



**WESTERN
MICHIGAN**
UNIVERSITY

The Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare

Volume 6
Issue 6 November

Article 11

November 1979

Toward a Theory of Accountability

Michael Borrero
University of Connecticut

Pricilla Martens
Spokane Indian Reservation

Gretchen Gubelman Borrero

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/jssw>



Part of the Social Work Commons

Recommended Citation

Borrero, Michael; Martens, Pricilla; and Borrero, Gretchen Gubelman (1979) "Toward a Theory of Accountability," *The Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare*: Vol. 6: Iss. 6, Article 11.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15453/0191-5096.1392>

Available at: <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/jssw/vol6/iss6/11>

This Article is brought to you by the Western Michigan University School of Social Work. For more information, please contact wmu-scholarworks@wmich.edu.



**WESTERN
MICHIGAN**
UNIVERSITY

TOWARD A THEORY OF ACCOUNTABILITY

Michael Borrero, Associate Professor
University of Connecticut
School of Social Work

Pricilla Martens, MSW, Social Worker
Spokane Indian Reservation
Spokane, Washington

Gretchen Gubelman Borrero, MSW
Private Practice
Hartford, Connecticut

ABSTRACT

Since the mid 1960's the demand for accountability has been a major theme in the social work profession. The literature, however, has failed to provide a theoretical and practical guide on developing systems of accountability. This article traces the recent emergence of accountability; synthesizes the professional literature into four explanations as to why social work has not been accountable; and proposes a theoretical and practical paradigm to develop systems of accountability.

INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1970's a considerable amount of attention has been devoted in the social work literature to the notion of accountability. The focus of this literature has centered around three themes: (1) that the profession has not been accountable; (2) that the profession needs to be more accountable; and (3) some suggestions on how the profession can be more accountable.

Professional reaction to this development has been mixed: some social workers have reacted defensively and believe that the profession is being scapegoated;¹ others seem excited and hopeful by these new challenges;² some are neither excited nor threatened and merely see this new development as a re-emergence of an old theme. They believe that accountability has always been, from the beginning of the profession, an ongoing practice. Whether this recent attention on accountability is a new development or the re-emergence of an old one, the fact remains that it has had an impact on social service management, front line workers,

and, to some extent, the social work profession.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief account of the recent development of accountability; to identify four explanations in the social work literature for the failure of the profession to be effective and accountable; and to propose some beginning ideas which may lead toward a theory of accountability. The recent literature on accountability chooses between being accountable to clients, administration or funding sources. It is the authors' view that choosing among one or two of these sources is insufficient and skirts the more fundamental issue of reciprocal accountability. Reciprocal accountability is a system wherein all persons involved hold one another accountable for specific commitments and activities in order to achieve the goals and objectives which bring them together.

A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF ACCOUNTABILITY

The development of scientific management, effectiveness and efficiency in the private sector can be dated to the early twentieth century and credited to the work of Fredrick Taylor.³ The adaptation of these same technologies in the public sector, specifically human services, is of recent origin. They have penetrated the human services because of increased demand for these services, rising expenditures, changing political priorities and unclear accomplishments of the human service professions. This demand for criteria for measurement of accomplishment has been termed accountability.

Accountability in some form has usually accompanied the delivery of human services in the public sector. But the shape of accountability has greatly changed and in direct proportion to its prominence. Robert Haveman notes:

Until the late 1950's or early 1960's, public expenditure analysis was not generally recognized as a distinct field of economic inquiry...The neglect of public expenditure analysis by economists has been reflected in federal government practice. Prior to the late 1950's, it was the rare government expenditure program whose benefits and costs were evaluated either before its establishment or while in progress.⁴

Haveman implies, therefore, that the Federal Government eventually recognized the need for an ongoing system of accountability. In 1963 the Defense Department initiated a program to insure accountability within that agency. Two years later the Johnson administration directed each Federal agency to develop a modern planning-programming-budgeting system (PPBS). The objective of this program was "to use the most modern

management tools so that the full promise of a finer life can be brought to every American at the least possible cost." The intent was to enable the government to identify and prioritize goals and measure the performance of programs to insure a dollar's worth of service for each dollar spent. William Gorham, Assistant Secretary for Program Coordination in HEW, provided a further analysis: he stated PPBS could be counted a success if it helped to clarify objectives, improved understanding of the alternatives available in meeting these objectives, and allowed identification of the possible consequences of particular programs.⁵

Approximately one year later, after having reviewed some of the difficulties in conceptualizing and measuring the benefits of particular programs, Gorham offered this defense of PPBS:

But the very process of analysis is valuable in itself,
for it forces people to think about the objectives of
Government programs and how they can be measured.⁶

If this system emphasized planning and measuring objectives, then accountability was taking on a more quantitative as opposed to qualitative form, in addition to becoming much more visible to the general public.

Social work initially tended to ignore this new form of accountability, although as early as 1965 Alvin Schorr had warned that social work was due for a "year in the desert" as a result of the increasing stature of economics and of systems analysis.⁷ By the early 1970's however, the subject of accountability began to receive a great deal of attention from the social work profession; there was sufficient funding pressure to encourage them to do so.

Another program that elicited some attention was enacted by HEW in 1972. It was known as GOSSS (Goal Oriented Social Services System). A reading of the philosophical basis of GOSSS provided a critical analysis of "traditional" accountability:

Although \$1.8 billion of Federal, State and local funds was spent for social services in fiscal year 1971, little information exists as to the effectiveness of these services--their actual impact on people. Basically, the reason so little is known about the effectiveness of social services is that State reporting has largely been a matter of 'process' reporting; that is, how many individuals and families received what kinds of services. No systematic, national format has existed for measuring the results of service activities toward a single set of goals and objectives.⁸

GOSSS, in contrast to the traditional approach, was to have accountability "built in with the determination of specific operational targets toward which all efforts and activities are directed and against which effectiveness is evaluated. Also, the emphasis of the system is on the outcome of services for the consumers. The focus is on the product, not the process of the service."⁹

With the change of administration in 1972, GOSSS failed to achieve greater recognition. Nonetheless, some human service agencies (e.g., the states of Montana and Minnesota) currently operate programs employing the GOSSS philosophy.¹⁰ GOSSS, along with PPBS, did further the trend toward a more objective form of program evaluation and accountability. Scott Briar in 1973 referred to this trend as the "Age of Accountability," an age when nothing will be taken for granted. Briar further interpreted this new accountability as a demand that social workers prove that what they do is worth supporting. To this end he advocated 20% of the resources in social work agencies, schools, and organizations be allocated to the task of improving and demonstrating the effectiveness of social work.¹¹

As rational devices, both PPBS and GOSSS had emphasized planning and measuring goals as criteria for demonstrating accountability. It must be recognized, however, that rational planning and programming processes are susceptible to political manipulation. As Aaron Wildavsky, discussing PPBS points out:

Because the cost-benefit formula does not always jive with political realities - that is, it omits political costs and benefits - we can expect it to be twisted out of shape from time to time.¹²

A review of the literature indicates accountability re-emerged over the years from a nearly invisible, quantitative and political form. That is, process reporting was replaced by a systematic, technical, often econometric, method of program evaluation which was initiated by governmental decree and which sought approval of the general public.

Four Explanations for the Failure of Social Work to be Accountable

A review of the social work literature on accountability reveals at least four explanations for the failure of the social work profession to demonstrate its effectiveness or ineffectiveness, and thus be accountable.

The first explanation focuses on the lack of 'good' or adequate measuring instruments. Exponents of this view believe that social work evaluative instruments are inadequate to demonstrate its effective-

ness and call for greater sophisticated technology to measure results, especially given the current demand for public funds.

"The usual case record in family and children's work consists of narrative or summary descriptions of the work activities and the activities of the members of the family. It is a record of case process and accounting of activity."¹³

As valuable as these records may be to workers and agency administrators, they fall short of the need for greater objectivity and quantifiable analysis. This is especially true given the current and foreseeable future of funding resources. As allocation of resources in the human services becomes more scarce and social needs continue to increase, there will be greater competition for available funds. Thus, the need for clearer evaluation criteria by which to judge program effectiveness and efficiency is essential.

"Existing techniques for measuring results and effectiveness are limited."¹⁴ ...and "The fact remains that we don't have adequate means for determining programmatic results, particularly in the social welfare area."¹⁵

The challenge to the profession is clear: "...to find more refined measuring instruments to trace the attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioral movements that occur"¹⁶ within our practice.

Nearly all writers on accountability stress this concern: Briar,¹⁷ Kadushin,¹⁸ Newman,¹⁹ and Turem,²⁰ to mention a few.

Proponents of this explanation believe that proper measuring and evaluation techniques can be developed to measure the effectiveness of human services. They seem to imply that social work can be shown to be effective; however, given the current knowledge of program evaluation it is difficult to justify.

A second explanation why the human services have difficulties in demonstrating results centers around poorly defined and selected goals. Exponents of this view believe one reason that social work is unaccountable is that it is unable or unwilling to state succinct, clear, reasonable and measurable goals. This theme is clearly articulated by Charles Morris, Secretary of the Department of Social and Health Services in the State of Washington. Morris believes that the failure of the war on poverty and nearly all social welfare programs lies in the "inflation of objectives that seem to plague social service programs."²¹

We have a tendency to adapt goals out of all proportion to the means we are prepared to expend or indeed the means that we would know how to expend if we had them. Then when we don't achieve those ends, when we don't reach El Dorado, we

tend to indulge in bitter self-recrimination.²²

As an example of these inflated goals, Morris mentions reduction of recidivism and predicting success in future client behavior. He cites the poor success rates in rehabilitating criminal offenders, drug addicts, and the mentally ill patient. Since, according to Morris, "we have a tendency consistently to choose goals out of all proportion to our capacity to perform or to measure performance," he proposes that we should reject setting goals which attempt to predict the future behavior of clients.²³ In his words, "...we should proceed as though we lived in a world where recidivism is a constant."²⁴

This solution, however comforting, does not eliminate the necessity of setting goals. He suggests therefore, that we define "limited and realistic objectives which generate some fairly definitive evaluation criteria which can put us very far ahead of the game."²⁵ He provides an example of selecting limited and realistic goals: If we need an institution to take care of youth who commit crimes, our goals ought not to be to improve their behavior so that they don't commit crimes, or to decrease the rate of recidivism. Instead, our goals ought to be more modest. Perhaps we should teach them how to read or learn a useful trade. While admittedly these goals may not change criminal behavior, he believes they, nonetheless, do no harm and they are goals which can easily be measured.

Kadushin also makes a similar point:

In many agencies there is no clear statement of set agency objectives. The administrator would say for example, 'It's obvious what we are doing. We are a Traveler's Aid Society, and we aid travelers.' If pressed on his hopes for achievement he would remain in general—as would many other aid groups. Help people to help themselves. Improve the quality of life. Strengthen the family. Improve the capacity for adjustment. All of these are incredibly global statements of objectives. Nothing would be said about the specific consequences that could be introduced as the result of social welfare efforts.²⁶

Newman and Turem elaborate on the importance of stating clear, measurable goals:

Social work needs an improved technology for defining goals in terms that entail not only measures of effectiveness but also measures of efficiency. There may have been a time when it was sufficient to state objectives in obscure terms, but this is no longer the case.

Defining goals more rigorously is so large a first step for social work practitioners and supporting scholars to develop that a concerned effort to go so would probably satisfy critics for a while.²⁷

Those active in the social work profession must learn to focus on the few, perhaps narrow, areas in which they can demonstrate that what they can do makes a difference, a difference not possible by other means for fewer resources. They cannot afford to make promises that, given the resources, they will reduce welfare rolls, eliminate delinquency, cure the mentally ill, or educate the poor.²⁸

Hoshino warns that, "Until the goals of policy can be made more coherent and consistent and criterial of performance more explicit and realistic, there is little hope of obtaining accountability in any real sense for either the services program as a whole or for the individual worker."²⁹

The proponents who share the view that we suffer from unclear and inflated goal statements, assume that clear and less inflated goal statements could be more easily measured and that the technology exists or could be developed to assess the effectiveness of social work practice. They further suggest a rather simplified view of the helping process, if for no other reason than it would lend itself to the research design. On the other hand, they do challenge the profession to become less global and more clear and definitive in setting goals.

A third explanation which addresses the difficulty social work has in showing its effectiveness, is the distance or potential conflict which researchers and their parties in the service delivery system seem to have in valuing each other's importance. Kadushin articulates this difficulty quite nicely. He identifies three professional relationships or roles as sources of potential conflict which affect the evaluation process. These relationships are: between the administrator and the researcher, and between the clients and the researcher.

In the first instance, the administrator usually seeks information so that something can be done about a pressing problem or to justify a particular program. The researcher on the other hand is, first of all, interested in the scientific approach to gathering data. The researcher is a theoretician who must remain objective. He or she is also an academician who feels responsible to fellow academicians and is compelled to follow a rigorous methodology. The administrator is less concerned with these professional constraints and more interested in immediate answers to the pressing problems of the daily work situation.

As can be seen:

They both have different points of view, different interests with regard to research, and consequently different orientations for research.³⁰

A second source of potential conflict is between the practitioner and the researcher. Here the conflict is often visible.

The worker sees the prime purpose of activity as service to the client. Any activity which intrudes on the worker's time and energy is apt to be resented as a disservice to the client. The worker is predisposed to individualize each client. This is central to the ethics of social work. All research is concerned with, however, are generalizations in which individual response, needs, etc., are parts of a group aggregate.³¹

The researcher is oriented to inquiry with objectivity, critical skepticism, and precise methodology. Furthermore, the researcher has no responsibility for implementing research findings. The practitioner cannot afford this luxury. The practitioner is a doer--always responsible for a given caseload or task. The practitioner is more often concerned with subjectivity, the emotional state of the client, the exploration of feelings and intuition, and in changing the forces which create hardships and problems to their client system. As Kadushin points out:

Workers often feel that what is researchable, they already know, and what is not researchable, is because it is not measurable--the important things--the researcher can't help them with.³²

Joel Fischer makes a similar point:

...the human service professions never developed the tradition of basing even part of their practice on the results of research. In fact, most professionals--on constitutional or more properly institutional grounds--appear to be so resistant to research findings--especially when they are negative, but even when they are positive--the major structural or institutional changes appear necessary in order to alter that pattern.³³

Equally important is that any evaluation quite often is interpreted by the practitioner as an evaluation of their effort, work and competence.

Proponents of this view point out the degree of conflict and interests between practitioners and researchers. While these differences are very real, it assumes that practitioners and researchers cannot find a middle ground for working together and mutually helping one another.

It further dichotomizes the age old issue of practice versus theory or the scientific approach. It also suggests little room for practitioners becoming competent researchers and for researchers becoming competent practitioners. It suggests a great need for less specialization and implies the need for greater synthesis in different educational experiences for future social workers.

The third source of potential conflict between researcher and the client system can be simply stated: clients are fed up with all the questions they must answer and forms they must complete, often for strangers who have no apparent remedy for their situation. They often feel they are being used as guinea pigs, and their privacy invaded, and seldom knowing how this information will be used. On the other hand, the researcher faces the problem of incomplete data, due to client resistance, mobility and apprehension. Further, the researcher experiences frustration between the necessary research design and the constraints which are encountered in its implementation.

The fourth explanation which appears in the literature is more often implied than clearly stated: the basic issue is an inaccurate definition of the problems and inappropriate intervention.³⁴ Human service practitioners are often seen as treating individual symptoms, and not the basic causes which are structurally rooted. It is argued that practitioners in human services are doomed to fail as long as they continue defining social conditions which are endemic to our economic and political systems in terms of social or individual problems. To quote in more familiar terms:

It is necessary to face the question of whether any program of service or rehabilitation can succeed when clients must live on such inadequate allowance. Mothers are always completely occupied with the struggle to meet the family's basic needs and have no part in planning for the future. While adequate assistance grants do not automatically insure rehabilitation, inadequate assistance definitely makes rehabilitation more difficult.³⁵

Casework emphasis on rehabilitation, good as they might be, cannot make up for not enough food, heat or clothing, nor could they compensate for feelings of emotional deprivation in children and mothers who, in reality, are being neglected and deprived by a public indifferent to their needs.³⁶

Joel Fischer makes a similar observation and challenges the human service professions:

...professionals have to recognize their responsibility not

only to treatment of individual clients but the changing social conditions whether this means improving the humanity of our institutions, redistributing income or eliminating discriminatory practices. There are several hundred thousand helping professionals...If all these spent just 10% of their time working to improve social conditions, this would be one of the potentially more potent forces in the country involved in pressing for social change.³⁷

Those who stress this view reason that if the human services professions really want to be effective they must clearly define the problem they are working on, its causes and not its symptoms, and not treat social conditions with psychotherapy. They assume that clear delineation between social or structural conditions and individual problems is a simple and clear task. They imply that if human service professionals focused on eradicating social conditions, the need for psychotherapy would diminish greatly. They further imply a clear problem definition is possible in spite of the complex structure of our society.

Directional Accountability

There is a trend in the literature which concerns the direction of the accountability demand. As previously pointed out, the demand for accountability in social work was external, i.e., economic and political pressures and internal fellow social workers calling for measurable results. Both of these demands have had an impact on the profession and the organizational structure of service agencies. However, the demand appears to have been unequally distributed. A careful reading of the literature suggests that front-line service providers have received the brunt of the demand. More specifically, the thrust of the demand to be more accountable has mainly stressed the need for front-line service providers to be more accountable. With few exceptions, surprisingly little attention has been given to others beyond the service provision level to be accountable. As Cruthirds points out:

(We) may have proceeded from blaming the victim(client) to blaming the technology, to blaming the human service workers for the persistence of problems that social service strategies are designed to combat.³⁸

And why not, argue Henderson and Shore:

It is difficult to define where realistic evaluation of practice ends and scapegoating for problems inherent in the society begins. Someone has to be blamed for the ills the system. Why not social workers? Their activities in

the area of human concern are highly visible. They become easy targets for the criticism.³⁹

Front-line workers in the age of accountability find themselves filling out more forms, writing more reports, going to more meetings, and attending more training workshops than ever before. There is little doubt that these activities are important in feeding back to the administrative hierarchy what is taking place in the front line. However, we must also look at the cost that this additional activity had had on the delivery of services, especially to clients.

It needs to be pointed out that the accountability demand does not end here. Agency middle managers and top level administrators feel the intense pressure of accountability. They, too, must be accountable, cost effective, efficient, etc., to their board of directors, foundations, city, state, and federal government.

An interesting observation of the accountability demand is that it is directional: those on the bottom are accountable to those on the top. Very little is being said about front-line workers holding supervisors and administrators accountable, or administrators holding boards, foundations, city, state or federal governments accountable.

In the demand for accountability, clients seem to have been left out. Presumably being accountable will ultimately benefit the client. But how do we know this for sure? The answer depends on what form of accountability we are interested in establishing and whom we define as the client.

TOWARD A THEORY OF ACCOUNTABILITY

The demand and need for accountability in human services is crucial and the time has come to develop a conceptual and operational theory of accountability. The benefits of such a development are far reaching:

- 1) Clients stand to benefit because more qualitative services may be provided if a system of accountability, including intent, goal, and evaluation became an integral part of every human service program.
- 2) Human service workers would benefit because they would have a clearer understanding of their professional responsibility and the expectations placed on them. Also they would have the tools with which to measure their effectiveness.
- 3) Administrators would be provided with more realistic resources with which to effectively manage human service programs. They would also have a clearer social mandate from funding sources and clients regarding their responsibility as brokers.
- 4) The social work profession stands to benefit because a system

of accountability as defined below could do much toward accruing and enhancing the knowledge base of social work practice, especially in terms of goal and objective formulation and its relationship to resource allocation and evaluation.

5) Funding sources would be better able to make funding decisions in terms of their own goals and objectives. Those funding sources that wish to adopt a cost-benefit criterion may do so, while others who wish to adopt a less economic criterion may choose a quality-loss analysis.

RECIPROCAL ACCOUNTABILITY

A current problem with the accountability literature is that the concept of accountability is poorly and too loosely defined. We define accountability as a statement of clear intent by the service provider (agency, worker, etc.) and recipient of the intended services(client system), and evaluation of the effectiveness and/or efficiency of the intent of both parties. This definition provides a reciprocal process of evaluation between client system and the service provider. Thus, to be accountable in this formulation depends upon a clear statement of intent by the service provider and client system and the evaluation of this intent. In brief form, this reciprocal formulation would be stated: $A=f(Ip+Ic+E)$.

The intent of the service provider(Ip) is comprised of a clear statement of goals, objectives, resource allocation and time. The service provider can be the agency, staff member, funding source; whomever, who attempts to clearly state what they can do; how they can do it; with what resources; and within what time period.

Goals are statements of ideal ends to achieve if everything went according to plan or if all things were equal. Being an ideal end, goals are seldom, if ever, achieved.

Objectives are specific steps taken which will lead to the goal(s). They are micro activities which, when added together, would approximate the goal. "Objectives derive logically from the goal and specify the actual impact"⁴⁰ to be made in the process of reaching the goal(s). Consequently, evaluation of objectives is a valuable activity in monitoring how closely goal(s) are being achieved.

Resource collection is the supply of money, personnel, motivation, communication, workers, commitment, etc., needed or used to reach objectives and subsequently the goal(s). Resource allocation is the input needed to reach a desired objective; it includes tangible and intangible inputs.

Time is the period believed necessary to accomplish the stated goals and objectives. Time is dependent upon the goals and objectives selected, and resource allocations to be utilized. That is, the broader the goals, the greater the number of objectives, the greater the amount of resource allocations required and the greater the time needed to reach the desired results.

The intent of the recipient of service-(Ic) client system, consumer of services-is also a clear statement of goals, objectives, recourse allocation and time. The recipient of service can be the agency or staff member, but it is most usually the consumer of services or the client system. Here the recipients of service must clearly state what they want done; and what resources they are willing to invest, e.g., money, self-exploration, and within what time period. The same definition of goals, objectives, resource allocation and time that applied to the service provider, equally apply to the service recipient.

Evaluation(E) is the measurement of effort, effectiveness and/or efficiency of intent of the service provider and service recipient.

Effort refers to assessment of program inputs, e.g., activity, money, staff, time and commitment necessary. Effort is not a measurement of outcome, it merely measures the input of activity.

Effectiveness is a measurement of the degree to which objectives and goals have been reached in a given time or stage of program planning or program implementation.⁴¹

Efficiency is a measurement of ratio between effort and effectiveness. It is the means with which to accomplish specific goals and objectives with the minimum use of resources, e.g., time, money, workers, energy, etc.⁴²

Administrative Accountability

If we wish to simplify this conceptualization, we could eliminate the recipient of service(Ic) involvement, and assume that clients must be involved in any social work activity. Thus, the conceptualization would be: $A=f(I+E)$. Here we are only holding the provider of service accountable in terms of intent: goals, objectives, resource allocation and time. A problem here is that this statement of accountability excludes the client system from involvement. This very issue of whether clients should be involved in the accountability process has divided some writers of accountability. Obviously this model lends itself more readily to the research design, political process and to many management

theories*⁴³

Application

Either formulation of accountability presented, we believe, can be applied in diverse settings and on different levels. It can be applied in settings ranging from mental health clinics dealing with psychotic patients, court programs working with probation and parole, family counseling services, community organization programs and traditional casework agencies. The concepts would equally apply for private and public agencies. They can also be applied from front-line service providers to supervisors to administrators to funding sources.

Space does not permit a full application of the formulations presented. A brief illustration of what the application may look like may be helpful. Table I is an example of one administrative accountability system applied at several levels of child abuse program. It shows the accountability relationship among various levels of service providers; it shows a relationship between the elements of intent-goals, objectives, resource allocation, and time--and it suggests some measurement instruments for evaluation.

The first half of Table I illustrates a close relationship between the goals of the funding source, the agency's top administration, middle management and the front-line service providers. It also specifies a relationship between goals and objectives: as stated previously, objectives are micro steps to be taken which will lead to the goal, or very close to it. Note that one of the objectives in all of the levels of accountability is concerned with some aspect of a research design. The column resource allocation addresses both tangible and intangible resources needed to reach specific objectives. A fuller illustration of this application would state other resource allocations required to reach a single objective. It should be pointed out that resource allocation is a difficult element to partialize since it requires tangible and intangible resources.

*A serious problem, and there may be many more, with both of the above formulations of accountability is that they do not account or provide for externalities, that is, unintended consequences, e.g., withdrawal of funds, conflict among Ip and Ic unrelated to task, etc. Some researchers do, however, include externalities when evaluating effectiveness.⁴⁴

A-6(1+E)

TABLE I
Administrative Accountability System: Child Abuse Program
INTENT EVALUATION

Accountability Relationship	Goals	Objectives	Resource	Time*	Effort	Effectiveness	Efficiency
Funding Source to Agency Administrators	To protect physical and mental health of children in jeopardy and to assist parents in parenting role	1) Conduct research in the causes of child abuse neglect 2) Maintain a clearing house on all programs 3) Assist in the development of treatment programs	1) Provide research and treatment funds 2) Monitor all funded programs 3) Provide technical assistance	4 yrs. 1 yr.	1) Accounting audit 2) Documentation of tech. asst. provided	Research Survey	Benefit Cost Analysis
Agency's Top Administrator to Middle Management	Alter behavior of abusing and neglecting parent, and provide new educational and vocational opportunities	1) Test specific theory of child abuse and neglect 2) Develop clients skills to deal with crisis situations 3) Develop informal helping systems 4) Identify vocational interests and skills 5) Hire competent staff	1) Commitment to research 2) Provide staff development and training program 3) Community relations and programs promotion 4) Secure employment resources	2 yrs. 1 yr. 6 mos. 3 mos. 1 mo.	1) Annual reports 2) Case studies 3) Cases served	Accounting Audit Survey	Benefit Cost Analysis
Middle Management to Front-Line Service Providers	Provide qualitative services to all clients	1) Develop proficiency in research methodology 2) Develop effective supervisory system 3) Develop staff development programs in crisis treatment 4) Secure needed services for clients	1) Keep abreast of profession developments 2) Secure top consultation services 3) Remain sensitive to client needs	1 yr. 8 mos. 2 mos. 4 mos.	1) Supervisory conferences 2) Periodic need assessment 3) Case records	Operations Research Outcome Studies	Cost Auditing Operations Research
Front-Line Service Providers to Clients	Help clients cope with crisis situations and identify vocational interests	1) Understand experimental research design 2) Establish an honest relationship 3) Encourage self-exploration 4) Train parents in new parent roles 5) Vocational and educational counseling	1) Provide Referrals 2) Search for Clients 3) Develop empathy for clients situation	3 mos. 2 mos. 2 mos. 6 mos. 4 mos.	1) Case reporting: process and task accomplishments 2) Case reporting: Attitudinal Studies Survey 3) Case reporting: Reduction in child abuse behavior	Cost Outcome Study	

Too often the mistake is made of identifying mainly tangible resources, while neglecting intangible ones, i.e., motivation, empathy, enthusiasm. The time column indicates the time required to reach specific objectives and goals.

The second half of Table I identifies some measurements available to evaluate the activities and results of goals and objectives. It is important that more than one measuring technique be used, since programs can be effective but inefficient as well as ineffective but efficient. Having both kinds of measurements are a more reliable indicator of outcomes.

CONCLUSION

The described formulation is crude and needs to be adapted and modified to specific situations and practitioners. However, preliminary experimentation and evaluation of the model has proven it to be helpful in thinking through and planning a given program. It seems to be especially helpful in preparing programs for funding, again with personal and situational modification.

Finally, we have dealt in this paper with those factors directly within the system of human services, and the importance of developing systems of accountability. Beyond the scope of this paper, and equally as important, is the development of systems of accountability which includes those factors less directly involved in human service practice yet intricately related to the development and maintenance of human services, i.e., government and business.

REFERENCES

1. Reed Henderson and Barbara Shore, "Accountability for What and to Who?", Social Work, Vol. 19, (July, 1974), pp. 387-88.
2. Jerry Turem, "The Call for a Management Stance", Social Work, Vol. 19, (September, 1974), pp. 615-623.
3. Frederic W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management, (New York: Harper and Row, 1911).
4. Robert Haveman, and Julius Margolis, (eds.), Public Expenditures and Policy Analysis, (Chicago: Markham Publishing Company, 1971), pp. 1, 3.
5. William Gorham, "Allocating Federal Resources Among Competing Social Needs," Indicators, (August, 1966), pp. 1-11.
6. William Gorham, "Notes of a Practioner," The Public Interest, 8, (Summer, 1967), p.7.
7. Alvin Schorr, "Mirror, Mirror on the Wall," Social Work, 10, (July, 1965), pp. 112-113.
8. Government Publication, "The Context of GOSSS," pp. 1-3, 1-4.
9. Ibid, pp. 1-5, 1-6.
10. Government document listings for 1974: order nos. PB 235 632/7GA and PB 236 913/OGA.
11. Scott Briar, "The Age of Accountability," Social Work, 18, (January, 1973), pp. 2, 114.
12. Aaron Wildavsky, "The Political Economy of Efficiency," The Public Interest, 8, (Summer, 1967), p.48.
13. George Hoshino, op. cit., p. 378.
14. Harold Richman and Elizabeth Smith, "Accountability: A View of Federal Policy," Social Work in the New Age of Accountability, (Seattle, Washington: University of Washington, 1973), p. 18.
15. Ibid, p. 15.

16. Emmanuel Tropp, "Expectation, Performance and Accountability," Social Work, Vol. 19, (March, 1974), p. 141.
17. Scott Briar, op. cit., p. 2.
18. Alfred Kadushin, "Social Work in the New Age of Accountability: Procedures and Problems in Program Evaluation," Social Work in the New Age of Accountability, (Seattle: Washington, University of Washington, 1973).
19. E. Newman and J. Turem, op. cit., pp. 12-13.
20. Jerry Turem, op. cit., p. 616.
21. Charles Morris, "Community Social Services: Panic or Panacea?", Washington Association of Social Welfare Conference, 1975, p.2.
22. Ibid, p. 2.
23. Ibid, p. 5.
24. Ibid, p. 3.
25. Ibid, p. 3-4.
26. Alfred Kadushin, op. cit., p. 74.
27. E. Newman and J. Turem, op. cit., p. 13.
28. Ibid, p. 20.
29. George Hoshino, op. cit., p. 381.
30. Alfred Kadushin, op. cit., p. 87.
31. Ibid, p. 88.
32. Ibid, p. 89.
33. Joel Fischer, "Does Anything Work?", Paper presented at the Council on Social Work Education Annual Meeting, (February, 1976), p. 38.
34. See David Gil, Unraveling Social Policy: Theory, Analysis, and Political Action Toward Social Equality, (Cambridge, Mass.: Schenkman Publishing Company, 1973).

35. Gordon Brown, The Multi-Problem Dilemma, (Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, 1968).
36. Elizabeth Tuttle, Narrative Report of the Special ADC Project, January, 1960 - August, 1962, (Cleveland: Cayahoga County Welfare Department, January, 1963).
37. Joel Fischer, "Does Anything Work?", p. 33.
38. C. Thomas Cruthird, "Management Should be Accountable, Too," Social Work, Vol. 21, (May, 1976), p. 179.
39. Reed Henderson and Barbara Shore, op. cit., p. 387.
40. Marvin Rosenberg and Ralph Brody, "The Threat or Challenge of Accountability," Social Work, Vol. 19, (May, 1974), p. 346.
41. Tony Tripodi, Phillip Fellin, and Irwin Epstein, Social Program Evaluation: Guidelines for Health, Education and Welfare Administrators, (Illinois: Peacock Publishing, 1971), pp. 47-49.
42. Ibid, pp. 41-60.
43. See Jerry Turem, "The Call for a Management Stance," op. cit.; Murray Gruber, "Total Administration," Social Work, Vol. 19, (September, 1974), pp. 625-636; and Charles Glisson, "The Accountability Controversy," Social Work, Vol. 20, (September, 1975), pp. 417-49.
44. Op. cit., p. 47.