important to remember that the intent of the volunteer/community involvement program is to create meaningful ways for community members to carry out crime prevention activities with little or no staff intervention.

I. Assessing current volunteer roles.

- List all program roles that are currently available to community volunteers.
- List the activities associated with each role.
- Identify the program goal which each activity is related to.
- Identify the type and extent of the staff support that is necessary for the volunteer to carry out the activity.

Obtaining input from others (volunteers, staff), consider the following questions.

1. Are there roles which you have difficulty finding volunteers for, or that volunteers quickly become dissatisfied with?

   a. What do you think is the problem with the role? Is there a lack of clarity in what is expected of the person assuming the role? Is there no clear association between the activities and a goal (intended outcome) of the program? Are the activities perceived to be busy work, for which there is little perceived reward? Is the role so large that a person assuming it is overwhelmed and doesn't experience any success?

   b. How can the role be redefined to correct the problem?

2. Are there roles that can be carried out with no staff intervention beyond orientation, training and record-keeping?

   a. What are the characteristics of these roles that makes this possible?

3. Is there a particular role which demands a great deal of staff time and support?

   a. Is this actually the role of staff assistant rather than one that contributes directly to goal accomplishment?

   b. Is the drain on staff time the result of inadequate initial training of the volunteers assuming this role?

   c. Would less constant staff support be necessary if the volunteers were given greater decision-making authority?

   d. Does the skill level of the volunteer affect the demand on staff? Perhaps some volunteers are ill-suited for this role.

   e. How can the role be restructured to allow for more autonomy?

II. Assessing potential volunteer roles.

- Identify program activities in which no volunteers are currently involved.
- Identify any activities which absolutely cannot be performed by volunteers because of legal or ethical considerations.
- For each activity not identified in step two, identify the information and skills that a volunteer must have to successfully carry it out.
- Identify the information and skills needed which can be obtained by a volunteer after entering the program (through orientation and training).
- Identify any specialized skills or information that a volunteer must bring into the program to successfully undertake the activity.

By completing each of these steps, you may find that there are additional roles that can be fulfilled by volunteers. Additionally, you have developed the information that you need to design an effective recruitment campaign to obtain volunteers suitable for these roles and you have gathered base-line information necessary to develop an effective orientation and training program.

Some additional points to consider would include:

- Be realistic about the resources and abilities available to conduct volunteer training. It is better to spend the energy to recruit someone with specialized knowledge and skills than to inadequately prepare someone to perform work.

- Solicit input from staff that have been performing the activities, their perceptions and insights into what is needed will be invaluable.
- Keep in mind that volunteers may not be able to perform the activities to the same degree that staff has. Performance expectations may have to be lowered to reflect the limitations of their time commitments and schedules.
- Think of concrete activities rather than roles at this point. Staff have been assuming roles with a given set of activities assigned. These activities will often need to be regrouped to form roles that are better suited to individuals having less time and (possibly) professional skills to contribute.
- Look for activities that can be shared by two or more volunteers, or which can be rotated among several volunteers.
- Look for ways to involve volunteers in minimizing the necessity for staff support. Pairing new volunteers with experienced ones gives increased responsibility to one (often desirable) and alleviates the need for substantial staff time in orientation and supervision.
- Be sure that each activity is clearly related to a program goal (even if several activities build upon each other, be sure the logic is clear and that there is some degree of success associated with each).

APPENDIX 2

VOLUNTEER'S JOB DESCRIPTION

TYPE OF WORK:

PURPOSE OF THE JOB/AND OBJECTIVE:

PLACE OF WORK:

ADDRESS:

AREA WITHIN BUILDING:

DUTIES AND/OR RESPONSIBILITIES:

DURATION OF JOB:
(Minimum)

HOURS NEEDED:

VOLUNTEER QUALIFICATIONS: (Education, Training, Experience, Age, Health, Talent, Dress, etc., - all when applicable)

ORIENTATION AND TRAINING REQUIRED:

RELATIONSHIP TO OTHERS:

AUTHORITY (or limits of authority):

OTHER:

APPENDIX 3

SAMPLE FORMAT - VOLUNTEER JOB DESCRIPTION

JOB TITLE:

ON-THE-JOB SUPERVISOR:

(Name or title of staff member responsible for assignment)

OBJECTIVE:

(Why is this job necessary? What do you hope to accomplish?)

RESPONSIBILITIES:

(What can the volunteer expect to do? List some specific tasks or areas of responsibility.)

QUALIFICATIONS:

(What kind of person do you need to fill the job? Are there specific skills, interests or educational requirements?)

TRAINING AND PREPARATION FOR JOB:

(What kinds of training can the volunteer expect?)

EVALUATION:

(Who is responsible, when is it done, does the volunteer have a chance to evaluate his/her experience and training?)

COMMITMENT:

(How much time will the job take, is it flexible, is it short term or on-going?)

Source: Basic Tools for Recruitment of Volunteers, Voluntary Action Center, Chicago, Illinois, October 1977.

APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW FORMAT

NAME: ______________________ Date: ____________

ADDRESS: ______________________ PHONE: ____________

OCCUPATION: ______________________ AGE: ____________

EMPLOYER: ______________________ BUS. PHONE: ____________

Related Training - Past Experience

____

____

Skills, Interest, Hobbies

____

____

Past or Present Volunteer Service

____

Present Health: Excellent Good Fair
Recent Illness? ____

Languages Spoken: ______________ Written: ____________

Car: Yes____ No____ Willing to Drive for this Program? ____________

Volunteer Work Desired

____

____

Volunteer Time Available Days____ Evenings____ Weekends____

Heard About the Program From: ______________________

Interviewer's Comments: ______________________

____

____

____
Interviewer's Signature

APPENDIX 5

TIPS FOR CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

1. Have a plan.
2. Have adequate job knowledge.
3. Decide what job requirements you can or cannot determine by the interview.
4. Have adequate background information about the applicant.
5. Schedule interviews so that you have enough time.
6. Insure that interviews are held in private.
7. Put the applicant at ease.
8. Listen attentively and show evidence of being interested.
9. Adjust the level of your language to the ability of the applicant.
10. Keep control of the interview.
11. Be aware of your own prejudices and try to avoid their influence on your judgment.
12. Do not show off what you know, but talk only enough to keep the interview on the right track.
13. Don't let the interview become mechanical and be on the alert for unexpected information.
14. Don't make too many notes during the interview.
15. Let the applicant talk.
16. Avoid leading questions.
17. Develop job oriented questions and use them informally.
18. Avoid trick questions.
19. Encourage questions about the work and working conditions.
20. Ask questions that require thoughtful answers.
21. Know when and how to close the interview.
22. Watch for additional clues or information after the close of the interview.
23. Record the facts during the interview and impressions and judgments immediately after the interview.
24. Provide for a second interview where necessary and practicable.

Appendix 6

VOLUNTEER DATA SHEET

Date Started ____________
Date Terminated ____________

NAME ____________ TELEPHONE ____________

ADDRESS ____________

RECRUITMENT SOURCE ____________

YEAR ____________

Month	No. of Hours	Job Performed	No. of Hours	Job Performed	Total Hours
January					
February					
March					
April					
May					
June					
July					
August					
September					
October					
November					
December					
					Year Total

Training: Subject	Source	Dates	Total Hours

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RESOURCE MATERIALS

TRAINING OF VOLUNTEERS*

Training begins with a prospective volunteer's first contact with the program and continues throughout his association with it. Training is inextricably tied to other personnel management processes. Recruitment begins the volunteer's orientation to the program, and a quality training program is a powerful recruiting lure, since most volunteers are motivated by the desire to learn and grow. A prospective volunteer's attendance and performance at orientation and pre-service training sessions are important parts of the screening process, while the placement interview, a screening tool, plays a major role in orienting the prospective volunteer to the program. On-going training serves as a major incentive for continued participation for many volunteers.

TRAINING GUIDES AND PRINCIPLES

Presented below are a number of factors to consider when planning and conducting training programs.

- Training should be on-going. While a major training event or program may be offered initially, training cannot be treated as if it were a one-shot affair. Volunteers will continue to learn throughout their participation, and if you want to promote positive learning and the continued development of competence, on-going training and follow-up opportunities must be planned.

- Training should be relevant. The training design should grow out of the overall program design and be directly coordinated with the needs of the volunteers and the needs and resources of your particular program.

- Training should be realistic. The training program should attempt to duplicate real-life situations the volunteer is likely to encounter on the job. Deemphasize the theoretical aspects by using real incidents, authentic situations, and actual conditions as training exercises or activities. On-site visits of similar and dissimilar operating programs can help during pre-service training.

- Volunteers should actively participate in planning, conducting, and evaluating training programs. Volunteers should be treated as active participants, not passive recipients. Who knows better than they what they do and do not understand, and what has meaning?

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*Source: Benjamin Broox McIntyre. Skills for Impact: Voluntary Action in Criminal Justice. pp 155-157. Reproduced with permission

- Training programs should be flexible. Different volunteers have different knowledge, skills, interests, and needs. The needs and priorities of the organization are also likely to change as you go along. Training must be flexible and responsive to changing and current conditions and individual circumstances.

- A training program outline is desirable but should not be considered sacrosanct once developed. Be willing to modify the training sequence to respond to the spontaneously expressed needs or interests of the participants and to changes in program circumstances. A desirable approach is to assess the expectations and needs of the trainees at the first session or two, and to design later sessions to respond to these.

- The training leaders should act as a group facilitator — a guide — not as a dictator with superior knowledge and authority. Mutual respect and a feeling of equality should be encouraged. The leader's personal opinions and preferences must be identified as such when presented to the group and not assigned superiority over those of group members.

- Training should promote the development of a group identity or a team spirit. The development of an esprit de corps among volunteers facilitates cooperative efforts and reciprocal support for individual participation. It also serves as a powerful incentive for continued participation. Team building is promoted by an environment that promotes friendliness, informality, and interaction, and discourages rigidity and ceremonial structure. The first meeting or so of a training group might be devoted to "ice-breakers" and activities that require involvement and exchange.

- The physical setting or location for training should be comfortable. Atmosphere is so important to some people that unless they feel comfortable with their surroundings, they block everything else out. Consider such factors as lighting, sound and noise, arrangement of furniture, temperature, availability of supplies, water, meals, and rest room facilities. The location should be easily accessible to a majority of the trainees. Such places as churches, schools, private homes, and community facilities might be used.

- Training sessions should not be overlong. Most people have limited concentration spans of one to one and one-half hours, and typically a number of shorter sessions is preferable to long ones. Provide break and rest periods with food and drink.

- The size of any one training group should typically not exceed twenty persons. Generally, a group of eight to fourteen persons is optimal for one leader. Too large a group discourages participation and the development of group identity; a very small group may intimidate members.

- The scheduling of training programs should take into consideration that volunteers are part-time and have a number of other important roles. The training objectives should be considered when determining whether training should be concentrated and intensive or segmented and spread out.

- Various types of materials (handouts, manuals, films, tapes, booklets, etc.) can enhance training. Training aids and materials should be obtained, reserved, and previewed, or developed well in advance of the target training session.

- Assistance in identifying training needs and developing training programs to meet them can usually be obtained from local professionals and nearby universities. You may be able to recruit volunteers to train other volunteers. Potential trainers and guest speakers at training programs include volunteer program coordinators from other programs and agencies, veteran or experienced volunteers, community professionals and resource people, college professors, local business trainers, and personnel specialists.

- When the project is institutionally or agency based, or when it includes salaried staff, it is desirable to invite salaried staff to attend training programs for volunteers. This helps promote a cohesive working relationship among all parties involved.

TRAINING AIDS

Generally, when we think of training or education, we think of the traditional format of the teacher lecturing to students. There are, however, many other ways to learn and, accordingly, many other ways to teach, such as:

- Role playing, where trainees spontaneously act out a situation relating to a probable work situation involving interpersonal relationships;

- Dramatization, where a carefully planned and rehearsed act is executed to illustrate specific points of a problem or situation;

- Round robin, where each trainee responds for a specified time to a topic or problem presented by the leader;

- Case study, where trainees analyze the important factors of an actual situation presented to them as a written case record;

- Demonstration, where trainees hear about a technique or piece of equipment and observe a demonstration of it;

- Observation, where trainees observe a technique or activity in its real world application, perhaps including on-site visits and tours;

- Simulation games, where trainees simulate or "duplicate" a real life situation and observe the consequences of their actions;

- Group problem solving

- Brainstorming

- Audio visual aids, where trainees view or listen to audio tapes, slide shows, films, television, video-tapes, records, charts, graphs, etc.;

- Panel discussions;

- Symposiums; and

- Lectures.

The range of teaching techniques is limited only by imagination and creativity. Each of the techniques listed above can be adapted to the special circumstances of a particular program.

Trainees should be included in decisions about which training aids to use. The best approach is to use a variety of techniques, since any one of the techniques can be overused. In selecting techniques, consider which can best help you to present your abstract, theoretical, or technical material in a practical, understandable manner.

TYPES OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

There are numerous types of training programs and numerous names for each of these types. Discussed below are orientation, pre-service training, in-service training, and continuing education.

Orientation

An orientation program is typically designed to provide information that all volunteers must have in order to participate in the program. Although different volunteers may perform very different tasks, there is some information pertinent to all of them.

Orientation, like any other training, will be determined by your specific program. In general terms, it might include:

— Philosophy, objectives, policies, and history of your program and/or organization;

— Definition of basic terms and jargon;

— Organizational structure, including boards, committees, and task forces;

— Connection and relationship with other agencies, groups, organizations, and agencies, particularly as related to your funding sources;

— Description of the overall criminal justice system and of how your program relates to it;

— Tour of relevant facilities — your own and other agencies;

— Reporting requirements and why they are important; and

— Future training to be provided.

Sometimes enthusiastic volunteers are the best persons to orient the next group of volunteers because they know both sides of the fence. Whoever is responsible for orientation must be sincerely interested and enthusiastic about volunteer services in addition to being knowledgeable about the program.

Volunteers Manuals. Packages of written materials are increasingly being developed and used as part of orientation programs. They can be used as an outline for the orientation program and also as a continuing reference for volunteers throughout their involvement. In addition to including some of the information already listed, the manual might include:

— Organizational chart of your program;

— Flow chart describing your action plan;

— List of board members;

— List of project leaders and contact persons;

— List of key terms and definitions;

— Rules and regulations;

— Information about insurance, reimbursement guidelines, etc.;

— Copy of a current newsletter; and

— Emergency information, such as what to do if you can't report for an assignment, if someone becomes injured, if there is a fire, etc.

Each volunteer should be given a copy of the manual to keep. Using looseleaf binders allows easy updating and the addition of new material and notes to the manual.

Pre-service Training

Preservice or prejob training differs from orientation in that it is used to prepare volunteers for specific jobs requiring technical or paraprofessional knowledge and skills before they begin work. For example, all incoming volunteers would receive orientation, but only those to be involved in psychological testing would receive pre-service training; the remainder would go straight to work. The number of different preservice training programs needed will be determined by how many different specialized, technical job areas your program includes and how selectively you recruit volunteers. If you recruit volunteers who already have experience in the necessary areas, after orientation they can move into on-the-job training.

Pre-service training can include new volunteers being paired with or observing experienced volunteers in action. There is little merit in lengthy, theoretical pre-service training where you attempt to give the volunteers all the answers before they know most of the questions.

In-Service Training

In-service or on-the-job training provides assistance and feedback to volunteers who are actually performing the duties outlined in their job descriptions. The volunteers' supervisor and/or an experienced volunteer provides routine instruction to the new volunteers on their work assignments. Frequently, new volunteers doing similar jobs are assigned to small groups that meet regularly to discuss their work and to learn from one another. Supervision and evaluation, to be discussed later, are integral to on-the-job training. Individual conferences, attendance at group conferences, and special reading assignments may be part of in-service training.

Continuing Education

Continuing education (sometimes also called in-service training) provides new and old staff with additional knowledge that does not necessarily directly relate to the jobs they are presently performing. Continuing education can serve as a major volunteer incentive, because it is directed toward enhancing the volunteer's understanding of and skills in current and critical issues. It may focus on developments related to the criminal justice system or segments thereof, special concerns and problems facing the voluntary movement, particular problems and concerns of your program, or development of new and specialized skills.

Techniques for continuing education are practically limitless and include:

— Rap sessions or group meetings where members share information. (These can be formalized as study clubs by having members responsible for program presentations on different issues.);

— Conferences, seminars, workshops, or classes organized by other groups and organizations;

— Inhouse newsletter; and

— Sharing relevant periodicals and books.

Evaluation of Training Programs

To improve and update training programs, they must be evaluated. The true test is how well trained volunteers perform. Yet, the training process itself can be evaluated by asking volunteers such questions as:

- What was most valuable?
- What was least valuable?
- What would you have liked to see more of?

Suggestion boxes, group discussions, and questionnaires may be used to assess trainees' ideas about training. In some instances a more formal evaluation of the training program may be desired. You may want to focus on how much information was gained through training or what training had on the attitudes of trainees. In such situations, a pre-test and post-test may be needed.

PLANNING AND CONDUCTING EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

A SEVEN STEP PROCESS

Miriam Seltzer
Richard Clugston

OUTLINE OF THE TRAINING PROCESS

STEP 1
ESTABLISH A GENERAL SENSE OF WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE

A. Specify overall purpose and design of program
B. Clarify positions on educational and training issues
   1. role and responsibilities of planners
   2. type of knowledge and skills to be taught, and anticipated program impact
   3. teaching methods to be used
   4. how learning will be measured

C. Outline practical limitations that must be considered
   1. budget and timetable (amount of money and time available for training)
   2. planner's knowledge
   3. demands and expectations of other significant persons

D. Develop an advisory group
   1. contact knowledgeable individuals
   2. set up mechanics for gathering information from advisers (meetings, telephone contacts)

STEP 2
SELECT PARTICIPANTS AND DETERMINE THEIR TRAINING NEEDS

A. Develop a list of participants
   1. define criteria for eligibility (type of job, level of competency, geographic location)
   2. locate eligible persons
   3. select desired number of participants (if not all eligible persons can be accommodated, develop secondary criteria for selection)
   4. invite participants

B. Determine areas of crucial need in target population
   1. conduct needs assessment (consult experts in the field, interview potential participants, review literature, conduct direct job analysis by observing participants' daily performance)
   2. prioritize expressed needs (list needs most frequently expressed by each source; develop a rank order of needs to be met)

STEP 3
WRITE PROGRAM GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

A. Apply criteria for selecting goals and objectives (most relevant, most commonly needed, most difficult, most likely to be retained and used, feasible)

B. Determine and write goals
C. Formulate and write objectives
   1. differentiate between end-result and process objectives
   2. apply criteria for well developed objectives
   3. consider merits of precise versus open-ended objectives.

STEP 4
DEVELOP THE MEANS TO REALIZE OBJECTIVES

A. Select content
B. Arrange material in best order to learning
C. Select teaching methods to be used (list alternative methods; consider nature of objective and content, type of involvement desired, and feasibility of each method; select appropriate method for each unit)
D. Make physical arrangements (locate place for training, arrange timing of program, arrange meals and meeting rooms, select appropriate materials)
E. Write program documents to clarify content of program (lesson plans, brochures, programs)
F. Maintain contact with participants (notify them of schedule in advance, make sure they are clear on responsibilities)
G. Select resource persons and instructors (check out expertise and ability to teach; brief instructors prior to session)

STEP 5
DESIGN EVALUATION

A. List major objectives to be evaluated, define measurement standards (knowledge and behaviors that will indicate mastery of the material)
B. Choose most suitable evaluation methods
   1. list the various methods (interviews, questionnaires, tests, observation, expert opinion, job-related materials, informal feedback)
   2. define strengths and weaknesses of methods (validity, reliability, feasibility)
   3. select the best method or combination of methods
C. Design or find evaluative instruments (develop clear instructions, sample items; explain use to which evaluation will be put; plan when the evaluative materials shall be distributed and collected)

STEP 6
CONDUCT THE PROGRAM

A. Keep program on course
B. Fulfill planners' responsibilities
   1. insure that content is covered
   2. oversee physical arrangements
   3. maintain participant interest and involvement
   4. manage the process

STEP 7
ASSESS PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

A. Compile data from evaluative instruments
B. Prepare impact statement, including
   1. impact measured by objective data
   2. impact measured by subjective data
   3. strengths and weaknesses of training process
C. Finalize assessment (provide for immediate and follow-up evaluations; ask participants to read impact statement and comment; summarize responses)

PART ONE

THE TRAINING PROCESS: A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Seven basic steps are involved in developing, conducting and evaluating a training program. In proceeding through these steps, individuals responsible for the program move from general ideas about the needs of the persons to be trained to a detailed schedule of activities designed to meet those needs. Many critical decisions must be made en route. The purpose of the seven-step process is to raise systematically the issues involved in these decisions and to offer suggestions for their resolution.

STEP 1

ESTABLISH A GENERAL SENSE OF WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE

SPECIFY OVERALL PURPOSE AND DESIGN OF PROGRAM

The first task in the planning process consists of answering a series of questions on a general level. Persons to be involved in the program must have some idea of what they are committing themselves to before details are fully spelled out.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE PROGRAM? The statement of general purpose describes briefly what the program aims to address and accomplish. It makes explicit, in general terms, who will be involved and what they will be expected to learn and do.

WHY IS THE PROGRAM BEING DONE? WHAT NEEDS OR INTERESTS WILL IT MEET? The rationale for the program states why the program is needed, who identified the need, and why spending time and money on such a program is justifiable.

WHO WILL BE INVOLVED IN THE PROGRAM? Included are planners, participants, and others. Planners are those individuals who take primary responsibility for designing and carrying out the program. They are the staff of the program; they manage the process and make final decisions. Participants are the persons for whom the program is designed. They are the trainees, the students who learn from the material presented. Other significant persons are those who are not directly responsible for planning or for attending the training sessions but who can provide variety of useful perspectives on the training process. They include experts in training methods, content and techniques, as well as individuals who know the participants as supervisors, co-workers, or teachers.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS WILL BE TAUGHT? BY WHAT METHODS?

HOW WILL LEARNING BE MEASURED?

WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THOSE INVOLVED IN THE PROGRAM? Included are the time commitment (number of hours program will take, dates, times): cost to participants, salary for resource persons; where program will take place; what participants will be expected to do before, during and after sessions.

Having considered the overall purpose and design of the program, planners are ready to discuss educational and training issues, take note of practical limitations, and form an advisory group.

CLARIFY POSITIONS ON EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING ISSUES

ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PLANNERS

Planners must decide what their roles will be in developing the program. Their roles are heavily dependent on the nature of the program.

The program may be designed exclusively to define and meet the needs and interests of the participants. In this type of program participants are involved in all stages of the process. Objectives, content and methods are tailored to their needs. The planners' role would be to evoke participants' honest appraisal of their own strengths, weaknesses, and central needs. Planners would then design a program to meet those needs, constantly asking participants for feedback on whether they were in fact being met.

Alternately, planners may decide they have a special expertise in a certain area and it is that knowledge they wish to teach. They then would structure the curriculum without participant input.

Or planners may feel it is their job not only to meet the participants' needs but to train them to do more effectively what their supervisors or other significant persons expect them to do. In that case training would focus on imparting knowledge that experts in the field consider essential.

Planners must establish the relative importance of these different orientations early in the planning process.

TYPE OF KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS TO BE TAUGHT, AND ANTICIPATED PROGRAM IMPACT

Depending on the orientation of the program and the planners' philosophy of learning, different types of knowledge and skills will be taught. Planners may believe that the only valid learning involves mastering specific techniques for the performance of clearly defined tasks. In that case the training program would emphasize the step-by-step mastery of practical techniques.

Or planners may place a reduced emphasis on imparting such concrete skills and place primary emphasis on helping participants acquire more general skills. This could involve teaching basic theories with an emphasis on applying them to the unique situations in which participants find themselves.

The relative weight attached to these different positions depends on what planners believe is a desirable balance of concrete, how-to skills, general knowledge, and personal insight.

TEACHING METHODS TO BE USED

The design of the program is influenced by planners' assumptions concerning what motivates people to learn, what moves them to develop new habits and complex skills, what stimulates increased self-awareness and sensitivity to others. If it is assumed that the participants are highly motivated, a program emphasizing flexibility and individualized learning may be preferred. However, if planners regard learning as a tedious or unpleasant task, they may structure the program with many check points to see if participants are paying attention and mastering the material. The teaching methods chosen will develop out of these assumptions.

HOW LEARNING WILL BE MEASURED

Planners must determine how they will know if participants have learned anything. Emphasis may be placed on objective performance or on subjective feedback. Proficiency gained in certain clearly specified skills is best measured through tests. Development of personal insight or basic understandings can be measured only by relying on the individual's testimony.

Each of these issues will be resolved in greater detail as the planning process progresses. A variety of positions can be taken, each with its strengths and weaknesses. The important question to resolve is not which position is best, but which position do the planners believe most honestly and accurately represents their expectations for training. The ease with which planners can move on to the next steps in the process depends on the extent to which they have worked out these basic issues and agreed upon a general statement of philosophy.

OUTLINE PRACTICAL LIMITATIONS
THAT MUST BE CONSIDERED

BUDGET AND TIMETABLE

The budget and timetable settled on for the program will have implications for the size and salary of program staff, the caliber of resource persons to be utilized, the quality of physical arrangements, the amount of preparation, and the number of topics which can be dealt with in the sessions. The length of time allowed for the program and the cost to the participants will be determined by these considerations.

PLANNERS' KNOWLEDGE

The planners' practical knowledge, skills and creativity will determine the extent to which they can actualize their ideals. Planners need to be familiar with how to design, implement and assess programs; be aware of the problems and job realities of the target population; know where to

find valuable resources for the program and be skillful in soliciting them. If planners have to develop this knowledge as they go along, many decisions will be made at the last minute in an uninformed manner. The result will be a poorer program.

DEMANDS AND EXPECTATIONS
OF OTHER SIGNIFICANT PERSONS

Planners rarely develop a program without being constrained by the expectations of others. Planners operate within an agency or institutional framework which has general philosophical commitments and imposes certain restraints. Planners are accountable for funds from agencies who also have a philosophy and purposes of their own. Funds are allocated because these agencies believe the planners' efforts will be congruent with the agency's philosophy and purpose. Planners — with their own philosophical commitments — need to work out how they will address these various expectations.

DEVELOP AN ADVISORY GROUP

CONTACT KNOWLEDGEABLE INDIVIDUALS

Since any planners' philosophy, knowledge and skills are limited, it is beneficial to form a group of knowledgeable others who can supply input as to what is realistic and desirable. To be optimally effective an advisory committee must represent the crucial points of view impacting on the program. It should include persons speaking for the agencies and groups to which planners are accountable and for the target population, as well as experts in program development and assessment. They will be able to provide information that can significantly reduce the amount of trial and error. They can criticize the planners' ideal, suggest practical ways to make it real, and point to useful resources and techniques.

SET UP MECHANICS FOR
GATHERING INFORMATION FROM ADVISERS

By arranging regular advisory committee meetings, calling special meetings if necessary, and telephoning when indicated, planners can clarify the rationale for their own decisions and give others a feeling of being part of the process. Wise use of an advisory group will increase support for the final program.

STEP 2

SELECT PARTICIPANTS AND
DETERMINE THEIR TRAINING NEEDS

DEVELOP A LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

The first question is: approximately how many participants would be desirable? This will depend on the size of the training staff, the budget, program expectations, and planners' preferences, e.g., working intensively with a small group or reaching a large group with less personal contact and involvement.

DEFINE CRITERIA FOR ELIGIBILITY

Criteria are needed to specify the characteristics of the target group: their jobs, their level of competency, their geographic location.

LOCATE ELIGIBLE PERSONS

Once the type of job, prerequisite knowledge, and location of participants are specified, planners can choose persons to invite. This could involve a survey within the specified region (nation, state, county, city) to locate individuals who meet the criteria. Planners could rely on existing lists of qualifying facilities and personnel. Planners also could contact the central agencies responsible for supervising, funding, or evaluating the target population and develop a list from these contacts.

After a list of potential participants is compiled it is necessary to verify their qualifications and check them against the criteria. The best way to verify qualifications is to talk to the individuals by telephone. In this initial contact planners are also communicating the overall purpose of the program and getting a feel for trainee needs and interests.

SELECT DESIRED NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

If the list is small and resources are available, everyone on the list can be invited. In most instances, however, only a limited number of the potential participants can be accommodated. Various strategies can be used to narrow the field of potential participants:

CHOOSE A REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLE of the total group. This insures that the program will address the needs of the entire target population and not merely those of a special sub-group.

INVITE THOSE WHO WILL PROFIT MOST FROM THE TRAINING: persons with definite and pronounced needs which the program could meet, persons committed to remaining in a related job, persons showing interest in the program and eagerness to participate.

MODULE III

DEVELOPING STRATEGIES
FOR CONTINUING YOUR
CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES

DEVELOPING STRATEGIES FOR CONTINUING YOUR CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES

MODULE 3

Learning Goals:

During the conduct of this session the facilitator intends to:

- Assist participants in the identification of needs and/or issues within their communities that will not be met if their projects were to cease functioning due to the termination of LEAA/OCACP funding.
- Help participants draft recommendations as to how LEAA/OCACP can non-fiscally support their projects' efforts to improve or maintain the quality of life within their communities.

INTENDED OUTCOMES/Learning Objectives:

By the completion of this session participants will be able to:

- Articulate and list current community needs and/or issues being addressed by their projects.
- Articulate and begin to identify resource development strategies that they can individually or collectively implement to ensure that they could continue to impact vital community needs and/or issues.
- Formulate recommendations that can give LEAA/OCACP some direction as to how it can continue to support local crime prevention efforts without providing funding and costly material assistance.

MODULE OUTLINE

I. Articulation of Problem

Congress has failed to appropriate funds for OCACP in the FY '81 Federal Budget; therefore, that office will be unable to award grants during that fiscal year.

II. Resolution of Problem

A. Some, or all, of LEAA/OCACP grantees can continue to survive without funding from that agency.

B. LEAA/OCACP may still be of benefit to participants' crime prevention activities without providing funding.

III. Summary

DEVELOPING STRATEGIES FOR CONTINUING YOUR CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES

NARRATIVE OVERVIEW

LEAA/OCACP will no longer provide funding to its current grantees during FY '81. Those grantees are, therefore, faced with the challenge of surviving without financial support from that federal source.

This module is designed to engage participants in a problem-solving process that will assist them in identifying strategies for the continuation of their program activities without financial assistance from LEAA/OCACP.

EXERCISES

DEVELOPING STRATEGIES FOR CONTINUING YOUR CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES

EXERCISE I

The Problem

The Office of Community Anti-Crime Programs will not have monies to fund its crime prevention programs for FY'81.

TASK

Identify and list the needs and issues that will be unmet as a result of the problem.

NEEDS	ISSUES

Identify the four priority needs/issues

1 ____________ 3 ____________

2 ____________ 4 ____________

DEVELOPING STRATEGIES FOR CONTINUING YOUR
CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES

EXERCISE II

Please complete the following exercise by completing the information requested in the following chart.

THE PROBLEM	VIABLE OPTIONS	BARRIERS IDENTIFIED	STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME BARRIERS	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR OCACP
OCACP will not have monies to fund its programs for FY '81				

WORKSHOP NOTES

LEARNING LOG

INFORMATION KNOWN PRIOR TO WORKSHOP	INFORMATION LEARNED DURING THE CONDUCT OF THE WORKSHOP

MODULE IV

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL GOVERNMENT BUDGETS

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL GOVERNMENT BUDGETS

MODULE 4

Learning Goals:

During the conduct of this session the facilitator intends to:

- Increase participants' understanding of the budget making processes of local governments.
- Enhance participants' skills in making critical analyses of local budgets.
- Provide participants with techniques for citizen involvement in local budgets.

Intended Outcomes/Learning Objectives

By the completion of this session, participants should be able to:

- Prepare a budget calendar and identify key actors for their local budget-making process.
- Analyze revenues and expenditures in local budgets.
- Develop a strategy for influencing local budgets.

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL GOVERNMENTS - MODULE OUTLINE

I. BACKGROUND RESEARCH

A. Finding information on local governments

B. Understanding the budget-making process

1. Structures of local governments
2. Types of budgets
3. Budget formats and budgeting techniques
4. Revenues and expenditures
5. Steps in the budget preparation process

II. MAPPING YOUR STRATEGY

A. Types of strategies and basic rules for influencing local budgets

B. Where and how to impact the budget process

C. Examples of citizen involvement in budget issues

III. SUMMARY

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL GOVERNMENT BUDGETS

NARRATIVE OVERVIEW

Community based organizations get involved in the local budget-making process for a number of reasons. They may wish to secure new facilities or better services in their neighborhood, more equitable taxation, funds for their organizations, or more accountability by local officials.

In order to impact local government budgets, community groups must understand the local government structure, be able to decipher and analyze both the revenue and expenditure sides of the budget, and identify key actors and dates in the budget-making process. This knowledge is critical so that your group can approach the right officials at a time before decisions are final, and so that you can make an articulate plea for your issue or organization. (Refer to Center for Community Change, Citizen Involvement in the Local Budget Process in the Appendix for details on when and how to intervene).

There are two typical forms of city governments:

1. Mayor-Council - executive and legislative branches have separate powers.

2. Council-Manager - council appoints a city manager and supervises his/her work. The Mayor is largely ceremonial.

A third, less common, city structure is the commission form. Commissioners administer one or more departments and serve jointly as the municipal legislature.

Local budgets are usually divided into operating and capital budgets. The operating budget covers salaries, supplies and other items for every-day operations. The capital budget covers public improvements such as construction and property acquisition.

Public budgets are usually presented in one of these ways:

1. Line item - lists expenses by category (e.g., personnel, supplies).

2. Program - groups expenditures for each department by services provided (e.g., issuance of building permits, housing inspection).

3. Performance - same as program, but includes measurable goals for each service (e.g., issuance of 500 building permits, 100 housing inspections).

Other budget-making concepts used by local governments include:

1. Planning - Programming Budget Systems (PPBS)

2. Management by Objectives (MBO)

3. Zero-Based Budgeting (ZBB)

Since your organization wants to influence where the money goes, it is crucial that you study where the money comes from, that is, the revenue side of the budget. You need to know what money the local government has to work with so that you can tell what demands on the budget are reasonable. Options for the types of revenues that local government can collect are usually limited by state law. These revenue options include: property taxes, sales taxes, income taxes, fees and special service charges, profits from municipal enterprises, state and federal shared revenues, and debt in the form of bonds and notes.*

Your organization or coalition may wish to target its request to a specific revenue source, particularly Federal programs such as General Revenue Sharing, Community Development Block Grants, or Comprehensive Employment and Training Act.

Local government expenditures typically include: education, common municipal functions (police, fire, streets, parks, recreation, sanitation, general administration), fringe benefits/pensions, capital costs and debt service. Most cities spend 85% of their revenues on "musts" such as payroll, fringe benefits, debt service and utilities, leaving only 15% of their budget that is more flexible.**

The preparation of local budgets is usually coordinated by a central budget office. The process is as follows:

> The chief executive (mayor or county executive) sets general parameters for each year's budget requests. About six months into the fiscal year, the budget office instructs all administrative departments to submit their budgets. The budget office reviews departmental requests and may revise these requests before submitting a budget document to the chief executive, who may further revise the proposed budget. Then he/she submits it to the council which holds hearings and meets in executive session, then adopts the budget. The chief executive approves or vetoes the budget.

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*(For a thorough discussion of public budgeting techniques, refer to Fred A. Kramer, Contemporary Approaches to Public Budgeting listed in the Bibliography

** (See Cities in Crisis: Taxes, Budgets and Services in this manual for more information on the urban financial squeeze).

Using this understanding of the budget-making process and the additional information you've learned through researching your own local government and its budget-making process, you can now begin to map a strategy for influencing the budget. Some of your strategy might include:

1. Prepare calendar of your local budget process, with names of key officials responsible for each phase.

2. Organize our supporters; choose your most articulate spokespersons.

3. Identify support within local government departments or councils. Meet with officials in the department(s) you are interested in and discuss your request.

4. Testify at departmental hearings, if these are used in your locality.

5. Meet with officials in the budget department to discuss the part of the budget you wish to change.

6. Get your views to the chief executive by petition, letter or personal visit. Try to get your ideas incorporated into the chief executive's budget message to the council.

7. Meet with council members and staffs. Testify at the council's public budget hearings.

As with all other kinds of citizen action, the process of influencing the local government budget is most likely to succeed if you follow the basic principles of citizen action: sustained action, early intervention, clear definition of targets, effective use of the media, show of support from other groups, and effective organization of an active constituency.

E X E R C I S E S

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL BUDGETS

EXERCISE I

For each of the two excerpts from local government budgets, answer the following:

1. What kind of a budget is it? (e.g., capital)
2. What format is used? (e.g., line item)
3. What concepts or techniques are used? (e.g., ZBB)
4. If this was part of your local government's budget, what improvements in its presentation would you suggest?

PREPARING TO IMPACT LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Exercise II

Your organization serves a neighborhood which has very few social services, either public or private. You would like the city to establish a neighborhood service center which would house public and private human service agencies, as well as neighborhood organizations.

The city has a council-manager form of government and uses the executive budget process. The city council is elected at large on a partisan basis.

1. What part(s) of the budget do you wish to impact and why?
2. Who are some of the key people you wish to approach in order to influence the budget? Include city officials and those outside of the city government.
3. Develop a list of key steps in influencing the budget process so that the neighborhood facility is included in the budget.

CONTINUED

1 OF 2

RESOURCE MATERIALS

WHERE AND HOW TO INTERVENE IN THE LOCAL OPERATING BUDGET PROCESS

LOCAL GOVERNMENT	COMMUNITY GROUP
• Budget office projections of revenues/expenditures.	Compare these to past years; look for policy implications. Communicate your views (e.g., new programs, lower taxes) to chief executive.
• Departments prepare for the formal budget-making process.	Find out who in the relevant department(s) is working on the budget. Meet with them. You can also meet with division chiefs and department heads. Begin forming alliances with other organizations.
• Budget office sends forms and instructions to departments.	Get copies of these - they are public information. Prepare your own request in a similar format.
• Departments prepare their budget requests.	This is a time of maximum opportunity. If you can convince a department to include your request, it should make it to the final budget. Submit your proposal in writing with a clear justification.
• Departments line up support for their budget request. They may also hold hearings.	Try to get on department's advisory committee if there is one. Maybe you can tie into their network of contacts. If you can't penetrate the process, use pressure tactics and the media. Find out whether there are hearings and how to testify.

WHERE AND HOW TO INTERVENE IN THE LOCAL OPERATING BUDGET PROCESS

LOCAL GOVERNMENT	COMMUNITY GROUP
• Budget office reviews department requests.	Explore ways to influence budget director. Meet with persons working on the portion of the budget you are interested in. Stay in contact with department staff to find out what is happening to your request.
• Chief executive makes policy decisions on proposed budget. Budget office prepares budget document.	Get your views to the chief executive by letter, petition or personal visit. If you are denied access, use protest tactics. Enlist support from council members. Broad community support will be needed to influence the chief executive.
• Chief executive and budget director meet with council members and others to brief them on forthcoming budget. Chief executive prepares a budget message.	Try to get a plug in the chief executive's budget message. If budget briefings are held with civic leaders, ask to be represented.
• Budget is formally published.	Get a copy and analyze it carefully. If you weren't included in earlier briefings, your coalition can request a meeting with chief executive and budget director for a briefing.
• Council holds public hearings.	Find out the council's procedures for budget review. Learn the influences and factions among council members. Line up supporters on the council. If there is council staff, meet with them.

WHERE AND HOW TO INTERVENE IN THE LOCAL OPERATING BUDGET PROCESS

LOCAL GOVERNMENT	COMMUNITY GROUP
• Council further considers budget in private or public sessions.	Exert pressure on council members. Feed information on your request to sympathetic council members. If necessary, try to get amendments introduced through the most influential members.
• Adoption of the budget by council.	Have a delegation present when the final decision is reached.
• Executive veto	Mayors are permitted in some cities to veto all or part of the budget. This is your final chance to influence the budget before it goes into effect.
• Budget goes into effect	The finance office or departmental staff may delay a program you've supported. You need to maintain the pressure and monitor whether the budget is being implemented.

SOURCE: Lynch, Thomas D., Public Budgeting in America, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall), 1979.

BUDGET CALENDAR, LOS ANGELES

Date	Action to be Completed
January 2	Mayor's Budget Policy letter requesting Department heads to submit proposed work programs and budget estimates for ensuing fiscal year. Necessary forms and revisions to budget manual are transmitted with that letter.
February 1	City Administrative Officer approves staff budget assignments which are thereafter distributed to the staff.
February 15	Current level work programs and budget estimates received from department heads.
March 1	Service betterment budget estimates, if any, received from department heads.
April 10	City Administrative Officer reviews tentative Capital Improvement Expenditure Program and, upon approval, transmits it to the Public Works Priority Committee by April 10th.
April 10	City Administrative Officer submits annual salary recommendations to City Council by April 10th.
April 10-30	Hearings conducted by the Public Works Priority Committee to determine final priority of capital projects to be included in Capital Improvement Expenditure Program for ensuing year.
April 10-17	Preliminary budget hearings held by City Administrative Officer and Budget Coordinator with the Assistant Budget Coordinator and staff analyst for each department.
April 18-28	City Administrative Officer assisted by Budget Coordinator conducts departmental budget hearings with each department head at which time the staff analysts' recommendations for that department budget are presented and departmental head is given an opportunity to express his viewpoint.

Date	Action to be Completed
May 1 1/	Final date for submission by City Controller of the official estimates of revenue from all sources (other than general property taxes).
May 1 1/	City Administrative Officer submits his official estimate of revenue from general property taxes.
May 1-5	Mayor, assisted by City Administrative Officer, conducts budget conferences with each departmental head. Attended by Council members, press and taxpayer groups.
May 5-12	Final budget decisions made by Mayor assisted by City Administrative Officer.
May 12-31	Budget printed under supervision of City Administrative Officer.
June 1 1/	Mayor submits proposed budget to City Council.
June 1-20	Mayor considers any modifications made by City Council and may veto such changes.
June 25-28 1/	Council considers Mayor's veto of any item and may override Mayor's veto by two-thirds vote.
July 1 1/	Beginning of fiscal year - budget takes effect.

1/ Charter requirement.

Chart III. REVENUE-- PROS AND CONS *

Tax	Fairness	Collection and Enforcement	Elasticity	Intergovernmental Dimensions
PROPERTY TAX	Takes a larger proportion of income from low and moderate income families Some states have passed "circuit breakers" to reduce property taxes for elderly or low income residents. Has some relationship to services received since many city services such as police and fire protection, benefit property owners. However, this relationship is imprecise and indirect compared to user charges.	Based on an assessment of market value which is difficult to make and arbitrary at times. But administration is relatively easy once assessed values are established.	Less responsive to changes in the economy than the income tax or sales tax. In times of inflation, property tax revenues don't increase as fast as revenues from other sources. In times of economic decline, property taxes provide a stable source of revenue.	Differences in property taxes between neighboring communities may affect movement into or out of a community.
SALES TAX	Takes a larger proportion of income from low income than from high income people. This effect can be reduced by exempting staples such as food and drugs. Reaches tourist, commuters, and other nonresidents who benefit from some city services	Collection depends on local retailers; enforcement can be difficult. Payments are spread over many purchases.	More responsive to changes in the economy than the property tax, but less responsive than the income tax.	Loss of business and revenue may result if neighboring communities do not use the tax or have lower rates. Coordination of rates between municipalities helps diminish this effect. State administration for the benefit of localities can reduce duplication of effort and enforcement problems.
INCOME TAX	Takes a larger proportion of income from higher income tax payers. Reaches commuters if wages earned in the locality are taxed.	Requires an audit, compliance, and administrative structure beyond the means of small cities Withholding provisions help avoid lump sum payments.	More responsive to changes in the economy than the property tax or sales tax.	Even if surrounding municipalities don't use the tax, it's hard for taxpayers to change jobs to avoid the tax. Local tax may be piggybacked on state income tax. This approach reduces enforcement problems.
USER CHARGES/ SPECIAL ASSESSMENTS	May limit services to lower income citizens. Scholarships and special passes can reduce this effect. Relates costs of services to benefits recieved.	Rates are sometimes hard to set and maintain	Responsive to some extent to changes in the economy, but fixed costs sometimes make it hard to cut back services in response to decreased demand	Often need to be coordinated with other districts and governments in the area.

*Chart from: Ann Brauston, Financial Management: An Overview for Local Officials (International City Management Association), 1979.

Chart IV. PRODUCTIVITY POSSIBILITIES

Does an opportunity exist to . . .	For example . . .
• AUTOMATE?	Partially mechanized solid waste collection systems have cut costs in cities like ALBEMARLE, NORTH CAROLINA and SHOREWOOD, WISCONSIN. Fully mechanized systems have worked in many more places such as PHOENIX, ARIZONA and ALLIANCE, NEBRASKA.
• STANDARDIZE?	MT. KISCO, NEW YORK developed a standard form to replace 16 different license and permit forms, cutting printing costs and eliminating clerical positions.
• CENTRALIZE?	PLAINFIELD, NEW JERSEY, established a central word processing center which led to elimination of 14 clerical positions through attrition and transfers and enabled the city to avoid hiring new clerical personnel for two years.
• COOPERATE?	WEST MILFORD TOWNSHIP, NEW JERSEY, coordinates its annual order of paper supplies with the board of education, thus saving 30% over the cost of individual purchasing.
• CAPITALIZE ON EMPLOYEES?	NASHVILLE-DAVIDSON COUNTY, TENNESSEE, offers cash prizes to employees who make cost saving suggestions. Prizes average $50/idea, savings average $2,500/idea.
• CAPITALIZE ON CITIZENS?	WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS, draws on part-time volunteer services from executives in private industry. For example, 20 executives have contributed 900 hours to the development of a financial control system.
• REDUCE IDLE TIME?	WINSTON-SALEM, NORTH CAROLINA, and a number of other cities have cross-trained employees in some police and fire activities.
• USE LESS EXPENSIVE EMPLOYEES?	ELK GROVE, ILLINOIS, is employing para-professionals to perform routine tasks such as traffic control and dispatching; this frees trained police officers for crime prevention and investigation.
• AVOID DUPLICATION?	DALLAS, TEXAS, cross-trains personnel conducting fire, health, zoning, rehabilitation, plumbing, electrical, and building inspections. Multicode violations can be spotted by one inspector at sites which would previously have been visited by many more.
• MAKE SURE EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES ARE ON HAND WHEN NEEDED?	GAINESVILLE, FLORIDA, purchased a portable concrete mixer and reduced idle time and overtime caused by late delivery of concrete.
• CUT OUT UNNECESSARY AND NONPRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES?	HAMILTON, OHIO, uses a transfer station to cut down time garbage collectors spend driving between collection and disposal sites.
• BALANCE WORK LOADS?	NEDERLAND, TEXAS, converted to 10-hour rotating police patrols which allowed the department to concentrate manpower during peak periods of the day by overlapping shifts.

*From: Financial Management: An Overview for Local Officials

5. Citizen-Initiated Mechanisms *

Mechanisms originated through citizen initiatives have relative freedom from influence by another organization and the possibility of greater objectivity. On the other hand, they have even fewer resources than the mandated or government-initiated groups and have no direct access to decision-makers. They are often accused of being unrepresentative and accountable to no one, although it would be more accurate to say that each group's stand is representative of its own membership and is accountable through the process by which members are selected and positions determined.

Citizen-initiated mechanisms inevitably place the citizen in the active role—making decision about what issues to tackle and what stands to adopt—rather than in the role of reacting to governmental initiatives.

5A. Citizen Organizations

Mechanism	Description/Function	Evaluation
Issue Organization	A citizen group organized around a single issue, such as better schools, tax reform, or water pollution control.	Success varies widely depending on ability to analyze problems, propose solutions, find access to decision-makers and maintain interest in the issue. Other skills discussed in this manual are useful here.

Mechanism	Description/Function	Evaluation
Multi-Issue Organization	An organization which addresses housing, health care, jobs, and recreation. May be a neighborhood organzation or a coalition.	See Issue Organization above. It becomes especially important within a multi-issue organization to develop a consensus about project priorities.
Neighborhood Organization, Block Club, Community Organization	Membership is determined geographically rather than by interest in a particular issue. May combine social and recreational activities with those of a multi-issue organization. Sometimes created by government initiative.	See issue and multi-issue organizations. Success is also influenced by the degree to which residents identify with the geographical region selected as the organization's boundary.

*Excerpt from Duane Dale; How to Make Citizen Involvement Work (Citizen Involvement Training Project, University of Massachusetts, Amherst), 1978. Reprinted with permission.

5B. Citizen-Group Strategies

Many types of group might choose these strategies. If one strategy is the exclusive or predominant method of a group, it may be an appropriate descriptive name for the group, although the name can be restricting if the group decides to change strategies.

Mechanism	Description/Function	Evaluation
Study Group; Research or Action-Research Group	An organization to gather information and/or analyze a particular issue or community. A study group is generally a small, informal group; an action-research group combines its information-gathering with organizing or political action.	Provides an important basis for citizen group action, especially if the group can develop an independent understanding of social problems and their causes.
Citizen Program Evaluation	A citizen group which evaluates the plans and activities of another organization, such as a governmental agency.	Success depends on the relevance of the findings as well as the use to which they are put.
Citizen lobby	An organization for citizens to counter corporate lobbying within a legislative body. May also use legal pressure within the courts to assure enforcement of exist- laws. The Public Interest Research Groups which exist in many states combine citizen lobby methods with research and program evaluation.	Success limited by existence of competing lobbies and by appropriate legislative action as a solution to a particular problem.
Direct Action Organization	Uses various strategies, ranging from community education to petition drives to demonstrations or civil disobedience.	Success depends on appropriateness and power of strategies selected and the number of people involved.
Petition	Formal or informal request for legislation or for change in executive agency procedures.	Relies on weight of public opinion unless some legal requirements (such as number of signatures required for a ballot referendum) can be fulfilled. If a formal petition, limited to registered voters.

5C. Temporary Convenings

The next two mechanisms are temporary convenings initiated by citizens.

Mechanism	Description/Function	Evaluation
Ad hoc Committee	A temporary, informal citizen group organized around a particular issue.	Success depends on strategies chosen and degree of power and influence attained. See issue organization (section 5A, above).

Problem-Solving Conference	A community-wide conference, either open or invitation-only, designed to develop new options or negotiate new solutions to a specific problem. May utilize planning/futures techniques listed earlier. Useful in calling the public's attention to a problem and generating publicity.	Success depends heavily on whether decision-makers participate, and whether they are willing to accept the input of, or negotiate with, the citizens.

5D. Community Information and Education

Citizen groups often try to educate their fellow citizens about an issue.

Mechanism	Description/Function	Evaluation
Community Resource or Information Centers	A citizen-run information service, providing referrals to social services, facts about community problems and possibly assistance in forming an organization to deal with problems. Might be housed at a public library or in a store-front.	In itself, usually does not represent citizen input into public policy, but may stimulate such input. Depends on individual intiative and interest to first use the facility.
Resource Banks	An information bank of individuals' skills, learning interests, social concerns, etc. May be housed at a community resource center to put people with similar concerns in touch with each other.	See preceding list.
Media Campaigns	Use of mass media by a citizen group to promote wide awareness of an issue, to shift opinion or to bring public opinion to bear on decision-makers.	Depends on accuracy or cooperation of media workers, and whether the media chosen convey factual information or merely an exciting story.
Community Schools	Although usually started to provide adult education and to make fuller use of public school facilities, community schools sometimes are a setting for the education of and input by citizens regarding community issues.	Depends on individual initiatives to lead and participate in community affairs courses and on the accuracy of staff estimates of topics of interest.
Conferences and Institutes	These educational forums can also be used to organize citizens concerned about an issue.	Generally attract only committed and more affluent people because of time and expense required.

Consciousness-raising or Liberation Groups	This approach, which became popular in the women's liberation movement, is being used also by men, homosexuals, workers and members of various minority or oppressed groups. The approach is generally used to understand one's personal situation. It is similar in some ways to a study group but usually has more emphasis on personal experience.	Powerful because personal experience of social problems is generally the most motivating factor in stimulating citizen action.

5E. Coalitions

Citizen groups often join forces to support each others' efforts. Sometimes the liaison will acquire a name.

Mechanism	Description	Function
Coalition, Federation, or Alliance	Cooperation of several citizen organizations based on shared interests and needs.	Larger membership and increased resources may increase power. It may also be possible to hire one or more paid staff. Depending on the formality of cooperation, participating groups may have to give up some of their autonomy.

5F. Demonstration Projects and Alternative Institutions

Especially when citizens have found government officials unwilling to act meaningfully on an issue, they have sometimes developed demonstration projects of their own aimed at providing the desired services or problem-solutions.

Mechanism	Description	Function
Citizen-Based Social Services	"Alternative" social services initiated by an issue organization, neighborhood organization or study group. Generally incorporated as a non-profit organization; may receive public or private monies. Usually establishes a distinctive style of service delivery, such as the extensive use of non-professional ("para-professional") workers.	Difficult to start. Often skims off a segment of service clients who are comfortable with the new service's style, without influencing the procedures of established services. May demonstrate the feasibility of different methods.

Community Owned Corporations	Community residents become owners of a new or existing business within their community through purchase of usually low-cost shares. This fresh capital can be used to expand or diversify the business, provide needed community improvements or finance citizen-based social services. Possible structures include cooperatives and community development corporations. Housing acquisition and rehabilitation have been done by community owned corporations in several cities.	When the relevant decision-makers are corporate executives it may be near-impossible to change policies. This option can work well with proper technical assistance and can provide a community with capital resources.
Government in Exile (Shadow Government)	Perhaps the most notable case was the exiled Vichy government of France during the Nazi occupation during World War II. However, citizen groups have set up informal shadow governments to clarify policy options and to specify the consequences of choices other than those being made by the formal government. Similar to citizen program review and to Tomorrow/2000 Projects. Lends itself to media campaigns.	Since a shadow government has no direct power, success depends on the ability to influence decision-makers directly or to mobilize public opinion.
People's Courts	A citizen's judicial branch; a variation on the "shadow government" idea. If citizens are not able to "get a hearing" in any other way, they may be able to publicize an issue by staging an informal trial. One example is the "Russell Tribunal," (organized by philosopher Bertrand Russell, which heard extensive testimony regarding "crimes against humanity" in the Viet Nam War.	May be criticized as a self-created platform for the beliefs of the organizers. However, may provide an opportunity to present detailed facts and arguments, and to demonstrate the possibility of different courses of action. Shortcomings can be mitigated by bringing in testimony from all sides or by taking an open advocacy stance.

Discussion Questions:

- *Identify the mechanism or organizational type of your own citizen group.*
- *What other forms could it take?*
- *What would be the most powerful or effective form to use in addressing the issue which concerns you?*
- *What combination of mechanisms would be most helpful in working toward a society conducive to the full development of all its people?*
- *What would have to happen to change present mechanisms to more powerful and appropriate ones?*

80 Ways to Enhance Your Group's Clout *

This manual has featured only some of the ways to make your citizen group more effective. Here is a "laundry list" of ideas—a review of those in the manual, plus a good number of others which may turn out to be more appropriate for your situation. Only you and your group can decide what steps you need to take.

It's a matter of having enough hands and minds to get the job done, and a broad enough base of support to win the respect of decision—makers.

Membership

1. Get more members.
2. Get more diversity of membership.
3. Get members more involved: put everyone in charge of something.
4. Determine whether membership represents an appropriate cross-section of the community.
5. Involve families in your projects.
6. Try to build a solid consensus of support for activities, when someone consistently wants to go off in a different direction, ask him either to stop blocking consensus or to leave.
7. Provide ways for people who aren't active members to show support, such as petitions, associate memberships or financial contributions.

If problems persist, it is probably because established solutions don't address the root causes.

Analysis

8. Develop an independent understanding of the causes of social problems.
9. Identify and challenge the assumptions about problems made by decision-makers.
10. For a part of every meeting discuss analyses of social problems and their political and economic roots.
11. Understand national trends, especially those which concern many people; build support for your program by showing its relationship to major trends.
12. Understand their concerns, viewpoints and priorities of your enemies and allies.
13. Define your ideal; envision a society in which your group's issue, and other problems which concern you, have been resolved.

Structure

14. Research government requirements for citizen involvement in the issue-area which concerns you.

*Excerpt from: <u>How to Make Citizen Involvement Work: Strategies for Developing Clout</u> (see previous excerpt for complete citation). Reprinted with permission.

The question of structure is the question of your group's relation to power—your ability to see your decisions put into effect.

15. Identify ways in which requirements for participation are not being fulfilled.
16. Present a list of inadequacies to the agency, with recommended improvements.
17. Publicize inadequacies and desired changes through the mass media.
18. Take legal action to hold agency to citizen participation requirements.
19. Identify ways in which **requirements** are inadequate.
20. Lobby for more stringent requirements for citizen participation.

Fulfilling the letter of the law regarding citizen participation may not be enough; you want them to fulfill the **spirit** of citizen participation requirements.

21. Confront agency attitude toward citizen participation.
22. Press for dismissal or reassignment of agency citizen involvement personnel who are unresponsive to citizen views or unwilling to advocate for citizen views within their agency.
23. Go directly to decision-makers; by-pass anyone who seems to act only as a buffer between agency and citizens.
24. Go to the top if you need to. Also, don't overlook the possibility that the direct service worker—the highway engineer, the social worker, the school teacher—may be more accessible and more willing to change than "the boss" is.
25. Take a mayor to lunch.
26. Assign one citizen group member to each relevant decision-maker—to lobby, to research (voting record, interest, etc.)

If you can't go through, go around.

27. Develop new ways of solving a problem which by-pass uncooperative decision-makers.
28. Acquire direct control over some decisions (through legislative lobbying or agency delegation of power).
29. Acquire shared control over some decisions.

If you can't get control over the agency budget, develop your own budget analysis and a "counter-budget." Show how you counter-budget would be better.

30. Especially, acquire some degree of control over budget—not just a "sign-off" (veto power), but a say in what does and doesn't go in.
31. Become more independent from any agency you wish to influence. For instance, if you depend on that agency for funds for you citizen group operations, acquire an independent source of funds.
32. Brainstorm other structural alternatives which would give your group more power; decide which ones to implement and then implement them.

Image; "Posture"

33. Develop a more forceful image—tougher language, a clear impression that you'll stick to it until you get what you're after. In general, a more vigorous stance or "posture."
34. Elect new leaders willing to adopt a more forceful image.
35. Change the name of your group; choose a "tougher" name.

Restaurants advertise "new management" to project a more exciting image. Citizen groups could issue press releases about their "new management," projecting a tougher more powerful image.

36. Consider not using the phrase "citizen participation," which is sometimes connected with polite, advisory forms of input with little influence.
37. Become better known (a "household word").
38. Launch a public education campaign.
39. Get radio and TV stations to help you develop your own public service announcements for broadcast.

40. Go on local cable television.
41. Get listed or featured in other groups' newsletters.
42. Start or improve your own newsletter and send it to as many influential people as possible.
43. Leaders and other members should adopt the attitude that "we are a high-profile group"—the public needs to know about us, our thinking and our positions on issues.
44. Raise the consciousness of the general public: what it means to be an active, effective citizen.

Strategies and Forms of Involvement

See the table of Forms of Citizen Participation in Part I of this manual.

45. Understand the form of citizen participation which your group reptresents.
46. Decide whether your group would be more effective by taking a different form of involvement or using a different strategy. If so, figure out how to change and do so.
47. Demand to be heard at the times you want, not just the times the decision-makers invite you to speak.
48. Set up a demonstration or "alternative" project. Decide how a problem should really be dealt with, get funding if you really need it, and show 'em how it ought to be done.
49. Canvass neighborhoods to gather opinions and build support.
50. Support community issues and concerns.
51. Celebrate community events (holidays, local history, successes).
52. Hold block parties.
53. Get police and other local officials on your side.
54. Choose winnable issues.
55. Hire a lawyer and an ad agency.
56. Threaten to take legal action.
57. Take legal action on your issue.

Citizen Involvement as an Issue

58. Announce a campaign for better citizen involvement.
59. List past citizen requests and recommendations; distinguish those which decision-makers did and didn't respond to.
60. Identify types of input which may not be responded to in the future.
61. Issue a white paper of findings from previous three steps.
62. Plan to negotiate with decision-makers on those decisions which have consistently not been responded to, plan to use strategies which put additional pressure on decision-makers or plan to by-pass them.
63. Get the support of other citizen groups who also feel they haven't been given a fair shake.

Another CITP manual, Planning, for a Change, will provide a procedure for "force-field analysis" and help you clarify goals.

64. Analyze the forces which are limiting your power, holding you back from your goal of an appropriate, significant level of influence.
65. Clarify your goals for improving your citizen participation mechanism—your access to power, to information, etc.

"We are not listening to your demands until you agree to accept what we offer."

PNS. New Unity

66. Assume that you have the power you would like—start acting as if you have it.
67. Set up a shadow government or shadow agency—a citizen committee which would make all the decisions which officials are making, presumably with different outcomes. Analyze the impacts of their decisions and yours, and issue a report comparing the desirability of the two different sets of policies.

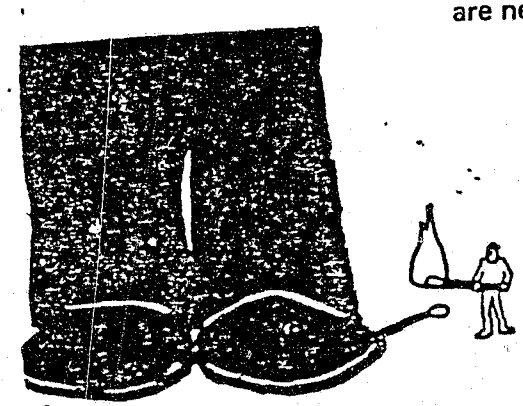
Resources and Assistance

68. Acquire a budget for your citizen involvement activities, preferably from a source which will not want to sway your decisions regarding policies and activities.
69. Assess organizational history and strengths; they are among your most important resources.
70. Use community resources such as school building for space.
71. Draw on technical experts for advice and testimony.
72. Enlist the support of people with clout.
73. Use process consultants and faciliators when appropriate.
74. Seek in-kind services (free printing, auditing, legal assistance, etc.).

Organizational Development

75. Take charge of your own agenda; determine your own priorities and long—range goals; allocate time in accordance with them.
76. Develop a stance of initiating plans and policies rather than reacting to those of some government agency or other organization.
77. Manage time carefully and realistically, both within a single meeting and over months and years as you attempt to implement your plans.
78. Develop leadership and membership skills. Make training an on-going part of your activities.
79. Run your organization in ways which anticipate the sort of world you are trying to create. For example, you may want to minimize top-down decision-making and emphasize consensus decision making. You should attempt to avoid th prejudicial behaviors common in society at large regarding class, race, sex and age.
80. Evaluate your progress regularly and take whatever steps are necessary to keep events headed toward the goals you se

> Any real change in the status quo depends on continued creative action to sharpen the conscience of the nation and establish a climate in which even the most recalcitrant elements are forced to admit that change is necessary.
>
> — Martin Luther King



WorkForce

EXAMPLES OF CITIZEN GROUP INFLUENCE ON LOCAL BUDGET ISSUES

- Massachusetts Fair Share went to Court in Boston and other cities to make the list of tax delinquents public. Through a series of actions and demonstrations, it forced corporations to pay $8.3 million in overdue taxes.

- Public employees in the city of Hartford, Connecticut, decided to change the way in which their pension funds were invested. They put up $250,000 for a loan to create a city-owned Citizen Energy Corporation, which is weatherizing homes of low-income and moderate-income persons.

- St. Paul, Minnesota, established a formal structure for citizen participation in the capital budgeting process by city council resolution in 1975. The city is divided into 17 districts, each of which established a council with an elected board. Councils were in some cases existing organizations, in other cases coalitions, and others were newly formed new organizations. Each council receives an annual budget of $10,000 - $35,000 from the city.

  Each district develops a general district plan for capital improvements. They also receive early notification of licensing, zoning, budgeting and other activities.

  Districts participate in a Unified Capital Improvement and Budgeting Process which funds neighborhood-initiated capital projects.

  All capital budget requests are received by two city-wide task forces. The city Planning Commission reviews the projects proposed by the task forces for compliance with the city's comprehensive plan only. Then the capital budget items are submitted to the mayor and council.

- In Cincinnati, the League of Women Voters launched a project in 1973 to train community leaders in the city budgeting process and to bring neighborhood priorities into the budget. This effort produced a $1.1 million neighborhood improvement project and more dollars for neighborhoods generally.

  This project has now been formalized. Community councils now receive technical assistance from city planners in making budget requests for projects to be included in the next year's budget.

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WORKSHOP NOTES

LEARNING LOG

INFORMATION KNOWN PRIOR TO WORKSHOP	INFORMATION LEARNED DURING THE CONDUCT OF THE WORKSHOP

MODULE V

THE LEAA GRANT CLOSE-OUT
AND
PROPERTY DISPOSITION PROCESS

THE LEAA GRANT CLOSE-OUT AND

PROPERTY DISPOSITION PROCESS

MODULE 5

Learning Goals:

During the conduct of this session the facilitator intends to:

- Describe the required reporting and record-keeping procedures for LEAA grant close-out.
- Describe the regulations governing the use and disposition of property purchased with LEAA funds.

Intended Outcomes/Learning Objectives:

By the completion of this session, participants should be able to:

- Prepare the reports they are required to submit to LEAA to close out their grants;
- Identify the required time period for maintaining grant records;
- Identify the proper procedures for the use and disposition of property purchased with LEAA grant funds.

THE LEAA GRANT CLOSE-OUT AND DISPOSITION PROCESS

MODULE OUTLINE

I. Introduction

  A. Definition of "close-out"

  B. Four close-out tasks

II. Final Property Inventory and Property Disposition

  A. Inventory listing

    1. Date Due
    2. What to include

  B. Property disposition

    1. Items costing under $300
    2. Items costing $300-$999
    3. Items costing $1,000 or more
    4. Intangible property

  C. Maintaining property records

III. Final Financial Report

  A. Date due

  B. How to construct

IV. Final Narrative Report

  A. Date due

  B. Suggested outline and examples of content

  C. Supplemental materials to submit

V. Maintenance of Grant Records

  A. How long to maintain grant records

  B. Why maintain them

  C. What records to maintain

THE LEAA CLOSE-OUT PROCESS

NARRATIVE OVERVIEW

"Close-out" is the administrative process of ending your LEAA grant. Grantees' close-out responsibilities include submission of a property inventory, a final financial report and a final narrative program report, and preparation of their grant records for ongoing maintenance and storage.

Ninety (90) days before the grant expiration date, grantees must submit to OCACP a listing of all property purchased with grant funds that had a unit acquisition cost of $300 or more. Grantees may keep this property without compensating LEAA as long as they can still use it to accomplish the purposes of their project, whether or not the project is federally-funded. They may also keep it without paying LEAA if they can use it in other programs funded by LEAA, an SPA, or another federal agency.

When the property is no longer needed for one of these purposes, the grantee may use it for other purposes without compensating LEAA if it had a unit acquisition cost of under $1,000. If it cost $1,000 or more, however, the grantee may keep it to use for other purposes only if LEAA is compensated for it. If the grantee does not want an item that cost $1,000 or more, LEAA should be consulted for disposition instructions. LEAA may send instructions to sell it and reimburse LEAA, to ship it to another grantee who will pay for it, or to transfer it directly to LEAA.

Property records must continue to be maintained for three (3) years after the final disposition of the property. Every two (2) years, a physical inventory should be conducted to reconcile the results with the property records.

The final financial report is due ninety (90) days after the grant expiration date. Either the H-1 Financial Report Form or the H-1 Turn-around Document (computer printout) may be used for the report. Along with the original and two (2) copies of the report, a check should be enclosed, covering the amount of money received from LEAA that has not been spent. These are the funds that will be "deobligated;" that is, the grant will be reduced by that amount.

The final narrative program report must also be submitted ninety (90) days after the grant expiration date. It should be structured similarly to the quarterly reports, except that it should cover the whole grant period. Also, even more than quarterly reports, it should analyze the results of your project's activities as well as the activities themselves.

The final narrative report should include a statement of the problems addressed by the project, the project's goals and objectives, a summary of the major activities of the project, a description of problems encountered, an analysis of your findings and results, and a description of documents produced by the project. Along with the original and four (4) copies of the report, seven (7) copies of all information documents produced by the project should also be enclosed, as well as a listing of property purchased since the first inventory listing was submitted.

All program and financial records pertaining to the grant must be maintained in a safe place for at least three (3) years after submission of the final reports. This is because the records must be available for examination by federal auditors, who may conduct an audit at any time during the next three (3) years.

EXERCISES

THE LEAA CLOSE-OUT PROCESS

EXERCISE I

1. You purchased a $150 typewriter with LEAA funds to use in your project. Now that the grant has expired, your staff is only half as large as it was, and there is no longer a need for that extra typewriter. Can you sell it? If so, can you keep the proceeds?

2. You purchased a used van for your crime prevention escort service for $4,000. LEAA funds covered half the cost, and a grant from a private foundation covered the other half. Now that your LEAA grant has expired, your board decides that it is too costly and troublesome to keep up the maintenance on the van and pay for gasoline, and they direct you to sell it. Can you sell it? If so, can you keep the proceeds?

3. You have a $1,500 copying machine, purchased with LEAA funds, that has broken down so many times that it no longer functions efficiently or reliably. You still need a copier, however, to use in your ongoing crime prevention project. Can you trade in the old one toward a new one? If so, do you have to compensate LEAA at the time?

4. Videotaping equipment costing $8,000 was purchased with LEAA grant funds and used by Youth-Flicks, Inc., one of your subgrantees, for crime prevention video-tapes during the project. Now that the grant has ended, Youth-Flicks is no longer focusing on crime prevention, but wants to continue to use the equipment to make tapes on skateboarding, with the financial support of a skateboard manufacturer. At the same time, one of your other subgrantees, who never used the equipment during the grant period, has asked to use the equipment now, to make training tapes for use in a federally-funded social service project. As the grantee, responsible for the use of LEAA-purchased property after the grant expires, which subgrantee do you allow to use the video equipment?

5. The $1,200 camera equipment that was purchased with LEAA funds to use in the crime prevention project has disappeared. Apparently, it was stolen. You still need the equipment to continue your project activities. Can you pay for its replacement with funds remaining in your LEAA grant, if you can get a budget adjustment?

6. If you continue to use property purchased with LEAA funds after your grant ends, how often must you conduct a physical inventory of that property to update your LEAA property list? How long must you maintain the property records?

7. What are some other property disposition problems that you have faced or that you anticipate facing? Please share them with the group, for discussion.

THE LEAA CLOSE-OUT PROCESS

EXERCISE II

1. When must each of the following be submitted to LEAA?

   (1) Inventory of LEAA-purchased property

   (2) Final financial report

   (3) Final narrative program report

2. How long must grant records be stored after the final reports are submitted? Why do the records have to be kept that long?

3. When must you return the money that you have received from LEAA that has not been spent?

WORKSHOP NOTES

LEARNING LOG

INFORMATION KNOWN PRIOR TO WORKSHOP	INFORMATION LEARNED DURING THE CONDUCT OF THE WORKSHOP