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**THE USE OF COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION FOR IMPROVING
FACULTY CAPABILITY IN FORMULATING LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

City University of New York

Ph.D. 1982

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THE USE OF COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION FOR IMPROVING
FACULTY CAPABILITY IN FORMULATING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

by

RAFAEL ZAMBRANA

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty
in Social Welfare in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy,
The City University of New York.

1982

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This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Social Welfare in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Abstract

THE USE OF COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION FOR IMPROVING FACULTY CAPABILITY IN FORMULATING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

by

RAFAEL ZAMBRANA

Adviser: Professor Harold E. Lewis

In this dissertation, the author has made use of competency-based education to bring to work together a group of social work faculty in order to develop common student expectations. A workshop format was utilized to inform participants on the basics of the profession and to further a uniform objective orientation. The process used to reach agreement on learning outcomes is presented as a model that can be tried in other schools. Although the model recognizes that consensus on very specific learning objectives is difficult to reach, it proposes an alternative to operationally define the course objectives with those learning objectives which the faculty must develop in their daily work. This dissertation suggests that specific objectives, once developed, can be used as a basis for further discussion on the issue of preparation for practice.

The dissertation proposes a technique for measuring faculty improvement in the variable of interest by utilizing

Robert Mager's criteria for designing behavioral objectives. It demonstrates the use of this technique in assessing prior and on-going capability by generating performance indicators which are used to compare individual and group differences.

The report presents common learning objectives for core courses which are normally offered in most social work sequences and urges the profession to encourage the development of more specific objectives around them. It highlights the central importance of the course objectives in relation to curriculum content and the evaluation of students' performance. Its findings suggest some association between the formulation of clear, communicable learning objectives and the ratings that students give to the faculty.

The dissertation proposes a method to deal with variations in individual abilities to write students' expectations and strongly advocates the use of course objectives as standards for selecting course content and accountability of teachers and students. It recognizes the potential of competency-based education, not solely as an instructional technique, but as an approach for enhancing faculty development and curriculum improvement.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to acknowledge the cooperation of the administration of Medgar Evers College of the City University of New York for their support of this project and their interest in its outcomes. Special thanks goes to those persons in the College who contributed in many ways to the quality and the professional integrity of this work. Those faculty who participated in this process are to be commended for their professional behavior and dedication to the purpose of this program.

Recognition goes to my wife, Laura, and my daughter, Daphne, who sacrificed their leisure time and desire to be with me during the many hours and months which were required for this work.

Special debt goes to Dean Harold Lewis, my Mentor and doctoral committee Chairman, who patiently went over my many drafts raising important issues and correcting my "cultural English" on many occasions. His suggestions, direction, and professional insights helped me tremendously. The professional development that I have experienced in my interactions with Dean Lewis will take more pages than those in this dissertation to adequately describe.

Sincere thanks go to Drs. Phillip Stander and Jesse Smith, my other two doctoral committee members, who provided

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A note of gratitude is in order for Ms. Inez Fields and Ms. Michele Williams as well, as many others who typed the many preliminary drafts of this manuscript.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Introduction

This report describes a pilot demonstration project which sought to improve an undergraduate concentration in social work education through the use of a competency-based approach to curriculum development. Faculty workshops provided the structure for orienting a group of social work educators to the use of the competency-based format, assisting them in jointly formulating objectives. The process enabled the instructors to develop their own understanding of the profession, its goals and purposes, and to agree on common core curricular expectations which could be used to evaluate student performance.

In social work education, what students should master at every level of the educational continuum has always been the subject of continuous debate. There is currently limited agreement on the competencies that social work educators should be educating for in each level of the continuum. Although The Standards for Social Service Manpower of 1973 purports to serve as a basis for the identification of competence at differential levels, the document has been criticized as

inadequate to meet this purpose.¹ This lack of agreement on objectives has serious implications for the social work educator.

Social work class and field faculty, who are teaching students in these rapidly changing times, may need to explore new opportunities for enhancing their professional skills for the job. Professional development is a continuing process for the faculty member from the time he accepts his appointment at the University. Usually the person who joins the social work faculty has already established himself as a competent practitioner in his field. Part of his early faculty development involves making the role shift from practitioner to educator. As Margaret Hartford points out, "His own professional preparation as a student did not teach him these skills, nor did his practice develop competency in teaching . . . for the new teacher, faculty development is role induction and socialization to academia and to professional education."² This new role, as social work educator, requires that he learn to translate his understanding into ideas that can be taught. He must master a new set of skills in course

¹Thomas L. Briggs, "A Critique of the NASW Manpower Statement," in Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. II, No. 1 (Winter 1975) pp. 9-15; Charles Guzzetta, "The Curriculum Continuum," in Curriculum Building for the Continuum in Social Welfare Education, ed. Michael J. Austin, et al. (Tallahassee: State University System of Florida, 1972), pp. 19-32.

²Margaret E. Hartford, "Faculty Development: The Continuing Education of the Social Work Teacher," in Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. II, No. 2 (Spring 1975), p. 46.

planning, in teaching, and in creating class and/or field experiences that provide the opportunity for appropriate responses from students. He must also be able to manage the student-teacher transactions. This management task includes the production of teaching materials and the effective utilization of available resources.

Central to this new role is what Ivor K. Davis has called the teacher-manager's perspective. Davis categorizes the work of the teacher-manager into four functions: planning, organizing, leading and controlling. He describes "planning" as the work a teacher does to establish learning objectives. "Organizing" is the work a teacher does to arrange learning resources, so as to relate these objectives in the most effective, efficient, and economical way possible. "Leading" is the work a teacher does to motivate, encourage, and inspire his students, so that they will readily realize learning objectives. "Controlling" is the work a teacher does to determine whether his organizing and leading functions are successfully realizing the objectives which have been set.³

Thus, where objectives are uncertain, the management tasks of the teacher are unnecessarily complicated.

This dissertation focuses on the teacher's ability to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. That thrust required that particular attention be given to the

³Ivor K. Davis, Competency Based Learning: Technology, Management and Design (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973), p. 23.

planning function of the teacher-manager, although other functions needed to be explored as well. Course content, an element of organizing, had to be examined in order to establish its relationship with the course objectives. Special attention had to be given to the daily (lesson) objectives which by definition and purpose are included in two of the functions --planning and organizing. Lessons' objectives were examined in order to evaluate faculty growth. The area of motivation was explored as an item which might influence students' evaluation of the faculty. "Controlling," although an important variable, was not explored since the project's intention was not to prove or disprove the value of competency-based curricula in relation to students' learning, but to use the process of developing such a curriculum as a tool of administration to bring together a group of faculty to improve the curricula for which they were jointly responsible, while concurrently improving their own understanding of the content to be taught.

It is important to view this project as an activity in faculty development. Professor Hartford's characterization of faculty development as a process of "role induction and socialization to academia and to professional education" suggests a rationale for group and institutional activities that social work educators themselves can create to facilitate that process. This project addresses the problem of faculty development by focusing on the teacher's planning capability at one school. More specifically, it centers on the specific

task of spelling out clear educational objectives for the social work courses in a given program. Toward this end, it introduces a process which to our knowledge has not been tried before. It examines the social work faculty's capacity for effectively performing in that process; provides a philosophical underpinning, i.e., competency-based, for making the process comprehensive; examines faculty growth in relation to specific criteria; and measures some of its results in terms of students' evaluation of the faculty.

Four propositions helped shape the project's design:

1. Faculty development must be kept relevant to the emerging knowledge related to teaching in the human services. The focus must help the faculty member build on new knowledge so that he can use such knowledge in his teaching, in his work with colleagues, and in his contribution to the growth of the profession.⁴

2. Educational objectives at the course level require some degree of specificity in order to define that point in knowledge, skills and values on which teaching and learning should concentrate. Thus, the course objectives should be student-centered, activity focused, and content specific.⁵

⁴Loc. cit. Margaret E. Hartford, "Faculty Development: the Continuing Education of the Social Work Teacher" in Journal of Education for Social Work (Spring 1975) p. 48.

⁵Frank M. Lowenberg, "Questions About Curriculum Content & Organization," in Essentials for Undergraduate Social Welfare Teachers (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969), p. 1.

3. Course objectives that the faculty collectively have formulated and agreed upon can serve as standards to guide the planning and organizing functions of the teacher-manager. Consequently, more meaningful teaching activities can emerge and eventually some uniformity in the curriculum may be brought about.

4. Competency-based education, as a philosophical underpinning, has a potential for assisting faculty to work together and to foster agreement on students' competence. We shall discuss the extent to which these orienting prepositions guided the project's design in our concluding chapter.

This project evidences some limitations. It was not guided by any formal hypotheses, but by the propositions noted above. It is conceived mainly as an exploratory probe into a virtually unexamined, yet promising area of educational research. Most unfortunately, the data which were gathered are admittedly insufficient to formulate strong generalizations based on the project results. While the author would have preferred more complete data, a system to collect such data would have been so time consuming as to preclude the cooperation of persons involved in the proposal, and would have required the development of measurement tools beyond the capability of this author. Another limitation is in the size of the sample. The subject group from which the faculty growth data was obtained constitutes a deliberate incidental sample of a relatively small social work faculty in one college. Furthermore, the way in which faculty growth was measured,

though methodologically appropriate, cannot substitute for longitudinal studies which would have permitted repeated measures after the program. The latter design would allow for more incisive interpretations of the relationships investigated. However, the results obtained from the examinations of faculty growth and from the student comparisons of the faculty in the process with other faculty who were not in the program are sufficiently compelling to justify the use of this same approach in future studies.

This report is organized in the following manner: Chapter I introduces the reader to the purpose of the study and presents the background which motivated the professional project. Chapter II reviews the literature on competency-based education by presenting its nature and development in teacher's education, identifying its application in professional fields, and discussing the extent of its use in social work education. Chapter III describes the setting where the professional project was negotiated and implemented: the host college; the academic division which offers the social work sequence; and the people who played a significant role in making the project possible. Chapter IV describes the steps which were taken in the process, presents the competencies that were formulated and agreed upon by the social work faculty, and identifies some of the practice principles which emerged from the process. Chapter V summarizes and analyzes the data on faculty growth, compares these data with equivalent data of a contrast group, and makes comparisons of the

students' evaluation of the faculty in the program with students' evaluation of other instructors who were not in the program. Chapter VI concludes the report and makes appropriate recommendations to guide future studies.

Background

The negative findings of many outcome research studies in recent years have cast doubts on both the efficacy of social work interventions and on the competency of its practitioners.⁶ Criticism has been leveled at social work education for not producing graduates certified to possess demonstrated competence.⁷ Moreover, the number of social work education programs at the undergraduate level and the number of institutions offering one or a few courses in social work have been mushrooming since the 1960's⁸ Some of these conditions have been recognized by the profession early in its history. For example, the Hollis-Taylor Report of 1951

⁶Joel Fischer, "Is Casework Effective?" A Review, Social Work, Vol. 18, No. 1 (Jan. 1973), pp. 5-20; Ludwig Beismar, "Thirteen Evaluation Studies," in Evaluation of Social Interventions, Edward J. Mullen & James R. Dumpson, eds. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bassey, 1972), pp. 15-38; Joann Larsen & Dean H. Hepworth, "Skill Development Through Competency-Based Education," in Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 14 No. 1 (Winter 1978), pp. 73-81.

⁷Arthur L. Leader, "An Agency's View Toward Education for Practice," Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 7 No. 3 (Fall 1971), pp. 27-34; Scott Briar, "Effective Social Work Intervention in Direct Practice: Implications for Education," in Facing the Challenge, Scott Briar, et al. (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1973) pp. 17-30.

⁸Miriam M. Dinnerman, "Options in Social Work Manpower and Education," Social Work, Vol. 20 No. 5 (Sept 1975), pp. 348-351.

states, ". . . at its present stage of evolution the profession has no way of assuring the public that a worker occupying a social work position classified as professional has undergone a regimen of education required to qualify him as a professional social worker."⁹ At the undergraduate level the profession has responded to this concern in the last two decades. In 1961 the Council on Social Work Education issued its guiding statement, "Social Welfare Content in Undergraduate Education." In 1965, its board recognized that, "The Council had obligations to extend the range of its concerns more vigorously, both in principle and in practice, beyond its continuing core responsibility for the advancement of professional education to the broader scope of training and education to meet all social work manpower needs." Two years later, the Council issued a second edition of the guiding statement entitled Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare. This 1967 edition stipulates, "There is no single, overriding pattern that can meet the varying needs, interests and concerns of diverse educational institutions."¹⁰ This event influenced the National Association of Social Workers to issue

⁹ Ernest V. Hollis and Alice Taylor, Social Work Education in the United States (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 56.

¹⁰ Undergraduate Programs in Social Work: Guidelines to Curriculum Content, Field Instruction, and Organization (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1971), pp. 6-8.

Guidelines for Assessment of Professional Competence in Social Work.¹¹ The Council on Social Work Education Board of Directors in 1970 reaffirmed most of these efforts by voting to initiate standard settings for undergraduate programs that prepare for beginning practice in social work. These responses evidence the profession's willingness to set standards for its members and to have some mechanism for designating the individuals who are able to meet these norms.

In the fall of 1973 the National Association of Social Workers issued policy statement number four, Standards for Social Service Manpower, which represents the current official position of the professional association on manpower matters.¹² The "Standards" set forth a six level classification plan, two preprofessionals and four professionals. The two preprofessional levels are "the social service aide" and "the social service technician." Entry as social service aide is based on an assessment of the individual's maturity, life experiences, motivation, and skills required by the specific task or function. Entry to the social service technician level is based upon completion of a two-year education program in one of the social service areas. The four professional levels are "social worker," "graduate social worker,"

¹¹Committee on the Study of Competence, Guidelines to Curriculum Content, Field Instruction, and Organization (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1971), pp. 6-8.

¹²Standards for Social Service Manpower (Washington, D.C.: National Association for Social Workers, 1973).

"certified social worker," and "social worker fellow." Entry to those levels requires, respectively, a baccalaureate degree from an approved social work program, the completion of a master's degree, certification by the Academy of Certified Social Workers, and the completion of a doctoral program or its equivalence in terms of substantial practice.¹³ It appears that the "Standards" purports to equate competence with education and that the way to measure competence, at least in the first four levels, is by academic degrees achieved. A major weakness in this approach is that it places future practitioners in boxes based on labels obtained through formal academic programs and therefore represses use of the talent that different people bring to the service enterprise.¹⁴ Thus, in spite of this integrative effort of the profession and the work of individual scholars in the field,¹⁵ the issue of competence in social work remains cloudy or inadequately explored.

¹³Chauncey A. Alexander, "Implications of the NASW Standards for Social Service Manpower," in Journal of Education for Social Work Vol. 11, No. 1 (Winter 1975), p. 5, quoting Standards for Social Service Manpower (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Social Workers, 1973), pp. 4-6.

¹⁴Thomas L. Briggs considers this "the greatest weakness of this approach," Loc. cit. "A Critique of the NASW Manpower Statement," Journal of Education for Social Work (Winter 1975), p. 10.

¹⁵See for example Jerome Cohen, "The Nature of Competence in Social Work" in Personnel Information, Vol. 7, No. 1 (January 1964), pp. 26-28; Robert W. Pruser "Competence in Social Work Practice," Personnel Information, Vol. 7, No. 1 (January 1964), pp. 1, 23-26; Ruth I. Knee, "Competence in Social Work Practice," NASW News, Vol. 12, No. 4 (August 1967), pp. 15-18.

At best, what one finds are vague notions on the nature and elements of competence, explorations on qualitative components for assessing professional practice in social work, and strategies of assessment of competence. Although numerous responses appear to be quantitatively strong, one must also be mindful of the claims of those who find these efforts inadequate or ineffective in assisting the social work educator who seeks greater specificity regarding the attributes one should be educating for.¹⁶

Attention to the purposes and organization of education for social work dates back almost to the beginning of the first training programs established in social agencies. Certainly from the time this training moved into the universities the question of the relationship between the academic programs and the field of practice has received attention. Since the early 1930's, the issue of the nature of the curriculum in social work has been the subject of debate, with two clearly conflicting views. One view is represented by those who, like Chauncey Alexander, perceive the "standards" document as useful in the sense that it contains important clarifications for obtaining order regarding the manpower problems of the profession. The other view is that the "Standards" fail to identify levels of competence based on various aca-

¹⁶See for example, Thomas L. Briggs, loc cit. "A Critique of the NASW Manpower Statement," Winter 1975, p. 13.

demic preparations and other forms of certification.¹⁷

Competence has become an institutional issue in the social work profession. The National Association of Social Workers' Bylaws states that a major purpose of the organization is to establish principles and procedures for determining and certifying competence to practice. A sense of urgency was expressed by the 1962 Delegate Assembly in requesting a study of competence.¹⁸ The study was conducted over a five year period and released in 1968. However, in spite of this study, the profession is still facing the same basic questions: to define the nature of competence in its particular field and to establish a system for the profession to use in the designation of levels of competence for its practitioners.

The pressure for further definition of competence keeps mounting. Much of this pressure had come from groups that recognized the need for professional sanction and designation of advanced competence for those persons who are engaged in private practice. This pressure has shifted the profession's attention to the competence that is manifested by the MSW's in their respective practices. Currently, the pressure for further definition of levels of competence is coming from

¹⁷Ibid., Briggs' Thesis, for example, is that the document (The 1973 Standards) fails to identify levels of practice and to identify levels of competence based on various academic preparations and other forms of certification, p. 9.

¹⁸Committee on the Study of Competence, Guidelines for the Assessment of Professional Competence in Social Work (new York: National Association of Social Workers, 1968), p. iii.

both within and outside the profession.

It has been recognized that attempts to define and assess competence for social work practice are conditioned by conceptions of its nature. Even if a precise definition of social work practice is not yet available, some key descriptive statements about it must be made as explicit assumptions that underpin the consideration of competence. Gordon's statement of the requirements of a definition of social work practice provides some guidance in this direction. Gordon states, "Social work practice is interventive action directed to purposes and guided by values, knowledge, and techniques which are collectively unique, acknowledged by and identified with the social work profession."¹⁹ Gordon appears to suggest that the core elements that underlie competence include knowledge and understanding basic to the profession as a whole, internalized commitment to basic values and purposes and practice behavior that integrates knowledge, techniques and values in actual performance. Obviously, much more specification of these components will be necessary for any attempt to define and assess competence. This work, therefore, explores such questions as: Where in the curriculum development process can this required specificity be achieved? Who should be responsible for bringing about this specificity? Where should this process be initiated? What are the impli-

¹⁹William Ed. Gordon, "A Critique of Working Definition," Social Work, Vol. 7, No. 4 (October 1962), p. 11.

cations for the capability of those who are held responsible? Is there a set of criteria by which one can be guided? These are central concerns pursued in this project.

It appears that the point of departure on this search for specificity is in the learning objectives. Robert B. Howsam, in discussing the source of objectives states,

In a very real sense, it can be argued that everyone should be involved in the specification of objectives . . . contributions to program development should come from all who have any potential for input. Among the potential contributors are teachers . . . , administrators . . . , and resource persons in the community.²⁰

Frank W. Clark, in his report on the implementation process of the University of Calgary experience in competency-based education has addressed the issue of transition from general to specific objectives. In his words, "The transition from general to specific or behavioral objectives was difficult. First, faculty were unfamiliar with the concept and actual functioning of behavioral objectives in the curriculum. . . . Most of the faculty did not know how to write behavioral objectives."²¹

This project perceived the social work faculty as vital contributors to the curriculum development process. If the

²⁰W. Robert Houston and Robert B. Howsam, Competency-Based Teacher Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 21.

²¹Frank W. Clark, "The University of Calgary Experience: A Case Example," in Competency-Based Education for Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 170.

faculty is to contribute effectively, they must possess a functional capacity to formulate learning objectives in clear specific terms. The search for clarity and specificity in learning objectives was evident with the popularization of behavioral objectives in the 1960's.²² The behavioral objective appears to be essential in the process of formulating specific competencies at the teaching level. However, as Frank W. Clark found in the University of Calgary, and as this project affirmed, many social work faculty may not know how to write behavioral objectives.

It is axiomatic that effective education requires definite educational objectives. Similarly, curriculum building requires well-defined concepts of skills and competence.²³ The place of learning behaviors in these activities has been widely recognized. For instance, Kay Dea states, "Educational objectives require some degree of specificity and definite focus on goals rather than process . . . This means that they must explicitly describe those behaviors a student will be

²²For a resolution of conflicting claims concerning the effect of behavioral objectives see, Reginald F. Melton, "Resolution of Conflicting Claims Concerning the Effect of Behavioral Objectives on Student Learning," in Review of Education Research, Spring 1978, Vol. 48, No. 2, pp. 291-302.

²³Loc. cit., Standards for Social Service Manpower, 1972, p. 12.

capable of manifesting on completion of the program."²⁴
 Frank Lowenberg expresses a similar view in the statement:

Every instructor . . . must develop specific objectives for each of his courses. These objectives, if stated as student learning goals, will serve to guide in the selection of both content and learning experiences. Further they will be helpful testing (at the end of the course) whether the student has successfully mastered the content of and acquired the learning.²⁵

It should be noted that the above two authors emphasize "specific objectives." They both used the word "must" in their respective statements, which gives some sort of a normative connotation. Dea prescribes that the educational objective be descriptive of explicit student behavior. Lowenberg sees the specific objective as something that every instructor must develop for each of his courses. Implied in his statement is the proposition that if the objective is to guide in the selection of content and learning experience, they must be stated as learning goals from the perspective of the student. The Lowenberg quote suggests, further, that a learning objective which is so stated will help in testing the student's achievement at the end of the course. These assertions have implications for teachers' competence. If

²⁴Kay L. Dea, "Educational Objectives and Curricula for Social Work," in Undergraduate Social Work Education for Practice: A Report on Curriculum Content and Issues, ed., J. Glick (Syracuse, New York and Washington, D.C.: Syracuse University and U.S. Veterans Administration, 1971), p. 29.

²⁵Loc. cit., Frank M. Lowenberg, "Questions About Curriculum Content and Organization," in Essentials for Undergraduate Social Welfare Teachers, 1969, p.2.

the conditions found by Clark at the University of Calgary are typical of those that can be found elsewhere, then the call for specific objectives to be expressed in behavioral terms becomes more serious. This project explored means by which the social work educator's capability for formulating explicit behavioral objectives can be ascertained, and improved upon.

It will be assumed, for the purpose of this project, that a person's capacity to state explicit behavioral objectives is related to his capability to formulate specific competencies. This proposition seems to call for a radical new direction in the study of competence for differential levels. Should this new direction in the study of competence come from within or outside of the usual mode of thinking? Some authors have pointed to the need for a radical departure from the traditional mode. Charles Guzzetta, for instance, states the following:

Each component (level) in the continuum must be independent and furnish the graduate of that component with a legitimate occupational preparation. . . . Each component must have this sort of internal integrity while at the same time serving as a legitimate preparation or base for the next component. . . . The associate arts graduate . . . could not be the servant of, nor the aide to, the human service professional but would have responsibilities different from although related to those with other preparations. The separation often seen in continuum seems to suggest that only holders of advanced degree can be trusted with moral or ethical decisions. . . .

. . . Similarly, technical competence appropriately

belongs in each component with differences more a matter of kind than degree.²⁶

Professor Guzzetta's point approximates the view that stresses the uniqueness of the part, unlike the traditional approach whose emphasis is on the interrelation of the part to the whole. In other words, a subprogram in any social work method, irrespective of the level in which is taught, is complete and functionally integrated. What may differ is the intended purpose for which the program is offered.

A cursory examination of twenty-four social work course syllabi, prepared by various social work faculties since 1974 at one college, revealed that serious disparities existed in the choices that were made by such faculties in respect to students' learning. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that what different groups of students have learned in the same course have also been different. The implication is that these personal choices, made by the instructors at the course level, differentially affect the competencies which are expected from the students who had taken the same course.

Kay Dea's observations are relevant to this point. In "Issues, Problems, and Approaches to Curriculum Development," he states this proposition, "It is important that individual courses and curriculum units or parts relate to and support

²⁶ Charles Guzzetta, "The Curriculum Continuum," in Curriculum Building for the Continuum in Social Welfare Education, ed. Michael J. Austin, et al., (Tallahassee: State University System of Florida, 1972), pp. 22-23.

each other."²⁷ Dea's dictum presupposes a sensible and organized approach to the curriculum. Obviously, this is not the condition which has been revealed in the above examination. Moreover, he says, "I urge each one of you to critically assess and challenge the meaning of all educational objectives proposed for any program. Assume that they need clarification and specification if they are to serve a meaningful purpose in your work."²⁸

This project sought to operationalize Dea's suggestions by holding the program faculty collectively responsible for identifying the competencies that every course should be focusing on. These competencies that are collectively developed, after having been agreed upon, can serve as standards for determining what the students who have taken a given course will be able to do. Furthermore, these standards will be instrumental in guiding the further development of competencies with greater specificity at the teaching level.

There are two kinds of learning objectives that faculty persons who are engaged in teaching courses most frequently generate. These are the course objectives and the daily objectives. The course objective may still have to be general and broad, although more specific than the program objective.

²⁷Kay L. Dea, "Issues, Problems and Approaches to Curriculum Development," in Essentials for Undergraduate Social Welfare Teachers (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969), p. 8.

²⁸Ibid., Dea, 1969, p. 10.

Their primary function is to guide, in a general way, the learning which must occur within the broad units of the course content. The daily objectives, on the other hand, must be related to and supportive of the course objective. In other words, it is through a set of daily objectives that the course objectives gain their operational definitions.

This project will explore the viability of competency-based objectives in bringing about this defining process. This can be done when one considers that in a competency-based approach, the course objective takes the form of a major competency-based area and the daily objectives are the appropriate vehicle to give greater specificity to the students' competencies. In achieving this end, the social work faculty may have to be directed to define the course objectives throughout their teaching. In this sense, the curriculum development role of the social work educator becomes a focal point in the process of educating for competence. Teaching for competence, obviously, will require some changes in the attitudes and planning behaviors of the social work faculty. The challenge confronted in this project was in how to do it.

It was anticipated that curriculum development would require extensive time and built-in administrative structures to assure that collaboration occurred between all faculty members involved in the total program. The process that is described in this project required that all faculty persons involved in the social work component of the degree program

collaborate in the planning of the broad competency areas that were selected for each course. It further required that the optimal degree of collaboration be manifested in faculty consensus on these competencies. Moreover, the faculty person who taught a course had to assume full responsibility for independently giving more specificity to those, rather general, competency-based areas in the form of daily learning objectives. Viewed this way, it can be said that the process was incremental.

It will be contended throughout this report that social work educators must be prepared to share some of the burden that has been placed upon the profession in respect to the competencies that should be acquired by the future social work practitioner. This burden must be assumed at the teaching level. Social work educators may begin by initiating processes that are more responsive to the concerns and the pressures that have been placed upon the profession. Included in these pressures is the role of educators as contributors to a situation that should clearly indicate to the students what is expected of them and what specific competencies they should have mastered as a result of the educational program. This role, in part, will require a well organized feedback mechanism with capability for giving periodic information to the student on the progress he has been making. This process can be initiated at the course level and gradually incorporated into the program and degree levels. The data which are generated out of this process may be appro-

priately stored and retrieved as useful data bases for future studies on competence at differential levels.

In summary, this project pursues a long-standing interest in professional education for social work, the development of student competence to practice at various levels of skill. Conflicting views held by leading professional scholars about a competency-based approach to curriculum design sharpens the issue that usher in efforts to obtain agreement in appropriate skills for different levels of professional practice. The project utilizes the process whereby competency-based objectives are developed by a faculty, teaching in one undergraduate social work program, to raise their understanding of course goals and content and, concurrently, agreeing upon a uniform core curriculum that would inform course content taught in similar courses by different teachers. Thus, the project provides some guidance to a more fruitful approach to the resolution of some of the issues associated with the differential skills and levels of the practice debate.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The Nature of Competency-Based Education

Learning, as defined in Psychology, "implies a change in behavior or a behavior potential as a result of experiences."¹ The process of learning is complemented with the process of teaching. Teaching approaches are categorized into three prevailing teaching methods: the cognitive, the behavioral, and the humanistic. Each method differs from the others in relation to the emphasis that is given to the planning phase. The cognitive method is concerned with the communication of information. Behavioral methods are based on the principle of operant conditioning and are concerned with the changing of the behavior of students. Humanistic teaching methods are concerned with the experience, emotional life, and goals of the students. All the steps involved in a humanistic teaching method become student-centered rather than teacher-centered.

In spite of the separation of teaching methods, Holland has observed that most teachers today are combining these three methods. An example of the efforts to combine teaching

¹Morris K. Holland, Psychology: An Introduction to Human Behavior (Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath & Co., 1978), p. 78.

methods is competency-based education. Many of the ideas, currently incorporated in competency-based programs, are ideas that educators have supported over the years in different forms and under different labels. This fact does not minimize their importance; rather, it makes them all the more important.

An Overview

Since the decade of the sixties to the present, public attention has been increasingly focusing on the schools and their difficulties in providing adequate education for all segments of the nation's population. The responsibility to fulfill educational expectations ultimately falls upon the teachers. It is they who are expected to help develop an adequate foundation for learning which will be used by the students throughout their lives. In an attempt to improve education and assist teachers to meet society's rapidly changing needs, educators are engaged in continual search for alternative means to improve students' competence.

The concept of competency-based teacher education emerged in the latter part of the sixties as one alternative way to prepare teachers and gradually spread to the preparation of practitioners in other human service professions since the early seventies. In spite of these momentums, its terminology is a focus of disagreement. Some educators refer to programs as "performance-based," others call them "competency-

based."² Since the purpose of this chapter is to look at the developments in competency-based programs and not to raise issues beyond the scope of that analysis, the adjective "competency-based" will be used to refer to all program efforts. The general definition selected to identify a competency-based program will be that of Cooper and Weber:

A competency-based teacher education program is a program in which the competencies to be acquired by the student and the criteria to be applied in assessing the competency of the student are made explicit and the student is held accountable for meeting those criteria. . . .³

This definition has lead many reporters to see competency-based education as a movement. Like every other movement competency-based education has its leas and criticisms. Some of the promising leas currently receiving new or renewed emphasis in competency-based programs are:

1. Sharper focus on objectives: i.e. learning objectives are determined in advance, made explicit, and used as a basis for evaluating performance.
2. Individualization of the responsibility for learning: i.e. responsibility is shifted from the teacher to the indi-

²"A thorough analysis of the distinction between the two terms lends itself to a study of its own." Stanley Elam, Performance-Based Teacher Education, What is the State of the Art? (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1971).

³James M. Cooper & Wilford A. Weber, A Competency-Based Systems Approach to Teacher Education, Chapter 1, Vol. II (n.d. typewritten), quoted in Performance-Based Teacher Education Programs (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oct. 1972), pp. 2-4.

vidual learner.

3. More attention to individual differences: i.e. learners may select different learning experiences and choose alternative routes to achieve the stated objectives.

4. Individual assessment and feedback: i.e. as early as possible and on a continuing basis, the prospective practitioner is provided feedback concerning his performance as he works toward attaining each objective.

5. More effective integration of theory and practice: i.e. practice experience, either in simulation or real life situations, tend to be closely related to the theory being studied; they are incorporated into the program at the most opportune time.

6. Evaluation focuses not only on what the learner knows, but also on how he performs in actual situations: i.e. objectives are typically stated as performance criteria, providing a more effective basis for evaluation.

7. Changes in the role of the teacher: i.e. the teacher is viewed more as an enabler of learning than a dispenser of knowledge.

8. Satisfaction with program: i.e. both students and teachers appear to have a high degree of satisfaction with the preparation programs. Students have ample opportunity to provide inputs that will modify programs, and faculty members consider such inputs seriously. Also, students generally seem highly motivated to pursue learning activities that will

help them attain stated objectives.⁴

In spite of the strength of its leas, competency-based education has raised issues and has invited criticisms. The issues and criticisms raised have been highlighted into six areas:

1. The "sum of the parts" does not always equal the whole, and thus, the mere fact that students are able to demonstrate competence in isolation does not guarantee success in the classroom.

2. Because the competency-based program uses a systematic approach as one of its foundations, it is often mechanistic and dehumanizing.

3. A competency-based program claims individualization, and yet each student is expected to display the same competencies; this claim does not seem consistent.

4. Trivial behaviors are those most easily operationalized; the real important aspects of teacher education may be overlooked.

5. We really know so little about how children learn that it seems ridiculous to base a program on competencies that may not be the appropriate ones.

6. The really important areas of teaching are in the affective domain, and these are very difficult to categorize

⁴For more details see, Karl Massanari "AACTE Explores Performance-Based Teacher Education," AACTE Bulletin, No. 24, March 1971.

and measure.⁵

As Allen A. Schmieder reports, Robert Arends, Robert Elmes, and John A. Masla of the Multistates Consortium on Performance-Based Teacher Education have compiled answers to the six most frequently asked questions and criticisms of the competency-based education movement (PBTE Series No. 9, p. 24). The answers that they have developed to those questions represent a logical set of counter-arguments designed to minimize the criticisms against competency-based education.

In spite of controversies, competency-based education has been viewed as a new movement in American education and, as such, impacts upon all the educational systems of our society. This is evidenced by the number of articles appearing on the subject as well as by the number of states which are responding to the movement. In August, 1972, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education published its second and annotated bibliography on competency-based teacher education. With 189 citations, this new version contained nearly twice the number of entries as the first one. The categories under which the entries were arranged have been expanded to include the following: The nature of performance-based education (21 citations); programs (19 citations); kinds of performance (30 citations); modules (7 citations);

⁵These six areas were taken directly from a set of questions which were formulated by Allen A. Schmieder, Competency-Based Education: The State of Scene, PBTE Series No. 9, (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, February 1973), pp. 24-26.

the improvement of teacher performance (37 citations); the assessment of teacher performance (44 citations); performance-based teacher certification (20 citations); and attitudes of professional organizations (7 citations).

Time Magazine in its February 1977 issue states,

Minimal competency testing has become the hottest new catch phrase in public education. It is reasonable to assume that notions of minimal competence have their place in today's public expectation. Minimal competency requires students to pass proficiency exams, in addition to course work, in order to graduate.⁶

This same source notes that six states, California, Florida, Maryland, New Jersey, Virginia, and Washington have enacted minimal competency laws. It further mentions that in ten more states, boards of education have decreed minimal competency on their own authority, and that boards of over a dozen states are on the verge of doing so. A similar observation was made by Allen A. Schmieder in 1973. According to Schmieder, ". . . in thirty-two states either their legislature have passed minimal competency-based laws or their state boards of education have circulated guidelines for competency-based education." He also accounts for eighteen states as "studying the concept."⁷

From these observations, one can conclude that the

⁶"How Much Must a Student Master?" in Time, February 28, 1977, p. 74.

⁷See Appendix A, "The State of the States," in Competency-Based Education: The State of the Scene, PBTE Series No. 9 (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, February, 1973), pp. 31-48.

majority of the states have begun to explore the possibility of certification of teachers based on performance as well as on education and knowledge. Generally, certification of teachers is granted upon completion of a state-approved teacher education program or upon completion of certain courses with a particular number of credits as indicated by a college transcript. This procedure is assumed by some persons to ". . . guarantee that teachers and administrators are properly prepared . . ." ⁸ but it does not specify explicitly what competencies have been mastered. It is believed that performance objectives can provide minimal specifications for the development of teacher competence.

Other sources, too, have provided impetus to the competency-based movement. The United States Office of Education (USOE) has encouraged competency-based education through funding. Around 1966, the U.S. Office of Education (National Center for Educational Research and Development) awarded ten grants to colleges and universities to develop model training programs for preparatory teachers. An examination of those models reveals a set of important characteristics:

- a. The knowledge and skills to be learned were broken into small bits called competencies or behavior to be learned.
- b. Modularization of instructions was attempted, i.e.,

⁸ Lucien B. Kinney, Certification in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 4.

most of the approaches attempted to package a particular unit of instruction to accomplish a particular set of objectives.

c. Evaluation and feedback were provided. Theoretically, the record of each student's progress through the modules would demonstrate that the competencies were achieved.

d. The attempt at personalization manifest itself in allowing students to select the areas in which each wanted to be generally competent.

e. Most of the models included a field experience requiring an internship or practice under supervision. This setting allowed for a check on the level of competencies and for the participation of practicing teachers as clinicians and evaluators of trainee competencies.⁹

Another organization which has been contributing to the competency-based movements is the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). In 1970, this association developed standards that require a faculty to define the professional roles of the teachers and to design preparatory programs based on those roles. Judgements about the quality of the programs, the standards indicated, were to be in terms of the performance objectives implied in those roles. "The ultimate criterion for judging a teacher education program is whether it produces competent graduates who

⁹Paper presented by the author to the staff of the FIPSE project at Medgar Evers College on February 1977 (Mimeographed), p. 1.

enter the profession and perform effectively."¹⁰

In 1972, Elfenbein published a study in which she described seventeen competency-based programs being carried out by thirteen universities. The universities offering these programs were: Livingston University (Alabama), Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University (Florida), University of Georgia (Georgia), College of Saint Scholastica (Minnesota), State University College (Buffalo, New York), Teachers College, Columbia University (New York), University of Texas (El Paso, Texas), Brigham Young University (Utah), University of Utah (Salt Lake City, Utah), Weber State College (Ogden, Utah), Western Washington State College (Bellingham, Washington), and the University of Washington (Seattle, Washington).¹¹

The financing of the competency-based education programs came from a variety of sources: four of these universities were financed by the United States Office of Education; three of them were financed by the states; and the remaining programs were financed by the regular budgets of the university or college. It is apparent that financial support for competency-based programs have been drawn from many sources.

¹⁰ACCTE, Recommended Standards for Teacher Education: The Accreditation of Basic Advanced Preparation Programs for Professional School Personnel (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1970), p. 12.

¹¹Iris M. Elfenbein, Performance-Based Teacher Education Programs: A Comparative Description, PBTE Series No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, October 1972), pp. 8-10.

Some of the observations that have been made in the study of these programs are worth mentioning. The rationale of several of the programs indicated a desire to train teachers competent to work with minority groups. Many of the programs envisioned schools with ungraded classes and individualized instruction. Basic to effective communication of purpose and objective is the clarity of conceptualization of the program and its product through the teacher. However as Elfenbein observed, "Clarity and integration were not always apparent in the conceptualization of the teacher, although they were more frequent in the conceptualization of the context, the school setting" (see p. 121). There was willingness in many segments of the education community to consider competency-based approaches because of existing dissatisfaction with the acknowledged discrepancy between theory and practice. In answer to public demands for better teachers, many have found this approach to education innovative, exciting, and worth trying. Initiators of competency-based programs were in most cases internal agents, faculty members who had a direct, pre-existing relationship with powerful college administrators, and who also had secured tenure. External agents, the USOE, and various state education departments, have also influenced the initiation of competency-based programs through financial support given to programs and components whose stated goals were an exploration and development of competency-based teacher education. Simultaneously, federal, state, and local governmental bodies increased their support for education, par-

ticularly for ethnic and economic-minority education which in many instances proved to be competency-based in nature.

Thus, competency-based programs have offered new approaches to educational planning, organizing, and structuring in teacher education. Competency-based programs have been regarded as vehicles of change. By virtue of their emphasis on field activities, which require a continuum of preparation, they have been viewed as a potential for providing a bridge between pre- and in-service teacher education. Instructional strategies have been designed to utilize learning theory and psychological principles. Through modularization and counseling, students were encouraged to learn in their own modes and to develop in their own styles. Through role integration, the pre-service teacher gained comprehensive perception of teaching problems. With the integration of traditional content and new strategies, it was thought that students would become independent and capable of making decisions for themselves and the program.

Competency-Based Approaches in Other Professions

What was useful for the education profession has also been tried in other professions. Competency-based training programs offer an alternative to professional training supported by competency-based models. These models have been designed to provide and enhance a multitude of skills which the profession identifies as desirable to make the professional a competent practitioner and effective change agent. The vehicle for change offered by competency-based teacher

education to the teaching profession need not be exclusive to that profession. Rather, the approach has offered a potential to all professions.

John H. Strange, Dean of the Public Administration School at the University of Boston, has identified a three dimensional approach to a competency-based program in public administration. In his words,

To develop a competence-based curriculum one must be prepared to address three challenges: to define expected competencies in sufficient detail to be understood by students, faculty and employers; to gain acceptance by all concerned, of the level of mastery or sophistication which constitutes competency; and to develop principles and mechanisms to evaluate the performance of students demonstrating these competencies. Assuredly this last step offers a most critical challenge, for without equitable and comprehensive methods of evaluation the competency-based curriculum readily transforms into the more easily administered¹² smorgasboard of courses, grades and credits.

Dr. Paul S. Pottinger, consultant to competency-based programs expands on Strange's first dimension by suggesting four "corollaries" that in his opinion are critical to the identification and definition of competencies. In corollary one, Dr. Pottinger prescribes, "new competencies must be identified and operationally defined." To operationally define, according to Pottinger, is to say what behaviors will be taken in evidence that a student has a given ability. The meanings of the ability, for operational purposes, become the criteria

¹²Paul S. Pottinger, Comments and Guidelines for Research in Competency-Based Identification (Mimeographed, June 1975), Copyrighted by the University of Syracuse Research Corporation, pp. 6-12.

by which the ability is verified. Corollary two states, "new competencies should have general significance to a wide variety of career and life outcomes. Therefore, in applying corollary two, one is cautioned against problems of reductionism and of action orientations." In corollary three, Pottinger says, "new competency definitions and measures developed for their assessment should be easy for faculty and students to comprehend and view as meaningful and useful." The fourth corollary concludes the set by asserting, "competencies should be empirically linked to external realities."¹³ The efforts of Strange and Pottinger at the College of Public Service has produced a competency-based model for non-traditional students who are currently employed in public service jobs.

Students enter the program pursuant to an examination of their background which in the opinion of college authorities is their way of determining "college readiness." Once the student is admitted into the program, he attends a series of nine credit seminars through which he is sensitized into the program and provided with a set of basic skills for preparing a portfolio on competencies he has already mastered in work and life experiences. The prepared portfolio is evaluated by a team of three faculty assessors who recommend the number of credits to be awarded based on consensus. There-

¹³Paul S. Pottinger, Comments and Guidelines for Research in Competency-Based Identification (Mimeographed, June 1975), Copyrighted by the University of Syracuse Research Corporation, pp. 6-12.

after, the student selects the certificates (competency areas) that he would pursue in the program. At this stage the student begins to work at his own pace.¹⁴

A major breakthrough in applying competency-based approaches to liberal arts education was made by the faculty at Alverno College in Wisconsin. The Alverno model is based on a matrix of eight competencies, each one broken down into six levels of complexities. The following two excerpts taken from the Alverno program brochure capture the essence of its strategy.

The educational process at Alverno College at this time represents our decision to make explicit, in terms of demonstrably achieved competencies, the definitions of the degree we award . . . (p. 1)

In order to integrate into a developmental educational experience these three strategies components--management of change (process), academic experience (content), and professional direction (motivation)--we identified as our core learning strategy--Competency-Based Learning.¹⁵ (p. 2)

The Alverno model identifies eight competencies or abilities that its faculty see as essential to the woman of today in order to function both personally and professionally. These eight areas are: (1) Develop effective communication skill, (2) Sharpen analytical capabilities, (3) Develop workable problem solving skill, (4) Develop facility in making independent value judgements and independent decisions, (5) Develop facility for social interaction, (6) Achieve

¹⁴This information was obtained by the author from program staff at a field visit he made to the program in 1977.

¹⁵Alverno College Brochurs, Competence-Based Learning at Alverno College (Wisconsin: Alverno College, n.d.), pp. 1-2.

understanding of the relationship of the individual and the environment, (7) Develop awareness and understanding of the world in which the individual lives, and (8) Develop knowledge, understanding and responsiveness to the arts and the humanities. Each of the competencies are defined functionally, that is, each as a development of six levels. Within each competence the levels represent progressive complexity. The identification of levels within each competence is a means by which they make the education process more viable. It enables the teacher to help the student pace herself and sense accomplishments as something progressive rather than absolute.

Other fully designed competency-based curricula are the degree programs of Western International University with headquarters at Phoenix, Arizona. Western International announces its offerings as "a competency-based curriculum which places emphasis on learning outcomes." The faculty at Western developed "a general curriculum competencies with every student who graduates with a Bachelor's degree must demonstrate." The general competencies fall in seven areas: (1) communication, (2) world cultures, (3) inter-personal relations, (4) community services, (5) self knowledge, (6) science, technology, and environmental change, and (7) personal competence. They have designed fifteen courses in the general curriculum for providing the students with the means for acquiring the general competencies.

In addition, Western International has applied competency-

based approaches to specialized curriculum areas. For instance, it offers two undergraduate competency-based degrees in fields of Business Administration. It has expanded its competency-based curriculum effort to include four graduate programs in Business Administration. Western International utilizes the competency-based approach to combine general business courses and arts and science with specialized courses to form an interdisciplinary career preparation in the fields of transportation, travel and tourism. It also applies competency-based approaches to the public administration field at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The competencies for each degree program are specified and the courses are designed to enable the student to achieve the competencies that are identified.¹⁶

The Dental Hygiene field has also been impacted by competency-based education. As observed by Arkava and Brennen, "Evaluation in dental hygiene education appears quite sophisticated and directly related to the issue of practitioner competence."¹⁷ In a 1976 document prepared by the American Dental Hygienist Association, a description of the requirements for "minimal preparation for practice" was

¹⁶See Western International University, Program of Study (Phoenix, Arizona: Western International University, Jan. 1979), pp. 1-12.

¹⁷Morton L. Arkava and E. Clifford Brennen, Competency-Based Education for Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 14.

explicated.¹⁸ Each requirement is expressed in a task statement. For each task, the student is required to display minimal competence through actual clinical application under supervision. That is to say that the performance requirements for the graduate dental hygienist are objectively specified as the end result of the curriculum.

A similar approach was taken at the University of Utah Medical School in the MEDEX Project.¹⁹ In this project specific competencies were developed for laboratory procedures and treatment with patients. In both cases, of the paramedic and of the dental hygienist, the outcomes of the program were specified first, followed by instructive training and a curriculum designed to move the student to a specific level of competency.

Although the use of competency-based education in other areas has not yet been fully reported or is relatively unknown to the author at this time, it will be useful to note an example of covert usage in the teaching of an introductory course in political science. In 1978, David Caputo from Perdue University reported having used elements of competency-based to modularize an introductory course in American Gov-

¹⁸David Pipe, Curriculum Essentials for Dental Hygiene Education (Chicago: American Dental Hygiene Association, 1970), pp. 26-28.

¹⁹University of Utah Medical Center, Utah MEDEX Project Instructional Objectives, mimeographed (Salt Lake City: University of Utah Medical Center, 1973), pp. 11-12.

ernment. This was possible with a grant he received from his own university during the Fall, 1975.²⁰ Caputo utilized a combination of pre- and post-testing on carefully developed performance items to determine cognitive gains. His basic assumption was, if a student answered a question incorrectly at the beginning of the semester and then answered it correctly at the end of the semester, then cognitive learning had taken place. The reverse of this situation, according to Caputo, "is more difficult to explain." He concluded from this study that cognitive change can in fact be measured and correlated with basic demographic traits. This, he asserts, "would be a particularly useful set of diagnostic information for the instructor to have in terms of understanding the dynamics of a particular group of students or in assessing the progress he or she has made in teaching specific cognitive information.

Competency-Based Approaches in Social Work

The literature on social work suggests two currents flowing into the mainstream of competency-based education in social work. One current comes from the efforts that have been made to evaluate competence of social work students. The second runs from the conscious use of competency-based

²⁰For more details on this effort see, David Caputo, "Evaluating Student Cognitive Change in the Introductory American Politics Course," in Teaching Political Science, Vol. 6, No. 1 (Beverly Hills, Calif.: SAGE Publications, Ltd., October 1978), pp. 23-48.

approaches to program models. The efforts made to evaluate the competence of students in social work have taken four types of measurement strategies: value inventories, knowledge inventories, skill assessment scales, and stimulation models. Social work educators and scholars have long recognized the significance of values to the profession. The maximum collective expression of this concern was demonstrated in the publication of the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) Curriculum Study which devoted an entire volume to the subject of values.²¹ This work led to the use of value inventories in major evaluation efforts. An example of value inventories is the Social Work Interest Inventory developed at Berkeley by Aelrod and Gough.²² This instrument was later used at the San Diego State University School of Social Work from 1968 to 1970. Other examples include Meyer's Social Value Questionnaire used by Kadushin and Kelling in a 1973 study at Wisconsin,²³ the Adjective Check List, and the

²¹Muriel W. Pumphrey, The Teaching of Values and Ethics in Social Work Education, Vol. 13 of the Curriculum (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959).

²²David Aelrod and Harrison Gough, The Social Work Interest Inventory, 2nd ed., rev. (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California at Berkeley, Institute of Personality Assessment and Research, 1963).

²³Donna L. McLeod and Henry J. Meyer, "A Study of the Values of Social Workers," in Behavioral Science for Social Workers, ed. Edwin J. Thomas (New York: The Free Press, 1967), pp. 401-416.

Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory.²⁴

Standardized knowledge inventories in social work are exemplified in the Minnesota Inventory of Social Work Knowledge, Clark's Social Welfare Policy and Services Inventory, HEW's Merit System Examination for MSW's and the ACSW Examination.²⁵ The Minnesota Inventory of Social Work Knowledge is an 82 item multiple-choice questionnaire containing objective information statements. Clark's Knowledge Inventory is similar to the Minnesota instrument and was administered in 1971 at the University of Utah School of Social Work to students entering graduate schools of social work. The HEW and the ACSW examinations are two other examples of objective tests designed to measure knowledge inventories.

The third type of measurement instruments are the skill assessment scales. Skill assessment scales generally consist of lists of performance requirements for social workers in either live or simulated cases. The Merrifield, Linfield, and Jastram efforts at the University of Chicago were based

²⁴Morton L. Arkava and E. Clifford Brennen, Competency-Based Education for Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 10.

²⁵For more details see Raymond H. Clark, Pre-Instructional Testing of Students Entering Graduate Schools of Social Work - Fall Term 1971, Doctoral Dissertation University of Utah, 1972; Department of Health, Education and Welfare Division of State Merit Systems, Highlights of Research on Social Worker Entrance Exam: A Cooperative State-Federal Project (Washington, D.C.: Division of State Merit Systems, 1965).

on a skill assessment scale.²⁶ The Merrifield instrument includes a schedule of 64 separate performance items on which students are evaluated by a faculty team. It also contains a list of specific tasks required for practice (e.g., evidence of self responsibility for acquiring and integrating knowledge; ability to work collaboratively and cooperatively with other professions). Two years later Margaret Schubert, from the University of Minnesota, furthered this measurement area by developing another skill assessment document based on Merrifield's efforts.²⁷ Schubert's instrument consists of a series of five point rating scales designed to assess students' performance in casework field placements. It is characterized by a behaviorally specific focus in indentifying performance attributes for evaluation. About the same time that Margaret Schubert was developing her skill assessment instrument, the University of Michigan was developing a Practice Skill Assessment Instrument.²⁸ The Michigan instrument includes a schedule of 58 separate performance items. It covered such topics

²⁶Aleanor Merrifield, Jan Linfield and Edythe Jastram, A Standard for Measuring the Minimum Acceptable Level of Performance in First-Year Fieldwork in Social Casework (Chicago: University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration, 1964).

²⁷Margaret Schubert, Assessment of Social Work Student Performance in Field Work (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1966).

²⁸University of Michigan School of Social Work, Practice Skill Assessment Instrument (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Campus Publisher, 1967).

as knowledge of the community, the agency, casework skills, and groupwork skills.

Simulation models in social work have been utilized to test the responses of students in a representation of the practice situation. In the Fall of 1972, Roland G. Meinert comprehensively reviewed simulation technology and its potential for social work education. Among other things he admonishes, "the validity of the techniques rests on the capability of capturing the essence of reality."²⁹ An important contribution, related to the simulation model, was made by Harris K. Goldstein. In 1965 Goldstein published what he had done at Tulane University to measure casework knowledge. Goldstein's method, commonly known as The Tulane Assessment Scale, involves reviewing a filmed case contact and responding to questions about the film. The film is interrupted at different points and the student is asked to respond to a question in a test booklet. This same test was used by Kadushin and Kelling in curriculum research at Wisconsin in the early 1970's.³⁰

The Tulane Assessment Scale served as a model to the

²⁹ Roland G. Meinert, "Simulation Technology: A Potential Tool for Social Work Education," Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. VIII, No. 3 (Fall 1972), p. 50.

³⁰ Alfred Kadushin and George Kelling, Final Report: An Innovative Program in Social Work Education, the 3-2 Program (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin School of Social Work, 1973).

Benjamin Rose Institute Interrupted Case Test. This test approach is extensively described by Bloom and Farrar.³¹ The interrupted case test uses a case vignette instead of a film. It focuses on a case study that integrates practices in casework, groupwork, institutional and community settings. At selected points, questions are asked regarding the case and what can be done about it. The answers of the students are compared with a set of consensual answers arrived at by a panel of experienced social workers.

Some of these assessment efforts have been incorporated in the second current which has flowed into the main stream of competency-based education. Conscious efforts to apply competency-based approaches in social work education have resulted in the development of competency-based program models, evaluation tools, and performance/competency-based objectives for both courses and programs. Most of the conscious efforts to apply competency-based approaches to social work were initiated in the decade of the 1970's. Examples of competency-based program models are at the College of New Rochelle, the University of Southern Mississippi, Kentucky College of Social Professions, The Washington University, and the University of Calgary.

The College of New Rochelle is currently offering a

³¹ Martin Bloom and Marcella Farrar, Final Report: Becoming a Social Worker (Cleveland: Benjamin Rose Institute, 1970).

Competence Based Performance Model in undergraduate social work as a means of specifying and assessing the measurable tasks considered to be related to effective practice.³² The model imposes upon students the task of demonstrating their accomplishments in relation to course objectives, which are assumed to integrate the values, knowledge, attitudes, and skills characterizing professional social work. In the process, students are asked to identify the competencies which they consider necessary for initial entry into the profession. This is done while they are placed as participant observers and assessors of the work of the profession. Once they have selected the competency objectives, the next step is to express them in measurable terms. The program is characterized by "learning contracts," the use of student-faculty teams, individualized learning, and self-evaluation.

The School of Social Work at the University of Southern Mississippi has offered a competency-based program in social work since the early 1970's. According to Glick and Clinch, the Social Work School's faculty developed the model by first establishing consensus regarding the essential competencies for practice. Secondly, they proceeded to identify as many instructional methods as possible. Thirdly, they developed modules of instruction smaller than a course in which the ob-

³²James J. Magee, Competence-Based Performance: A Model for Curriculum Development (New York: College of New Rochelle, 1965).

jectives of learning were clearly specified and strategies of of learning experience were delineated. Fourthly, they formulated criterion tests for determining the achievement of the objectives.³³ The Mississippi model is characterized by its "emphasis on a goal oriented education rather than one which is process oriented." This approach, according to Glick and Clinch, "permits the students to have different entry points into the curriculum based on prior knowledge and experience." The program also provides to the student options for "testing out" of modules in the form of pre-testing.

The University of Kentucky College of Social Profession's model is also a phenomenon of the early 1970's. Betty A. Kirling characterizes it as a "consistency model."³⁴ The program focuses on the evaluation of student performance. According to Professor Kirling, the consistency model views student performance evaluation as an on-going process. The process is intended to enhance the student's immediate learning and the development of habits and attitudes necessary for

³³Lester J. Glick and Robert W. Clinch, Education and Practice: Partners in Providing Quality Professional Education (Paper presented at the Council on Social Work Education's 20th Annual Program Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, March 1974), pp. 3,6.

³⁴Betty A. Kirling, In Search of a Consistency Model for Evaluation of Student Performance in Graduate Education for the Social Professions, Monograph No. 2 (Lexington, Ky.: College of Social Professions, University of Kentucky, 1974), p. 33.

life-long learning. It generates data for the student and the college to make decisions relative to the student's learning needs, objectives, and progress in accordance with college objectives and behavioral expectations. It links the evaluation of student's performance to the evaluation of the program provided for the learner.

The Washington University School of Social Work competency-based model is a behavioral program for the training of social group workers.³⁵ This training program focuses on three specific tasks, the operationalizing of client behaviors to be modeled, the changing of behaviors of the social worker (treatment procedures), and the collection of data relevant to both. The program strategies include didactic instruction, videotaped modeling of the procedures by persons competent in their use, role playing by students, and videotaped practice experience by the students. The videotaped practice experiences of the students are periodically reviewed and assessed by students and the instructor.

The University of Calgary has been implementing a competency-based program at the BSW level. Students were first admitted to the first two years of the program in September, 1971. The first year curriculum is primarily a general liberal arts university education. Although social work

³⁵ John S. Wodarski, A Behavioral Program for the Training of Social Work Group Workers (Paper presented at the Council on Social Work Education's 20th Annual Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia), March, 1974.

courses are available to first year students, they are intended to portray various aspects of the function of social welfare and social work. The second year courses are viewed as a series of integrated experiences and simulations that provide foundation studies and introduction to practice objectives, demands, and needs. This approach to the second year curriculum provides for the student a setting in which he becomes a self-directed participating learner. The third year curriculum thrust is toward intensive professional skill-building at a generic practice level. Third year students are involved in the study of social provisions, interventive models, and scientific evaluation procedures. The program in its fourth and final year offers a series of experiences designed to provide students with structured opportunities for a more focused type of practice within the generic, full range context.³⁶

The Calgary Competency-Based Program took years to evolve. The faculty spent two-and-one-half years in developing the program's objectives. The developmental process started with the developing of broad objectives derived from the statement that characterized the professional MSW degree program. From that step they proceeded to develop the new courses and their respective content. The third step was to

³⁶Frank W. Clark, "The University of Calgary Experience: A Case Example," in Competency-Based Education for Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 166.

write the course objectives in behavioral terms. This part of the process was enhanced with simulation experiences in faculty workshop settings. Teaching teams were organized to implement the behaviorally oriented courses. From these experiences emerged the modularization of the courses. Two modular approaches were identified, "The Keller Systems" and the Personalized System of Instruction.³⁷

As suggested earlier, conscious efforts to apply competency-based approaches in social work education have also resulted in the development of evaluation tools and performance-based objectives. Examples of evaluation tools have been developed at Florida Technological University, Jane Addams Graduate School of Social Work, and Syracuse University. In 1975, John E. Hodgins reported on the efforts made at the Florida Technological University to develop a basis for the assessment of competency-based skills based on theoretical indicators derived from interdisciplinary theories.³⁸ The Florida University assessment model gave consideration to the social worker's role as a sociocultural agent, a value agent, a normative agent, and an institutional agent. Five questions were asked to elicit the range of activity: How

³⁷For more details see Fred S. Keller, "Good-bye Teacher" Journal of Applied Behavioral Analysis, Vol. 1, No. 1 (1969), pp. 79-89; and Frank W. Clark, An Evaluation of A Personalized System of Instruction in Social Work (Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary, 1975).

³⁸John E. Hodgins, A Theoretical Base for the Assessment of Competency Skills in Social Casework Practice (mimeographed) March, 1975.

are the activities of each subsystem coordinated? What is the energizing force of each of the subsystems? What are the sanctions of each range of social work activity? What is the end result of each subsystem? It appears that these questions were inspired by the working definition of social work practice developed by the profession in 1958.³⁹

Frank W. Clark has examined the answers that have been given in this model to theory, activity ranges, and systems questions. From the information collected he has developed over 100 potential performance items. Although he notes that the work on the performance assessment tool he is developing is still in the preliminary stages, he also feels that it represents a logical approach to the identification of competence.⁴⁰

The efforts made at the Jane Addams Graduate School of Social Work were reported by Dr. Richard J. Anderson in 1974 at the 20th Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education. His faculty was developing and using performance objectives as an evaluation tool in educating social workers. His report, however, concentrates more on the analysis of implementation problems rather than in a descrip-

³⁹"Working Definition of Social Work Practice," as printed in Harriet M. Barlett, "Toward Clarification and Improvement of Social Work Practice," Social Work, Vol 3, No. 4 (April, 1958), pp. 5-9.

⁴⁰Frank W. Clark, "Characteristics of the Competency-Based Curriculum," in Competency Based Education for Social Work (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 39.

tion of the assessment tool.⁴¹ As a result, very little is known about its nature and scope.

In 1975 Max Casper and Glenn B. McKibbin, from Syracuse University School of Social Work, reported at the 21st Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, their efforts toward the development of media-based performance test for work with groups.⁴² The test they have developed allows for students who could demonstrate the behavioral competencies required to forego instruction. The student performance was to be observed in the form of a simulation representing an example of the synthesis for intervention. The Syracuse performance-based program is in fact a model for intervention and includes widely accepted foundation concepts of social work practice (communication, problem solving, data collection and analysis, and the development of helping relationships).

Another variant emanating from planned efforts to apply competency-based approaches to social work education is in the area of performance-based objectives. The first report on this kind of effort was made by Betty Baer from the West

⁴¹For more details see Richard J. Anderson, Performance Objective as an Evaluation Device for Field Instructors in a Systems Change Settings (Paper presented at the Council on Social Work Education's 20th Annual Program Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, March, 1974).

⁴²Max Casper and Glenn McKibbin, A Media-Based Performance Test for Work with Groups (Paper presented at the Council on Social Work Education's 21st Annual Program Meeting, Chicago, Ill., March 1975), pp. 8-9.

Virginia University School of Social Work. Professor Baer reported in 1974 that she had developed competency-based objectives for both courses and the overall program goals. In her approach she used an evaluation rating scale to assess competencies in seven areas: problem identification, goal setting, service planning and implementation, evaluation and feedback, relations, dependability, and an overall global rating as a social worker.⁴³

The social work faculty at the University of Georgia School of Social Work has also been using competency-based objectives in social work education.⁴⁴ The main feature of their approach is the attempt to apply similar objectives for both undergraduate and graduate students. The thoroughness in meeting the objectives over a series of worker-client interactions is the criterion upon which differentiation between BSW, MSW and doctoral program are made.

Other groups of faculty who have engaged in the conscious use of competency-based approaches in social work education are found at the University of Pittsburgh and University of Wisconsin-Madison. In 1974, Jaffee and Shore, from the University of Pittsburgh School of Social Work, reported that they had developed an integrated approach to teaching skills

⁴³See Betty Baer's paper in Lester Levin, ed., The Use of Competency-Based Education in Social Work Education: A Task Force Report (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Education Board, August 1974).

⁴⁴William R. O'Connell Jr. & W. Edmund Moonaw, A CBC Primer (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Education Board, 1975).

while attending to the cognitive, affective, and behaviorial attributes of competent practice.⁴⁵ They described the emphasis of the program as "being goal-oriented behavior, short term, and task-centered treatment." Students are taught a systematic approach to problem solving, they undergo an empirically based "relationship training," and participate in a third phase designed to teach treatment skills related to specific client goals. Although the program lacks a system of criterion-referenced performance testing, according to Clark, "It is an interesting example of a performance-based oriented practice course."⁴⁶ In 1974, Flanigan reported having used student-instructor contracts to enhance an orientation to goal-focused performance at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.⁴⁷ This is interesting in the sense that the use of contracts between student and instructor is one of the features of competency-based education.

Although it appears that most of the conscious efforts to apply competency-based approaches in social work education heightened in the decade of the 1970's, it should be noted

⁴⁵Lois Jaffee and Barbara K. Shore, A Cognitive-Affective Behavioral Approach to Teaching Social Work Skills (Paper presented at The Council on Social Work Education's Annual Program Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia) March 1974.

⁴⁶Loc. Cit. Frank W. Clark, "The Competency Based Curriculum" in Competency Based Education for Social Work, 1976, p. 43.

⁴⁷Beverly Flanigan, "Planned Change and Contract Negotiation as an Instructional Model," Journal for Education for Social Work, Vol. 10, No. 2 (Spring 1974), pp. 29-38.

that educating for competence has been a long preoccupation in the social work profession. This contention is supported by the synthesis made by Donald Brieland, "Historical Overview," published in the September 1977 issue of Social Work.⁴⁸ From the Milford Conference of 1929 to the Curriculum Study of 1959 the profession was searching for an acceptable definition of social work practice. A definition of social work practice has been viewed by some, and this author agrees, as a threshold from which competence can be derived. The Milford Conference was successful in identifying eight aspects of generic casework and a set of casework methods, but either one of these works could be used in our times as a list of areas from which competence can be formulated. The Hollis Taylor Report of 1951 selected a statement of objectives from a 1950 statement on the profession issued by the United Nations. There are explicit competency-based statements for social workers in those objectives. The more succinct statement of competence issued by the profession appears to be contained in the working definition of social work practice of 1958. The four statements of purpose of social work and the nine statements of knowledge guiding the practice of the profession are classic statements of competencies for our times.

⁴⁸Donald Brieland, "Historical Overview," in Social Work, Vol. 22, No. 9 (September 1977), pp. 341-346.

Discussion

Competency-based education, with its corollary characteristics, offers theoretical constructs and practical approaches which are useful to improve educational practices in professional fields. The use of competency-based education has raised serious issues. Some of the issues have been attended to while others have remained unattended. Each of these issues demands the attention of a thoughtful developer, a task which is beyond the scope of this work. Our intention was to identify or to suggest some of the issues and that is what will be reflected throughout this report.

Two areas of educational practice have received the greatest attention in competency-based programs. These are the explicitness of objectives and the assessment of students' competence. The area of articulating clear objectives appears to have a great potential for improving professional education in social work. Such orientation, if properly attended to, can lead the profession into a process of identifying what its future practitioner will be able to do. At a minimum, the systematic collection of learning objectives offers a potential data source for identifying the choice of competencies for students that have been made by their instructors in respect to course and levels of learning. But, before the explicit objective orientation can be turned into a viable force, program faculty must be sensitized to that idea and provided with adequate opportunities

to strengthen their capacity to master the art of clear objective formulation. Chapter IV in this project represents an attempt to use competency-based education as a vehicle for a process to bring groups of social work faculty to work together, facilitate consensus in respect to students' competencies, and consequently improve on the instructors' planning skills.

This review of the literature in competency-based education suggests a relationship between competency-based education and changes in professional training, particularly in respect to those changes that eventually will spill over into the total educational program of the social work practitioner. It is incumbent upon the social work faculty in schools of arts and sciences to be careful in the selection of the competencies which they want to certify in the future practitioner. This is more so in cases where the social work curriculum is just a segment of an undergraduate degree program. Although the competencies demonstrated by the students might simply represent their personal abilities to integrate prior and present learning, it will be most useful to enhance this integration with a competency-based approach. At least there might be some indication that the student possesses or has demonstrated a specific set of competencies which are deemed desirable before they become actively engaged in professional practice.

The use of the competency-based approach in social work education is not new to the profession. The problem seems to

be in the nature of social work itself and the diversity of expectations which most social work educators embraced. We must begin to strengthen our own capability to be effective facilitators of the students' learning process. This strengthening can begin in our planning ability. Central to this planning dimension is the requirement to be able to formulate clear and specific learning objectives. As it will be demonstrated in subsequent chapters, competency-based education can be a driving force in this direction.

CHAPTER III

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

This chapter introduces the organizational context in which the professional project was negotiated. It states institutional goals, the history and structure of the host organization, identifies the participants in the project, describes the social work sequence, and locates its place in the degree program. Additionally it points to some concerns that must be considered while negotiating professional projects. Herbert Simon correctly advises, "Administrators who follow sound principles of decision making will normally select that alternative which will lead to the achievement of organizational goals."¹ This statement conveys the idea that any proposed activity requiring administrative decision will stand a better chance when that activity fits into the organizational goals.

The statement of goals of the host college, Medgar Evers College, in its recent catalog reads:

The College seeks to serve students with diverse educational, socio-economic, political, cultural experiences, and national backgrounds. . . .

¹Herbert Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: The Free Press, 1957), p. 140.

The College seeks to prepare students with essential knowledge and skills necessary for career advancement and professional mobility, maintaining flexibility in the incorporation of students experiential resources as the building blocks for the discovery of new knowledge and the achievement of academic skills. . . .

The College seeks to provide its students with a liberal education which communicates the knowledge of tradition, the teaching of scholars, and the beauty and profundity of their cultural heritage, improving the students' understanding of past and present societies. . . .

The College seeks to prepare students for leadership roles in a changing world so that they and the College itself can be energizers or change agents in the community. . . .

The College seeks to fulfill its mission and goals through active interaction with community representatives.²

This project, which was designed to improve the capacity of some of its faculty members to formulate clear and specific learning objectives and to enhance their respective abilities to identify competencies in social work education, is obviously related to careers in that profession. In this institution, the project was seen as contributing to a major goal of the college, preparing students with necessary skills for a career in one of the human service professions.

Medgar Evers College: Its History and Structure

Historical Background

Encouraged by the nation-wide Civil Rights Movement of the early 1960's, residents of Central Brooklyn increased

²Medgar Evers College, College Catalogue 1980-81 (New York: Medgar Evers College, 1980), pp. 6-7.

their demands upon community and political leaders to make higher education available to a larger segment of the area's population. Responding to these demands, its leaders contacted the Board of Higher Education of the City of New York to explore the possibility of establishing a two-year professional college in the Bedford-Stuyvesant area of Brooklyn. The Board responded affirmatively, in 1967, by establishing Community College Number Seven.³ However, in the two years of negotiation and planning the projected scope was expanded from a community college to a senior college with a capability for offering associate and baccalaureate degrees.⁴ In January 17, 1969, the Board of Higher Education approved the establishment of Medgar Evers College as an experimental college to provide quality education in professional fields while at the same time integrating career and liberal arts education.⁵ The College opened its doors to 1,000 students in September, 1971. Data on file on total enrollment from Fall, 1975 to Spring, 1977, show that the College was able to maintain a steady enrollment of slightly over 3,000 during

³See Resolution adopted by the Board of Higher Education at its meeting of January 17, 1969. (mimeographed).

⁴Paraphrased from Medgar Evers 1977-78 Self Study (New York: Medgar Evers College, 1977), pp. 1-3.

⁵For more details see, Report Submitted to the Board of Higher Education by the Committee to Review the Structure of the Community Colleges at its meeting of January 17, 1969 (mimeographed).

that period. The same data source indicates that student enrollment in the Inner Cities Program, where the social work curriculum was first located, was 191 in 1975 but dropped to 76 in Spring, 1977.⁶ Although the total College enrollment has been declining since Spring 1977, its enrollment from 1977 to 1980 was 2,500 and that of the social work concentration for that same period was 54.

The College Structure

Knowledge of the institutional structure and its administration was essential for effective negotiation and implementation of this professional project. Where does one start negotiating his project? Who should be contacted? What formal arrangements may have to be made? All these questions were relevant to the required knowledge of the institutional structure. Medgar Evers's administrative structure can be best understood by following its organizational chart (see Appendix I). As the chart shows, the President of the College is the head of the institution. He has responsibility for conserving and enhancing the educational goals, standards, and the general academic excellence of the College. Most administrative functions of the College are carried out in three major administrative offices, each one responsible to the President for a specific administrative area.

One of these administrative units is the Office of the

⁶Source of data: Table IX, Total Enrollment by Major-Fall 1975 to Fall 1979 in Loc. cit. Medgar Evers 1977-78 Self Study, p. 77.

Dean of Academic Affairs. Its primary responsibility is to provide leadership in the development of academic excellence and the implementation of educational policy. The Dean of Academic Affairs, who heads this office, is assisted by two other deans, an associate and an assistant. The Associate Dean of Academic Affairs has responsibility for four principal areas: academic skills development, instructional resources and technology, faculty evaluation and development, and special projects. The Assistant Dean of Academic Affairs is responsible for the development of the College's Community Outreach Program. Directly below the Dean of Academic Affairs are located the academic divisions of the College. Although these are essentially sub-administrative units, they were crucial to this professional project, for it is at this level that it was to be implemented. A thorough understanding of the divisional structure and dynamics where the project operated is essential, and will be discussed later in this section. Each academic division is headed by a chairperson who is elected by the corresponding divisional faculty and appointed by the President to serve for three years. The chairperson becomes the divisional executive officer carrying out divisional policies and those approved by the faculty and the Board of Higher Education. The officer chairs all divisional meetings and serves in the College's Council and the College-wide Personnel and Budget Committee. Additionally, he is responsible for the scheduling of courses and for assigning teaching staff to those courses. These responsibili-

ties obviously assured the officer a key role in implementing this project.

The second major administrative office of the College is the Office of Administration. This office is headed by a Dean of Administration who is responsible for the development and supervision of staff functions related to business, fiscal management, personnel, and facilities. The third major administrative office is the Office of Student Services. This office is also headed by a dean who is responsible for the overall planning and policy-making in the area of student services.

Obviously, there are some administrative structures that were more important to this project than others. The relative importance of each office seemed to be determined by the nature and scope of the project itself. The Office of the Dean of Academic Affairs and the divisional chairperson from the academic unit where the program operated were extremely important. If this project would have required space other than the one which is normally assigned to the academic division in which it was implemented, that requirement would have brought the Office of Administration into the negotiation scheme. Likewise, if the project had been designed to serve as a direct student service activity, then the Office of the Dean of Students would have been equally important.

The Division of Social Sciences

The Division of Social Sciences at Medgar Evers College

represents the direct milieu under which the project was implemented. As stated earlier, its structure and dynamics were central to the negotiation tasks of this project. To carry out the divisional administrative activities, the Chairperson has appointed program and discipline coordinators. One of these coordinators had jurisdiction over the social work sequence which this project had targeted for change. This person was a key administrator to be considered in the negotiation process that resulted in the agreement to initiate the project.

The divisional faculty consists of nineteen instructors: two in Anthropology, one in History, two in Sociology, two in Psychology, one in Political Science, one in Economics, four in Public Administration, two in Manpower, one academic advisor, and three in Social Work. Major academic decisions and the approval of professional projects are made by this divisional faculty.

It is evident that the multiplicity of responsibilities that some individuals carry out in the Division required special attention in the negotiation process. Crucial in this respect were the Divisional Chairperson, the Social Work Sequence Coordinator, and the social work faculty who were responsible for teaching social work courses. However, although the unique roles of these individuals required special consideration, the entire faculty was important to the overall negotiation process.

Participants in the Project

Participants in this project can be grouped into four major categories: (1) administrators and volunteer consultants, (2) the social work instructors constituting the process group, (3) other social instructors who served as comparison group, and (4) the students who enrolled in the social work courses during the semester when the courses were offered.

The administrators and consultant group included the Dean of Academic Affairs, the Associate Dean of Academic Affairs, the Chairperson of the Division of Social Sciences, and four non-social work faculty persons with extensive experience in competency-based education or statistics. It was important to the project that the support and approval of these administrators be secured, for programs of this nature could not be carried out without the necessary institutional administrative support. This became more evident as we moved into some of the tasks that were planned for the implementation phase. For instance, the support of the Chairperson of the Division of Social Sciences was central to the scheduling of courses and assignment of faculty to teach the courses involved in the project's program. Additionally, without his permission, the project would have been unable to obtain the divisional file data which were required to measure the faculty-participants capacity to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms before entering the program. Furthermore, without his support, the

task of persuading the divisional faculty to approve the project would have been more difficult.

Equally important was the support of the Associate Dean of Academic Affairs. As the institutional agent for faculty development and evaluation, he had the power to stop the project at any time. Persuading him to perceive the project's activities as a complement to his own program became a major endeavor. Additionally, he had jurisdiction over the data processing hardware available within the College. It was reasoned that once he had approved the project, his response to a subsequent request for utilizing those resources would be positive.

The administrative support that can be built up to this point must be strengthened at a higher level. Therefore, it was important that the Dean of Academic Affairs knew and supported the project. It is at this level where demonstrating the fit of the proposed activity and organizational goals became important. Other faculty resources available within the institution were also important to the project. Initially, these resources were identified in order to negotiate their support. Thus, two faculty persons who were previously associated with the Competency-Based Teachers Education Program, that is offered by the College, were contacted early during the planning phase and asked about their willingness to serve as consultants for the proposed project. Recognizing their expertise and limiting the demand that was required of their time readily achieved their cooperation. Two additional

faculty persons with demonstrated interest and expertise in the application of statistical techniques were also identified. These two individuals were approached in the same fashion as those with expertise in competency-based education. They also accepted to serve as consultants. The assistance provided by these statisticians was invaluable to the preparation of this report.

Another group which deserves particular attention in this project is the faculty who were selected to participate in the process group, the social work faculty. Without their professional commitment to the project and their willingness to cooperate fully in its activities, the project could not have been undertaken. They were the first persons to be contacted during the planning phase of the project. Initially they were asked, individually, to react to the project idea and to provide input on the program activities and processes. Their individual ideas were synthesized in a draft proposal and later on discussed collectively over lunch. It appears from the outcomes that this approach was effective and timely. It was introduced at a time when the social work faculty of this college were discussing ways to bring the social work curriculum in line with the guidelines of the Council on Social Work Education for undergraduate programs. Therefore, the motivation for change was there and what this project idea did was to offer them an opportunity for beginning functioning as a group in respect to curriculum development. Although it is hard to identify

what essential factors influenced their desire and willingness to participate, our best guess is to consider the friendly attitudes between the originator of the idea and the faculty persons involved, as well as the program change mood which was prevailing among them at that time.

The faculty persons who constituted the comparison groups were not selected among the social work faculty, for there were not enough persons in that category to permit such stratification. Three social scientists from the Divisional faculty were selected among a group of six who had previously declared that they were not too interested in competency-based education. Two others, who have been developing manpower courses from a performance-based perspective, were added to the members of the comparison group. The comparative function that each group served will be discussed later in Chapter V.

The persons who participated in the comparison groups of this study were not contacted until the completion of the implementation phase of the study. This was essential in order to reduce possible contamination effects. It was not difficult to get the participation of the two manpower educators since they were part of the staff of a project which is being administered by this reporter. However, enlisting the participation of the social scientists was a more difficult task. As stated earlier, these individuals came from a group that had previously declared that they did not care much for competency-based education. Additionally, it was

assumed that they were going to be very concerned about the potential use of the data which was projected to be obtained about them in the study in relation to their own official evaluations. Therefore, it was essential to think of a trade-off kind of strategy in approaching these individuals. We asked them if they would be interested in working as paid curriculum development consultants in a manpower grant during the summer. There was virtually no problem with this offer. Everyone contacted initially said yes to the offer. However, when it became clear that all participants were expected to provide certain data, needed for the study, two of the first three persons contacted decided not to work in the grant during the summer. It was necessary to make five contacts in order to get the group of three which was contemplated for the comparison group. It is therefore recommended that this kind of phenomenon be given careful consideration in further replication studies. Perhaps it will be useful to think of other alternatives for recruiting participants for the comparison group.

The last group of participants were the students who registered for the respective social work courses during the semester in which they were taught. The students' role in this project was limited to providing students' evaluation data of faculty. This automatically augmented the number of participants in this category to include those students who were registered in one of the courses taught by those social scientists selected for the comparison group. It

was not necessary to sensitize the students to the project since the instrument used for the students' evaluation of the faculty was the one normally used by the College for the same purpose. It was assumed that students would view this activity as part of a normal process.

Location of the Social Work Sequence Targeted for Change

The social work sequence offered by the Division of Social Science at Medgar Evers College constitutes one of four professional emphases available to the students who are enrolled in the Public Administration Degree Program. There are six courses in the social work sequence, one in the lower division and four in the upper division. The one in the lower division, Social Work 220, introduces the student to basic patterns of professional social work practice: casework, groupwork, community organization, social policy, and administration. It is an introductory course and as such is designed to acquaint the student with a generic and distinctive theoretical framework for practice. Students usually take this course in the second year of their academic program.

The upper division courses are tailored around social work methods, social welfare policy, and field work. Three of the courses emphasize traditional methods, one focuses on social policy and another constitutes the internship. The first method course, Social Work 320 Intermediate Casework, is designed to extend and deepen students' understanding of the study, diagnosis, and treatment phases of the psycho-

social method of casework. In this course, students analyze cases involving problems of parent-child relationships, family conflicts, physical and mental illness, and conflicts within society. Additionally, they are required to make comparisons of various casework models and approaches. The second method course, Social Work 321, is in the area of groupwork. It is designed to expand upon social groupwork principles and methods. Students examine the function and roles of groupworkers, using research studies in groupwork. The third method course, Social Work 457, is in the area of community organization. It explores techniques of community organization with emphasis on programs that are implemented in metropolitan ghettos. Particular attention is given to the services for senior citizens and youths. Community development, community planning, and community action models are examined.

The two courses in the area of social welfare policy are Social Work 338 and 340. The former deals with the basis of social welfare and social policy and the latter discusses selected problems in community development. Social Work 338 introduces the evolution of social services in the United States in the context of the social welfare movement. It covers such topics as the growth of settlement houses, social security, adoption, foster care, and public assistance. Additionally, it examines regulatory controls exercised by the federal, state, and municipal governments over social policy. Social Work 340 deals with major social issues fac-

ing local communities. The issues that are discussed centered around the delivery of health and social services, housing and education.

The internship, Social Work 490, is intended to place the student practitioner in an educationally related work setting. During the placement, students integrate social work knowledge, skills and attitudes into what can be perceived as their initial practicing style. The internship has two components; an academic seminar and the placement. Students who registered in this course have the option of selecting a placement focus from among the following: interpreting the environment and value systems affecting organizations and agencies; observing and participating in complex organizations' decision-making processes; performing social work helping tasks with clients under the guidance of a trained social worker; and participating in problem-solving situations which are of some benefit to the placement agency.

As suggested at the beginning of this section, the social work sequence is a specialty in the degree program in Public Administration. The degree emphasizes both liberal arts education and professional studies. Thirty-nine (39) credits are college-wide requirements intended to serve as foundation courses in the three areas of human knowledge: natural science, the humanities, and social sciences. This liberal arts foundation, embedded in the college-wide requirements, is expanded by asking the student to take twenty-one (21) credits as divisional requirements. Fifteen (15) are in

social science courses and six (6) in a foreign language. The professional preparation of the students comprises six (6) credits in analytical tools, thirty-three (33) credits in Public Administration, including the internship, and eighteen (18) credits in Social Work.

Evidently what the student have learned in the degree program cannot be attributed solely to the social work curriculum. Much of what they have learned at certain points in the course of their degree will depend to a great extent on the interface of all curricular areas. Therefore, it will be naive to apply a competency-based approach to the social work curriculum alone and to attribute all manifested achievement of the students to that approach. For this reason we shall view students' achievement as an incidental output in this project and concentrate on the changes that the competency-based approach has brought about among the social work faculty. Chapter IV of this report shall state more clearly the role that a competency-base approach was supposed to play in bringing this group of faculty to work together.

Some Dynamics of the Negotiation Process

It is evident from the description in this chapter that professional projects, most frequently, will have to be negotiated within a milieu characterized by a multiplicity of structures and personalities. In this report we have identified and described those structures of the host college that were more critical to the negotiation tasks. However, in

our description we have not said much about the sequencing and dynamics in all of these contacts.

As a rule of thumb, there appear to be three options available to the negotiator of this kind of project. He may secure a grant from an appropriate funding source and negotiate monetary rewards for participants. Another option would be to secure the approval for the project from top administration and to expect compliance of participants on a basis of authority. The third option will be to follow what was done here, to negotiate for voluntary participation based on professional commitment and assumed desire to improve the program.

In terms of sequence, it was decided to contact first those who were going to be affected more directly by the activities of the program, the social work faculty. The first one contacted was the social work sequence coordinator. It was reasoned that this person's organizational and group status was central for influencing other participants. However, she was approached as a colleague and as an individual who was interested in change. The initial step was to talk about my interest and research in competency-based education to bring about some uniformity in the course objectives of the social work curriculum. Subsequently, it was decided that the project idea be communicated to other social work instructors and, contingent upon their feelings, to convene a meeting and discuss the matter in more details. Every other member of the social work faculty was contacted,

using the same approach, soliciting input for the project idea.

The next step was to synthesize their inputs, to put them into a project design, and to present it to them as a group. The purpose at this meeting was to give the central actors an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process and to set a "group mind."⁷ The important tactics were sought to bring this meeting about. As stated earlier, this meeting was held over lunch. At my request, the social work coordinator was asked to serve as moderator at the meeting. Some resistance, however, was encountered from one instructor at that point when we began to discuss what was required. His resistance was overcome by presenting the benefits to be derived in relation to the professional development of the faculty, the desired changes in the program, and more importantly, by demonstrating that the faculty would not be doing anything more than what they are expected to do without the project. The only difference would be in the manner in which it was going to be done; instead of formulating course objectives individually, we were going to do it together. Finally, we were able to reach consensus on all the issues that were raised and a psychological contract was

⁷ Simon in discussing the term "group mind" states, ". . . all that is required is that, before the plan is acted out, it shall be communicated to the group members who are to do the acting." Herbert Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: The Free Press, 1957), p. 107.

established.⁸

As evidenced from the tactics employed in the negotiations at this level the author relied mostly on direct communication to ensure acceptance and commitment from the social work faculty. The most crucial variable that came into play was the source of communication. It was important that the group perceived the communication as something coming from a "trustworthy communicator."⁹ The communicator's assumed knowledge on competency-based education, coupled with his interest to place that knowledge at the service of the program was perceived by him as a potential influential factor. This same thought guided the decision to use the social work coordinator as a "subtle persuader" at the group meeting. The outcome of this latter tactic resembles Mills and Aronson's finding that people tend to be influenced by people they like and admire even if they are not experts themselves.¹⁰

The literature on persuasion offers two other conflicting techniques that may be considered in future studies.

⁸For more information on the nature and importance of a psychological contract see, John D. Aram, Dilemmas of Administrative Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1976), pp. 44-46.

⁹See C. I. Hovland and W. Weiss, "The Influence of Credibility on Communication Effectiveness," in Public Opinion Quarterly, 1951, 15, 635-50.

¹⁰For subtle persuaders effect see, J. Mills and E. Aronson, "Opinion Change as a Function of the Communicator's Attractiveness and Desire to Influence," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1965, 1, 173-77.

As the argument goes, if you want to persuade a person to undertake what can be perceived as an unpleasant job, you may want to begin by getting a commitment to a small aspect of the job first. Freeman and Fraser have called this technique "the foot in the door."¹¹ According to these writers, obtaining a person's compliance with a small request substantially increases the likelihood that they would agree to a subsequent greater request. The other technique is called "reciprocal concessions." This technique prescribes that one should attempt to induce compliance to a difficult job by first making an extreme request, which is sure to be rejected, then following it with a more moderate request.¹²

Since these two techniques are based on conflicting assumptions, it is reasonable to assume that their respective use would be a matter of choice. However, we would like to recommend that before one decides which technique to use, he makes sure there is sufficient information about the situation and on those persons he wants to involve. The techniques which were used in this study are based on the variable of the communicator, while these other two appear to be

¹¹J. L. Freeman and S. C. Fraser, "Compliance Without Pressure: The Foot-in-the-Door Technique," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 4, 195-202.

¹²For more information on this technique see, R. B. Cialdini, et al "Reciprocal Concessions Procedure for Inducing Compliance," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31 206-15.

based on the communication itself.

The second set of negotiations occurred at the administrative levels that were previously identified in this section. Central to these negotiations were the personalities and positions held by these administrative officers. These persons were perceived as having something in common, a self-actualized personality.¹³ Therefore, it was assumed that they have an efficient perception of reality, a concern for basic philosophical and ethical issues, and a generic desire to help others.¹⁴

The first administrative officer to be contacted was the Divisional Chairperson. Initially, I asked for his help in relation to my doctoral program requirements. Then, we proceeded to talk about competency-based education and its potential to bring about changes in the social work curriculum. We also talked about the social work faculty desire to cooperate with me in a project toward that end and about his interest in improving divisional programs. After this dialogue he began to surmise the project as one with a dual po-

¹³See Abraham H. Maslow, "Self Actualizing People" in G. B. Levitas, ed., The World of Psychology, Vol. 2, (New York: George-Braziler, 1963); Carl G. Jung, The Basic Writings of C. J. Jung, edited by V. de Lazlo (New York: Random House, 1959); Carl R. Rogers, "A Theory Therapy, Personality and Interpersonal Relationships as Developed in the Client Centered Framework,": in S. Koch, ed., Psychology: A Study of Science, Vol. 3 (New York: McGraw Hill, 1959).

¹⁴These assumptions are taken from the set developed by Maslow, which is cited on Stephen E. Glickman, Psychology (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Co., 1977), p. 174.

tential; that of bringing about changes in the curriculum and with a possibility for developing essential skills needed in the faculty. It appears that a "mutual means" situation emerged. According to Floyd L. Ruch, when the interest of one person and that of another begins to gain satisfaction for everyone concerned, a mutual means situation has been created.¹⁵

Although the Chairperson manifested great enthusiasm for the project and pledged his support, he cautioned that before it could be implemented it must be approved by the divisional faculty. Additionally, he suggested that the matter must be discussed with the Dean of Academic Affairs since it appears to involve some aspects of faculty development.

The divisional meeting was held, a presentation was made, and the project was approved by the entire divisional faculty. Subsequent approaches were made to the Divisional Chairperson during the implementation phase of the project in order to coordinate the scheduling of the social work courses and the assignment of appropriate faculty to teach them. It appears from the outcome of these subsequent contacts with the chairperson that the foot-in-the-door technique, although not planned, became operational.

The other two administrators contacted were the two officers whom we had identified as important in the Office of

¹⁵Floyd L. Ruch, Psychology and Life (California: Scot Foresman and Co., 1970), p. 564.

the Dean of Academic Affairs. The approach used with these two individuals was essentially as follows: The idea was presented to them as something I needed to do for my doctoral studies and that was consistent with the college goals. However, I wanted to have their approval and the benefit of their wisdom. Before they responded to my call for input, a very fundamental economic question was raised. They wanted to know if there was an added cost to the college in the form of released time or any other kind. The reply to this question was a categorical no. I did state, however, that it would be a good idea for the college and the divisions to recognize this kind of faculty participation as a research task and to give faculty credit for it in their respective evaluation reports. The Associate Dean of Academic Affairs was very supportive in highlighting the benefits to be derived in terms of faculty development and curriculum improvement. Nevertheless, it was decided to leave the matter of crediting participation in this project at the discretion of the Division.

Following these discussions on economic and reward issues, the deans began to offer specific suggestions related to approaches that could be taken to carry out certain specific activities of the project. At the conclusion of this meeting the Associate Dean of Academic Affairs placed the College's computer terminal and resources at the project's disposal. This cooperation on his part was interpreted as a positive sign of genuine support for the project from this

administrative office.

It may be argued from the sequencing of these contacts that the procedure which was followed appears to be inconsistent with the formal channels of communication as they are represented in the organizational chart. However, it could be equally argued that since the project idea originated from within and participation was predicated on psychological satisfaction rather than monetary reward, it was essential to initiate the communication from the bottom up. We have no evidence to support a claim that in the case of an external agent the same procedure will generate the same results, but we strongly recommend that persons from within the organization wishing to replicate this project follow the same approach. The basic assumption is that if people are involved early in the planning of the project, their participation in the implementation phase will be greatly enhanced. The validity of this assumption can be best judged after we describe our methodology, which is the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the orderly arrangement of a faculty process. The process used included four phases, all in a continuum. Phase one identifies activities of an investigative and preparatory nature; phase two relates to the posture taken by the participants in this project regarding social work practice and course objectives; phase three describes the steps used for getting a group of social work faculty together in order to agree on course objectives; and phase four discusses the strategy used to keep the faculty in the process.

In the overall, the process characterizes a self-development program where instructors, inspired by a sense of professionalism, were brought together in order to deal with issues and problems affecting the teaching of social work courses and the students' learning processes. The data that were used to measure the faculty development process will be presented in the next chapter. We would like to note at this point that the faculty who were involved in the process did not have released time, did not receive additional remuneration, nor were they given substantial incentives other than those negotiated by the author on their

behalf. The specific incentives which were negotiated will be mentioned throughout this chapter.

The Investigative Phase

Soliciting Support and Recruiting Participants

A central thrust in the investigative phase was to sensitize a group of social work faculty to the idea of working together and to get them involved in a process for formulating learning objectives in such a way that the social work faculty, as a group, could agree upon. A crucial step toward this endeavor was the recruitment of participants.

It was clear to the author, since the planning of the project, that before undertaking this task substantial negotiations would have to be made at the host college. Therefore, individual and group conferences were held with the College administrators, chairpersons, and faculty members in order to explain the project's intention. Out of these contacts, with the support of the Dean of Academic Affairs and the Chairperson of the Division of Social Sciences, a divisional meeting was held and the nature, scope, and philosophy of the project were explained to divisional faculty. From this meeting emerged a genuine commitment of divisional support to the project. These gestures of initial support became crucial at subsequent negotiations with participants.

A second step was to have an organization meeting with potential participants, the social work faculty. The meeting was convened by the Divisional Chairperson upon the author's

request. At this meeting the social work faculty reaffirmed their commitment, basic ground rules were set, and a regular schedule for workshop meetings was arranged. The workshops were intended to serve as a forum, where the faculty freely shared concerns, expertise, and gain knowledge on the state of the art.

Participants proposed, and the author agreed, to hold the workshops outside of the college. The reason for having them outside of the campus was twofold: To be able to recreate an environment conducive to professional development as well as collegial collaboration; and, to minimize interference, usually caused by daily working routines and last minute requests. This arrangement was discussed with appropriate College administrators who did not object to the idea.

In retrospect, we examined the outcome of the recruitment effort and recognized two contributing factors which we would recommend as tools with great potential for similar recruitment. One, relates to the highly persuasive arguments which were presented to the faculty causing them to see the workshops as something based on purely professional ideologies. The second, was by convincing them that there was a need to develop expertise in an area of educational practice where professional consultation is most needed, i.e., competency-based education in social work.

The Workshops

Various workshops were held throughout all phases of

the project. The first set of workshops, which can be characterized as preparatory, were held regularly on Wednesdays for a period of three months. The remaining workshops were held periodically as determined by need. The format of the workshops was essentially as follows. Participants were asked to research appropriate literature and to read selected articles before each workshop. Throughout the workshops appropriate articles, monographs, and books on the state of the art of competency-based education, both in general education and social work education, were located, shared, and subsequently discussed. Out of these discussions emerged an increasing interest on issues and problems that had been identified in respect to the formulation of learning objectives. It should be noted, at this point, that participating faculty objective orientations were examined before and after the preparatory workshops. The data which resulted from this examination are presented later in this chapter.

The Place of Learning Objectives in Educational Practice

The educational literature of the 1960's, that we surveyed, evidenced efforts in many disciplines attempting to identify, school, teacher, and instructional characteristics that influence students' achievement. However, most of the inquiries that had been made appear to be guided by common research traditions. As noted by the National Institute of Education, "school effects" researchers, predominantly sociologists, have attended to the socioeconomic, racial, ability

composition, and the social climate of schools.¹ They have identified curricular tracks, peer groups and classrooms as potential determinants of students' learning. The Institute further asserts that, "Economists pursuing 'input/output' models of schooling have conceived of schools and classrooms as settings utilizing varying types and levels of resources (e.g., money, teacher and student ability, time) which combine to determine student learning." Moreover, educational psychologists and curriculum specialists have investigated those teaching behaviors and instructional strategies (e.g., questioning styles, reinforcement patterns, use of objectives) seen as influencing student learning.

The literature that we reviewed in the first three workshops made it clear that these traditions have converged around a number of issues. First, "school effects" and "input/output" studies have demonstrated that much of the variation in student achievement lies within, rather than between schools. Second, both socioeconomic and ability composition of schools have been shown to influence learning. Third, recent research on use of time in schools show that both teacher and student time vary considerably in amount used for instructional purposes. Finally, many teacher-effect researchers have recognized the need to describe the

¹National Institute of Education, Teaching and Learning Research Announcement, Fiscal Year 1980 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, September, 1979), p. 13.

teaching and learning process in the context in which it takes place.²

When we put all these factors together, our attention was drawn to the question, what can social work educators do to improve their educational practice?³ It was believed that answers to this question have serious implications for current practices in social work education, particularly for the practices which are employed in the teaching and learning process.

An important and virtually neglected area that kept emerging in our discussions was the extent of attention given to the competence required from social work instructors in formulating clear learning objectives for students. We noted, however, that this is not a new question. Within a similar context, Ralph W. Tyler once made this comment:

Two problems are usually involved in formulating the objectives of a particular course. One is to get a list of objectives which is reasonably complete; . . . The other is to state the objectives in clear and definite terms that they can serve as guides in the making of the examination questions.

²Ibid., The National Institute of Education has consistently recognized the need to describe teaching and learning processes in the context of the social and cultural environment of classrooms and schools. This is documented in the numerous RFP's they had announced in these areas.

³The concept of "educational practice" as used here includes preparatory tasks, processes, and choices that must be made by educators when they intend to effect directly the learning of students.

Many statements of objectives are so vague and nebulous that . . . they prove to be glittering generalities which are of little value as guides in teaching and useless in making examinations.

Others have noted the negative findings of many outcome research studies which in recent years have cast doubt on both the efficacy of social work interventions and on the competency of practitioners.⁵ A stronger observation was recently made by a doctoral student in social work who stated, "In addition, consumers and beneficiaries of social services are questioning that the professional know and can do."⁶ These observations have led to the situation that if a social work educator hints to a lack of hearty endorsement of clear learning objectives in curriculum planning or even questions their central place in guiding students' learning will be akin to confessing incompetence. Kuhlman, for instance, reaffirms this view by asking, "Who could possibly be against clear statements of what is proposed to be ac-

⁴Ralph W. Tyler, Constructing Achievement Tests (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1934), p. 73.

⁵For documentation see: Joann Larsen and Dean H. Hopworth, "Skill Development Through Competency-Based Education," Journal of Education for Social Work, XIV, No. 1 (Winter 1978), p. 73; Joel Fischer, "Is Casework Effective? A Review," Social Work, XVII (January 1973), pp. 5-20.; Ludwig Geismar, "Thirteen Evaluative Studies," in Evaluation of Social Intervention, ed. by Edward J. Mullen and James R. Dumpson (San Francisco: Jossey Bassy, 1972),

⁶Edward G. Khulmann, "Behavioral Objectives in Education for Social Work," Paraclete, V, No. 1 (Spring 1978), p. 15.

complished as the results of the application of professional expertise."⁷

By the third workshop we came to recognize the role that clear learning objectives can play in further defining the purpose of social work education. What the purpose of the education should be is a long recognized basic consideration in any type of educational planning.⁸ This is true whether the planning is concerned with such a relatively broad matter as developing a full educational program or with something as limited and specific as what a teacher plans to do in a given course or with a given class in a particular day. Consequently, it follows that an essential and continuing prerequisite for improving educational practice is to be able to formulate learning objectives that are explicit by and for the learner and other instructors as well. As C. M. Lindvall once observed, "The skill with which this task is carried out are no small determiner of the effectiveness of an educational program." (See footnote 8.)

What is Social Work Practice?

As the scope and nature of learning objectives and their

⁷Ibid., p. 16.

⁸This theme is adequately treated in C. M. Lindvall, ed. Defining Educational Objectives (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1969), p. 1.; and Council on Social Work Education, Undergraduate Programs in Social Work: Guidelines to Curriculum Content (New York: Council on Social Work Education, Inc., 1971), p. 11.

place in Social Work education were discussed, we became more aware of the need to base learning objectives on a rational foundation of social work practice. We looked for guidance in the official positions of the profession on manpower matters, the "Curriculum Guidelines for Undergraduate Programs in Social Work," the "Standards for Social Service Manpower," and the "1958 Working Definitions of Social Work Practice."⁹ But whether programs and faculty have accepted the intact statements drawn up under the auspices of the profession, have modified such statements to fit local needs and feelings, or have developed statements that are relatively original could not be established. What became apparently true was that most schools of social work have accepted the profession's basic purpose of social work education as the basis for educational planning and instruction.¹⁰

⁹For earlier position statements we examined: "Social Casework: Generic and Specific," A Report on the Milford Conference (Washington, D.C.: National Association for Social Workers, 1974), reprint of 1929 ed.; Ernest W. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, Social Work Education in the United States (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951); Harriet M. Bartlett, "Toward Clarification and Improvement of Social Work Practice," Social Work, III (April 1958), pp. 5-9.; Werner Boehm, Objectives of the Social Work Curriculum for the Future (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959).

¹⁰The Council on Social Work Education affirms this purpose in the statement: "Although the preparation of students for employment in social work practice is the primary objective of the educational programs . . . , greater specification is necessary before it can serve as a guide to the identification of curriculum content, organization, and sequence." Council on Social Work Education, Guidelines (New York: CSWE, 1971), p. 11.

However, notwithstanding the widespread attention to educational objectives in social work and despite the rather general agreement on the purpose of social work education, there is little evidence of the impact of such position statements in today's curricula or on what is actually taking place in the classroom. For instance, in the fall of 1973, the National Association of Social Workers issued policy statement number four, "Standard for Social Service Manpower," which represents the current official position of the profession on manpower matters. The document purports to identify levels of practice and levels of competence based on various academic preparations. A year later, Thomas L. Briggs criticized the NASW manpower statement on the basis of lack of specificity. In his words, " . . . the document is essentially useless to the conscientious educator who seeks greater specificity from the practice field regarding the 'atributes' one should be educating for at each level of the continuum."¹¹

We reviewed the earlier documents (see footnote 9), but did not find helpful statements of specificity that would assist us in identify the attributes which an entry level practitioner should have after graduating from an undergraduate educational program in social work. We continued searching for specificity but ran headlong into statements such as

¹¹Thomas L. Briggs, "A Critique of the NASW Manpower Statement," Journal of Education for Social Work, XI, No. 1 (Winter 1975), p. 9.

this: "A statement which would attempt to define that 'this is social work' would be both useless and senseless at this point in time."¹²

At this stage in the process we were fully convinced of the little consensus which has existed in the field, about what basic skills constitute a necessary and sufficient basis for practice. We would like to note also that similar conclusions have been reached by others (D. Cummins, 1976; Horowitz, 1971; F. W. Clark, 1976). In the face of lack of unanimity on the nature of social work practice, we turned our attention to other questions: What could be done?; What do we use as a rational foundation on which to base our learning objectives?

The search for answers to the above questions led us into another step in the process. We sought for a rational basis to specify the competencies that could be viewed as desirable for a beginning-level practitioner and to incorporate them into the content of the required courses in the social work curriculum. As a result of this search, the following alternatives were identified:

- a. Undertake research in the identification and validation of generic competencies.¹³

¹²Gideon Horowitz, "New Curriculum Policy Statement: Freedom and/or Regulation - 1," Journal of Education for Social Work, XVII, No. 2. (Spring 1971, p. 43.

¹³Bowling Green State University, Competency-Based Undergraduate Education Action Research Center, "A Precipis of the CUE Center" (Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green State University, n.d.), p. 1.

b. Sample from a relatively large collection of objectives and derive a practical number to guide instruction and evaluate competence.

c. Conduct a thorough job analysis of the practice activities of baccalaureate social workers in a wide variety of settings.¹⁴

d. Review a substantial number of field assessment inventories.¹⁵

e. Review a substantial number of statements of curriculum objectives.¹⁶

f. Adopt the 1958 Working Definition of Social Work Practice.¹⁷

g. Adopt the Montana's "Competence Criteria" for social work practice.¹⁸

¹⁴Sidney A. Fine & Martha W. Wiley, An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis: A Scaling of Selected Tasks from the Social Welfare Field (Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1971), p. 2.

¹⁵See, Harris, Goldstein, The Development of an Instrument to Measure Casework Knowledge (The Tulane Assessment Scale for Caseworkers) (New Orleans: Tulane Univ. School of Social Work, 1968), p. 1.; Alfred Kadushin & George Kalling, "Final Report: An Innovative Program in Social Work Education, the 3-2 Program," mimeographed (Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin School of Social Work, 1973), p. 5.; Walter Mischel, Personality and Assessment (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1968), p. 78.

¹⁶David E. Cummins, "The Assessment Procedure," in Competency-Based Education for Social Work, ed. by Morton L. Arkava & E. Clifford Brennen (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 64.

¹⁷Donald Brieland, "Historical Overview," in Social Work, Vol. 22, No. 5 (September 1977), p. 344.

¹⁸Loc. cit., Cummins, "The Assessment Procedure," in Competency-Based Education for Social Work, Arkava & Brennen, eds. 1976, pp. 65-72.

The consideration of these approaches led us into another phase in the process, the adoption of a posture toward competency-based criteria, which would serve as a foundation for developing course objectives.

The Posture Phase: Toward Competency Criteria

In the second phase of the process, we examined each one of the above alternatives against three dimensions: The political benefit and cost, the economic benefit and cost, the social benefit and cost. After these examinations, we decided to be guided by the "Montana competence criteria" as the working definition for social work practice. This decision was influenced by three factors.

Initially we wanted to do a thorough job analysis of the practice activities of baccalaureate social workers in a variety of settings. We dismissed the idea because we did not have the time nor the financial resources to do it. Most importantly, we found the University of Montana report quite convincing.

They reviewed a number of field assessment inventories and statements of curriculum objectives, each of which provided a collection of what social workers do. They also studied the Schubert assessment instrument, the University of Chicago's performance standard document, the Michigan's skill assessment instrument and statements of curriculum objectives from the University of West Virginia and the University of Calgary. Moreover, they considered the National Association of Social Workers' report prepared by the Committee

on the Study of Competence.¹⁹ From these perspectives they organized and catalogued the diverse descriptions of social work into a "coherent framework." They even expanded Boehm's conceptualization of the four problem solving steps by adding three areas--the organizational, community, and professional context in which the problem solving activities takes place.²⁰ But more importantly was the fact the participating faculty began to perceive some association between the collection of social work skills that the University of Montana has amassed and the skills that they wanted in their students.

Position in Respect to Course Objectives

Another central position taken in this project dealt with the course objectives. As we debated on opinions regarding course objectives, we began to view them from a different perspective. Essentially we perceived the course objectives as a sample of the many operational areas that students can master in relating to selected content. The

¹⁹For more details on the analysis of this report see Loc. cit., Cummin, "The Assessment Procedure," in Competency-Based Education in Social Work, edited by Arkava and Brennen, 1976, p. 64.

²⁰Ibid., In David E. Cummin's words, "we were attracted to Boehm's conceptualization of four core activities of social work that apply across the traditional methods of casework, groundwork, community organization, administration, and research." He view social work as having problem-solving functions and he identified the four core activities as: (1) assessing the problem, (2) planning for the solution of the problem, (3) implementing the plan, and (4) evaluating the outcome.

content on which learning objectives should focus are usually found in the course descriptions. What seems to be expected of the faculty is not that they create an unrelated objective sample, but that the objectives they choose are in accord with the course content. For this reason we took the position that the course description was a rational basis from which course objectives could be derived and that the manner in which they are to be formulated was a creative act of the instructor in educational practice.

We also discussed some of the potential problems inherent in other positions. For example, when individuals are left with absolute freedom to decide what the objectives sample for a given course would be, there is no way to insure uniformity in the intellectual operations and/or the minimum level of learning selected for the students. This situation was recognized as a critical area affecting the boundaries of the educational continuum and therefore should be monitored in a professional, responsible way. Consequently, we began to theorize that if learning objectives for required courses were agreed upon by a community of appropriate faculty, this might be the beginning of a process for insuring uniformity on what social work students are expected to learn at appropriate levels.

Basis for Opposing Arguments

We went on considering possible bases for arguments that opponents to that position might formulate. Three major sources for such arguments were identified: academic

freedom, limitation on creativity, and fear of exposure.

Academic Freedom

Advocates of academic freedom continuously object to schemes or approaches that they view as impairing the fulfillment of the purpose of higher education, i.e., teaching and research. As the argument goes, "Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth. Academic freedom in its teaching aspect is fundamental for the protection of the rights of the teacher in teaching and of the students' freedom in learning."²¹ Although these statements are strong, there are recent reports which attest to the changes that are taking place particularly in respect to its principles. For instance, The American Association of University Professors has reported:

In the thirty years since their promulgation, the Principles of the 1940 Statement on Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure have undergone a substantial amount of refinement. This has evolved through a variety of processes, including customary acceptance, understandings mutually arrived at between institutions and professors or their representatives, investigations and reports by the American Association of University Professors, and formulation of statements by the Association either alone or in conjunction with the Association of American Colleges.²²

²¹The American Association of University Professors, "Academic Freedom and Tenure: 1940 Statement of Principles and Interpretative Comments," Bulletin, LXIV, No. 2 (May 1978), p. 109.

²²*Ibid.*, p. 110; For more documentation see also pp. 93-98 and Vol. LXIV (March 1978), pp. 36-54.

The above stated changes are only a few of the conditions under which individual faculty members in social work educational programs can now enjoy academic freedom. There are other institutional and organizational factors impacting upon the limits of academic freedom. Arkava and Brennen have shed some light into this area with the statement:

Graduate and undergraduate programs in social work are regulated through the activities of the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) and by accrediting organizations. The social work baccalaureate program is now a practice credential, and this credentialing function is the responsibility of educational institutions. The credibility of the baccalaureate graduate rests on the assumption that social work educators are responsible for monitoring the quality of their graduates and that they possess relevant practice.²³

The preceding statements support our contention that social work educators acting alone are not really free to decide everything about the curriculum by themselves. There are system's constraints on individual freedom that a social work educator must respect when deciding what should be taught and for what purpose. One of these constraints is the course description. Course descriptions have been long utilized as a tool in educational institutions to express faculty consensus on the minimal content that a faculty is expected to teach. Some course descriptions even state the procedures that will be followed in the course

²³Morton L. Arkava and E. Clifford Brennen, "Quality Control in Social Work Education," in Competency Based Education for Social Work, edited by Arkava and Brennen (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 4.

(i.e., internships, field work, independent studies).

This should not imply that academic freedom has been subverted. For academic freedom and professional elitism is still the basis for faculty representation in divisional curriculum committees, college-wide committees, course of study committees, and college councils. All these structures make curricular decisions that the faculty must implement. Once the course description has been approved throughout these decision-making levels, the faculty person assigned to teach a course is expected to follow the minimal expectations prescribed therein. Some will argue, however, that if a faculty person disagrees with the course description, he has a professional responsibility to see that it is changed, and this is true. But he must bear in mind that in order to change it he must go through the same mechanisms that originally acted on the course description.

The implication of the preceding statements for the professional educator seems to be that he must seek ways for balancing, at times, conflicting views. Based on this premise, we took the position that when faculty, acting collectively, engaged themselves in a process to formulate and agree upon proposed sets of course objectives, they are fostering the advancement of educational practice in a manner which is consistent with notions of accountability and academic freedom. When they decide as a group what students are expected to do after they have completed the course, the chances for more clarity and better understand-

ing can be greatly improved. Assuming further, that course content (the detailed topical outline) and daily learning objectives are developed in accordance with the agreed upon course objectives, the chances for uniform learning among students may be also increased. Although we did not ascertain in this study the extent of uniform learning of the students, we would like to recommend that this be done in future studies.

Creativity

The term creativity implies ability to be inventive or productive. Richard W. Burns has eloquently surmised what advocates of creativity have said:

Advocates of creativity usually articulate viewpoints variously labeled as humanistic, biologic, or developmental that often lead to denial of the desirability of objectives in education. These viewpoints stress the uniqueness of the individual. Humans are not machines to be assembled in uniform fashion, nor are they animals to be trained efficiently. Each human being is an individual, who should grow and flourish without restraint. The teacher's role is that of an artistic guide, who manipulates the environment to provide optional conditions where each learner may develop at his own pace and his own unique way. The learner knows his own wants, desires and needs better than anyone else does. He best can choose his own learning experiences and goals and he can perform his own self-evaluation. Those who adopt this viewpoint often regard behavioral objectives as scarcely distinguished demons, whose function is to kill curiosity, stifle creativity, dehumanize education, and in general to produce robots instead of human beings.

²⁴Richard W. Burns, "The Central Notion of Explicit Objectives" in Competency-Based Teacher Education: Progress, Problems, and Prospects, ed by Robert Houston and Robert W. Howsam (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 20.

Obviously those who hold those views described by Burns will see as a hindrance to creativity a situation where the instructor, other than those who were involved in the process, comes to teach a course and finds a set of learning objectives already prescribed for him. But we submit that this same situation can be viewed from a different prospective. The opportunity to be inventive is still there for that instructor. He must formulate more specific objectives to guide his lesson. This he can do on his own. Furthermore, the opportunity for being productive would increase as the instructor is released from the time that is normally consumed in the planning and formulation of major course objectives. The time saved for him increases the time he can now spend in developing his course and formulating more specific objectives of his own.

Fear of Exposure

Fear of exposure as any other kind of fear is a reaction of apprehension to the threat of being found out.²⁵ Fear and anxiety are closely related concepts. "Because the writing of objectives is to some degree a creative process, some individuals are more effective than others in this task."²⁶

²⁵Morris K. Holland, Professor in Psychology defines fear as "The reaction of dread or apprehension to a specific threatening object . . ." See Morris K. Holland, Psychology: An Introduction to Human Behavior, Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Co., 1978), XXX Index/Glossary.

²⁶Robert Houston and Robert W. Howsam, Competency-Based Teacher Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1972), p. 27.

The data on page 110, which we used to summarize the objective orientation of participating faculty in this study, reflects individual differences among this group in respect to their objective orientation. Further data presented in Table 3, in this chapter, will also evidence that these faculty did not attain the same degree of development as measured by their capacity to formulate learning objectives expressed in behavioral terms. The point is that faculty persons who perceived these differentials among them, in all probability, will develop some anxiety at the mere thought that they have to submit their work to others for judgement. If this is true, it would be reasonable to assume that some faculty persons may react apprehensively to a threat of being found out.

We are of the opinion that, in our day, most schools require peer and students' evaluation of their faculty and that this requirement is not different from what we have in mind. In fact, we call our setting a professional development situation, where no one should view himself more expert than the other. We created a forum where the faculty learn from each other and their comments served as feedback to nourish the developmental process. This was a situation which provided for participants an opportunity to further their professional growth by being able to work together, by developing a sense of confidence, and by improving on their capacity to formulate clear and communicable objectives. The extent to which the faculty openly participated in the

entire process actually determined the degree of competence they developed in formulating learning objectives. The data which support this contention can be found in Chapter V of this report.

As stated earlier, current practice in faculty evaluation call for peer and students' judgement in determining teachers' effectiveness. That is to say, for faculty to submit part of their work to scrutiny to others is not new. The feedback that they get from students and peers can greatly enhance their professional development and future learning. In all probability, that feedback can build upon teachers' confidence, stimulate their creativity, and can serve as a diminishing factor for their state of fear.

Seeking Agreement on Course Objectives

Orienting the Social Work Faculty Toward a Common Objective Orientation

In practice, there are four major orientations to the formulation of course objectives. Two of them, known as the general instructional purpose and the specific instructional objectives, have been adequately described by C. M. Lindvall. As he states, "persons influenced by the general purpose orientation tend to state learning objectives in such vague form that any teacher can look at them and no matter what he does with his class, can convince him-

self that these are the purposes that guide his teaching."²⁷ A person guided by the specific instructional objective orientation would be able to formulate learning objectives that indicate exactly what the students will be able to do and what changes in attitudes and behavior they will evidence after instruction.

The other two orientations expand on those identified by Lindvall. In one, the person exhibits a tendency to make statements from a teacher's perspective (e.g., what the instructor is going to do, or what the content or procedure will do for the students). In the other, the objectives is written from a student's perspective (i.e., a statement of what a successful learner will be able to do at the end of instruction).

We used these categories as reference points to determine faculty orientations. The participating instructors were asked to bring to a workshop five syllabi they have developed containing written objectives. These objectives were then analyzed against the above categories and the results of the analysis were placed in a form (see Fig. 1) designed for this purpose. Subject orientations were characterized within two dichotomies: general or specific and

²⁷C. M. Lindvall, ed., Defining Educational Objectives, A Report of the Regional Commission on Educational Coordination and the Learning Research and Development Center (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, Fourth Printing 1969), pp. 1-2.

Fig. 1

Faculty		Form A-1			
Course No.	Objective No.	Objective Orientations Gen. Spec. Stud. Faculty			

student or faculty oriented. The resulting data are presented in Table 1. The data shown in Table 1 evidence vari-

Table 1. Summary of Faculty Objectives Orientation before Entering the Program

Objective Orientation	No. of Faculty n = 4
General Specific	3 1
Student Oriented Faculty Oriented	2 2

ations in the social work faculty's orientation when they entered the process. Three of the social work faculty in the program had a general objective orientation, while only one had a specific objective orientation. In respect to

the second dichotomy, two of the instructors exhibited a faculty objective orientation and the other two a student objective orientation. These findings pointed out that in order to continue the process for formulating learning objectives, it was necessary to bring all participants to a uniform orientation, "student-specific." It was assumed that changes in objective orientations could occur more rapidly if faculty were presented with a conceptual base for guiding the change.

Criteria for Formulating Learning Objectives

Thus, the next step in the process was to agree upon a uniform orientation for guiding the formulation of objective statements. We sought for criteria in the literature on behavioral objectives and on competency-based education. We were able to focus on the frequently cited work of Robert Mager. In his words:

First, identify the terminal behavior by name; you can specify the kind of behavior that will be accepted as evidence that the learner has achieved the objective. Second, try to define the desired behavior further by describing the important conditions under which the behavior will be expected to occur, and third, specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable. ²⁸

Mager's three-step process for formulating behavioral objectives served as the conceptual framework by which participants in the project were to be guided in formulating future learn-

²⁸Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives (Belmont, California: Fearmon Press, 1962), p. 12.

ing objectives.

An Approach for Facilitating Agreement

One of the project's goals was to be able to formulate course objectives in a way that the social work faculty as a group could agree upon. Using the three steps cited above, we set ourselves to formulate course objectives independently at first, and later act upon them collectively. We distributed among ourselves all the courses that were required in the social work sequence. The distribution was made on a basis of courses that we had taught, intended to teach, or would like to teach. As a result, one person agreed to formulate course objectives for SW 338, Social Welfare and Social Policy and SW 321, Intermediate Casework; a second person accepted similar responsibility for SW 320, Intermediate Casework and SW 220, Introduction to Social Work Practice; a third person agreed to formulate the course objectives for SW 457, Community Organization. A timetable of two weeks was agreed for drafting the first objective sets.

Upon completion of the objective draft sets, we moved into the next step, to attempt to reach agreement on the objectives. To facilitate the process, we adopted an approach previously utilized by Dr. Hank Olsen in developing the Medgar Evers' Teachers Competency-Based Program.²⁹ The pro-

²⁹Dr. Hank Olsen served as consultant to the author on matters of processes on competency-based education. He designed and directed the Medgar Evers' Teachers Competency-Based Education Program from 1970-1975.

cedure which he recommended and that we followed was quite simple. Each proposed objective was voted "yes" or "no" by all participants. Prior to the voting, participants were instructed to vote without giving any consideration to the technical conditions of the objective. The critical aim was to accept or reject the objective for its substance. A unanimous "yes" would indicate agreement; an unanimous "no" vote would indicate rejection and, a mixed vote would indicate that further discussion on the objective was necessary. The table below indicates the results that were obtained in the first ballot. The data highlight the disparity evi-

Table 2. First Ballot Results While Attempting to Agree on Course Objectives (n = 3 faculty voting)

Course No.	Objective Number and Yes Votes													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
SW220	3	2	2	0	2	1	2	2	1	3	3	3	3	2
SW320	2	1	0	1	2	0								
SW321	2	3	1	2	1	3	3	2	3	2				
SW338	3	2	2	3	2	2	0	0	0	0				
SW457	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	3	0	2

denced by the choice of this group of social work educators in the process. The proponent of the objectives for SW 338 and SW 321 presented a total of twenty objectives. Six of them (30%) received unanimous yes, while four (20%) received

unanimous no, and ten (50%) received mixed votes. The proponent for SW 220 and SW 320 submitted also twenty objectives; five (25%) of which received unanimous yes, while three (15%) received unanimous no, and twelve (60%) received mixed votes. The proponent for SW 457 proposed fourteen objectives with six (43%) receiving unanimous yes, one (7%) receiving unanimous no, and seven (50%) receiving mixed votes.

After the first ballot, results were recorded, and we proceeded to discuss those objectives with mixed votes. Concerns raised were predominantly around meaning of words, intentions and expectations. These discussions became time consuming, tedious, and some were delicate to handle at certain times. Various techniques were utilized to keep much of the discussion on issues and out of individual philosophies and emotions. Frequently, it was necessary to have short recesses or postpone discussion for a later time. Occasionally, it was necessary to quote from resource materials. In some instances we had to recess until the next day.

Where there appeared to be consensus on the issue discussed, the moderator immediately called for a vote. Most of the votes taken under this condition resulted in unanimous yes. Careful attention was also given to discussions which appeared to be moving the majority of the faculty toward a no vote. In those cases, the moderator asked for a substitute objective statement. Almost every substitute statement resulted in an unanimous yes vote.

Applying Robert Mager's Criteria to the Competency-Based Objectives

The project's design called for the utilization of the original course objectives, presented by the instructors, as a data base for computing their respective first improvement scores. It also required that these course objectives, which were approved by the faculty, be improved upon by incorporating into each statement Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives. As required by the original design, we will report on both activities in this subsection. First, we will describe what was done in the process for improving the faculty approved course objectives. Second, we will present the final version of the course objectives that resulted from the entire process. Finally, we will introduce the measurement data which was used to gauge the faculty improvement in this part of the process.

In order to keep each of these tasks separate, we duplicated all the original objectives sets prepared by each faculty member before any of these objectives were submitted to the process of agreement. Each of the fifty-four course objectives submitted by the faculty, was written in the appropriate space shown in the form below. Subsequently, each of these course objectives was examined by the other two instructors who were not involved in their original formulation. Based upon the consensus reached appropriate ratings for each criteria were entered into the form. The ratings contained in these forms served two purposes. They were used as data

Fig. 2

Course No. _____	Form 0-2
Objectives _____	

a. Does the objective identify the terminal behavior by name? 1/ ☐ definitely yes 2/ ☐ to some extent 3/ ☐ definitely no	
b. Does the objective define the desired behavior further by describing the conditions under which the behavior will be expected to occur? 1/ ☐ definitely yes 2/ ☐ to some extent 3/ ☐ definitely no	
c. Does the objective specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable? 1/ ☐ definitely yes 2/ ☐ to some extent 3/ ☐ definitely no	

base to measure the participants' respective first improvement scores (see Tables 4 and 7), and as guides to facilitate the incorporation of Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives into the competency-based statements.

It should be noted that the number of course objectives that were finally developed (see pages 120-131), and the number of objectives which were used to compute the participants' first improvement scores, are not the same. The reason for this discrepancy is that although fifty-four course objectives

were originally submitted by the faculty, eight of them were rejected during the process used for reaching agreement. Additionally, three new objectives were added to the package at this particular time. However, none of these changes affected the data which were used to register the faculty's first improvement scores (see Table 7).

In order to proceed with the task of improving on the course objectives statements, the eight forms corresponding to the rejected objectives were removed from the total package since no further work was required. Two forms were replaced by two new ones that resulted from substitute objectives introduced while the faculty were attempting to reach agreement. Additionally, three new forms were added to include three new objectives introduced during the process of reaching agreement. After all these changes were made, the net number of forms included in the total package was 49. This is the number that corresponds with the total number of objectives presented in the text.

Having adjusted these forms, we proceeded to organize them into sets which would facilitate the application of Mager's criteria to the course objectives. The total number of forms were divided into three different packages. Each package was determined by the rating given to the course objective in criterion a. That is, the first set composed of those objectives which received the rating of "definitely no" in criterion a. The second set was composed of those objectives with ratings of "to some extent" in criterion a. And

the third set was comprised of those objectives which received ratings of "definitely no" in criterion a. Having these three packages organized, we started to work with that package where the terminal behaviors in the course objectives were identified by names. The first job was to work on criterion b. If the rating for criterion b indicated "definitely yes," no further work was done to that objective in respect to that criterion. However, if the ratings were "to some extent," or "definitely no," we made every effort to incorporate new words, or to substitute for others that more appropriately described the conditions under which the behaviors were expected to occur. After all the work in criterion b was completed, we proceeded to do the same in criterion c.

When all the work on the first package was completed, we began to work on the second package. As stated earlier, this package was comprised of forms in which the ratings for the objectives in criterion a were "to some extent." Therefore, our first task in this particular package was to modify those words in the objective which were specifically designed to identify the specific behavior by name. Throughout the process, it was found that most objectives contained words which were open to a wide range of interpretations. Included among these words were: "to know," "to understand," "to appreciate," "to grasp the significance of," "to have faith in." Whenever possible, we substituted those words for others which were open to fewer interpretations. For

example, instead of "to know" we used "to write," instead of "to understand" we used "to recite" or "to identify," instead of "to appreciate" we used "to differentiate," and so on.

In other instances we substituted for "to know" and "understand" a whole set of operations that together specifically described what the learner would be doing when demonstrating that he knew or understood. Such a situation is exemplified in objective two of SW 220 (see page 121). That objective as originally submitted read, "Students will know the task functions of the social worker and understand how these functions are enacted through the practitioner's helping role." As indicated later in its modified version, the objective reads as follows: "After becoming familiar with general models for professional practice in social work, students will be able to: (a) identify a minimum of four task functions carried out by social workers, (b) explain how these task functions are enacted through the practitioner's helping role, (c) describe social work as a social institutional method of helping people, and (d) present a position that views social work as an art of helping.

Upon completion of these objectives that needed work on criterion element a, we continued to do more work on them in criteria b and c. The principles employed were the same as those mentioned in describing the work which was done in the first package. Whenever the rating given to the objective on a particular criterion was "to some extent" or "definitely no," we substituted words or incorporated new

ones until we were certain that the rating for the given criterion would be changed to "definitely yes." When the second package was completed, we proceeded to work with the third set. After we were certain that every objective had an identifiable behavior by name, we proceeded to modify them further, depending on the ratings that were recorded for criteria b and c. The final product of this part of the process can best be judged by examining the course objectives which are presented below.

A. The Learning Objectives Sets

In this subsection, we will present the social work course descriptions as approved by the College and the corresponding learning objectives that the faculty were able to agree upon. As stated earlier these forty-nine course objectives are the final version of the modified competency-based statements and should not be confused with the fifty-four course objectives which were originally submitted by the social work faculty.

SW 220--Introduction to Social Work Practice

This course introduces the student to basic patterns of professional social work practice in the areas of casework, group work, community organization, policy, research, and administration. The student will become acquainted with a generic and distinctive theoretical framework for practice, as well as the traditional methods and processes of intervention as they relate to change and pressures in the current scene.

Competency-based objectives:

1. Given written instructions by the instructor students will be able to ascertain from a given article the evolution practice in social agencies from the Scott's Charitable Society (1657) to the National Association of Social Workers (1955).
2. After becoming familiar with general models for professional practice in social work, students will be able to:
 - a. identify a minimum of four tasks functions carried out by social workers. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin's view.
 - b. explain how these task functions are enacted through the practitioner's helping role.
 - c. describe social work as a social institutional method of helping people.
 - d. present a position that views social work as an art of helping.
3. After sufficient instruction on the helping process students will be able to identify two basic requirements for social functioning.
4. Given a paradigma of task functions students will be able to chart a task role intervention model for social work practice with individuals and social systems. Criteria for assessment--the model must include system task functions, outcomes, helping processes, and helping roles.
5. Without any assistance from the instructor, students

will be able to:

a. recall two main line of activities of the social worker. Criteria for assessment--Clark Chamber's view.

b. specify the object of change when attacking the social disorganization aspect of a social problem.

c. specify the means by which social workers have addressed the deviant behavioral aspect of social problems.

6. Given a set of value orientations students will be able to recall four related practice principles. Criteria for assessment--The Code of Ethics of the Profession.

7. After reading assigned writings on social work knowledge students will be able to support the argument "social work utilizes ethical and technical practice principles as guides for effective social work action."

8. Given specific references, selected by the instructor, students will be able to identify patterns illustrating how social work forms and dissolves alliances with other disciplines. Criteria for assessment--Excerpts from Max Siporin.

9. After having read assigned readings on "The Basic Helping Approach," students will be able to describe what social workers do. They will also identify strands of thought and belief that guide the social workers' actions. Criteria for assessment--Chapter 5 in Max Siporin, 1975.

10. After completing assigned readings on "special and eclectic approaches," students will be able to recall and

characterize six (6) theoretical orientations utilized by social workers. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin's analyses of special orientations.

11. Given a specific situation, described by the instructor, students will be able to identify central professional concerns which must be considered while: a. doing intake; b. providing for access, and c. maximizing motivation.

12. Given the same situation students will be expected to identify six important guidelines they must follow in developing a service contract. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin's guidelines.

13. After reading Chapter 9 in Max Siporin, but without looking at the textbook, students will be able to identify four essential questions that an assessment should tell. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin, p. 221.

14. After assigned reading and appropriate class discussion on problem solving, students will be able to identify three basic principles that apply to the task of formulating a problem. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin, p. 233.

15. After class discussion on the subject "Interventions," students will be able to identify eight basic direct interventions, that a social worker can use to provide for community resources. Criteria for assessment--Max Siporin's enumeration, pp. 310-311.

SW 320--Intermediate Casework

This course extends and deepens the understanding of the study, diagnosis, and treatment phases in the psycho-

social methods of casework in analyzing cases, involving problems in parent-child relationships, marital and other family conflicts, physical and mental illness and conflicts within society. Comparisons are made of various casework models and approaches.

Competency-base objectives

1. After having studied a specific set of assigned readings on casework models, students will be able to:
 - a. identify and specify alternative casework models they can use in casework practice.
 - b. characterize the helping process for each model.
 - c. cite the central or critical casework technique(s) for each model.
 - d. cite the basic assumption(s) for each model in relation to its usefulness as a helping process.
 - e. identify a major contributor associated with each model.
 - f. compare the treatment methods by citing similarities and differences in the alternatives.
2. After being exposed to role playing practices, students will be able to utilize role playing in:
 - a. clarifying problems.
 - b. establishing rapport and developing a supportive atmosphere.
 - c. providing information.
 - d. helping the client to make his own decisions

in outlining a plan for intervention.

3. After gaining familiarity with guidelines for process recording, students will be able to do process recording for a given case study. Criteria for assessment--Annette Garrette's guidelines.

4. After being exposed to appropriate knowledge, selected by the instructor, students will be able to identify the various components of a psycho-social summary.

5. After appropriate discussion and assigned readings, selected by the instructor, students will be able to cite how conjoint family therapy (Satir) and "working with the entire family unit" (Ackerman) deal with faulty communication.

SW 321--Intermediate Casework

This course extends and deepens the understanding of the wide theoretical background of group processes emphasizing an eclectic approach to group work practice. A set of practical eclectic techniques, methods, and instruments are demonstrated through in-classroom guided practice, development of skills, and insight. Role playing and recording are key instruments used to develop understanding and awareness.

Competency-based objectives:

1. After reading designated articles on the history of group-work and given written instructions by the instructor, student will be able to trace the historical emergence of groupwork as a professional designation and as a method in generic practice. Criteria for assessment--Roberts and Northern, Theories of Social Work with Groups (Columbia Uni-

versity Press, 1976), pp. 1-74; or Konopka Gisela, Social Groupwork: A Helping Process, pp. 1-28.

2. After having read assigned readings on the theoretical orientations and basic assumptions of group work, students will be able to delineate the structural properties of group dynamics and to list the theoretical orientations of group work. Criteria for assessment--Douglas, Tom, Groupwork Practice (International University Press, 1976), pp. 11-29.

3. After appropriate readings and class discussions, students will be able to:

- a. make two checklists, one simple and one complex, for starting a group.
- b. enumerate five kinds of groups.
- c. enumerate four main areas for classifying groups. Criteria for assessment--Klein's view.
- d. enumerate six activities to use in any type of group.
- e. outline the nine parameters of groupwork.

4. After having read assigned material, students will be able to explain why purpose, selection, and initial contract create problems during the initial stage of groupwork. Criteria for assessment--Chapter 2, in Douglas.

5. After appropriate readings and discussions on client involvement, students will be able to answer correctly a minimum of five questions out of seven presented by the instructor. These questions will be aimed to specify the de-

gree of client involvement in treatment and changing behavior contracts.

6. After having completed assigned reading on setting forth a groupwork contract, students will be able to specify six possible agreements in setting a groupwork contract with democratic expectations. Criteria for assessment--Klein's Chapter 6, "Effective Groupwork" (Albany: AP SUNNY, 1972).

7. After appropriate class discussions and having completed assigned readings, selected by the instructor, students will be able to identify and describe two main categories of leadership functions.

8. After having completed assigned readings, selected by the instructor, and appropriate class discussion, students will be able to specify guidelines for group work interventions. Criteria for assessment--Douglas, Chapter 4, p. 77.

9. Given a group work problem, selected by the instructor, students will be able to identify stages, dynamic characteristics, frame of references, and groupwork focus. Criteria for assessment--Bernstein, Saul, Exploration in Groupwork (Charles River Books, Inc., 1976), pp. 26-68.

10. Given a specific problem formulated by the student, students will be able to identify professional concerns that a social worker must consider when composing a treatment plan. SW 338--Social Welfare and Social Policy

The evolution of social services in the United States from the beginning of the century to the present will be studied. Specific references will be made in regard to the

social welfare movement, covering such topics as the growth of settlement houses, social security, adoption, foster care and public assistance. The regulatory control exercised by federal, state, and municipal government in the area of social policy will be examined.

Competency-based objectives:

1. After reviewing assigned literature on social welfare policy, students will be able to recall definitions of social policy and social welfare policy. Criteria for assessment--definitions by Kahn, Rein, and Gil.
2. After completing this course, students will be able to cite current arguments on the purposes and functions of social welfare policy.
3. Upon completion of the course, students will be able to recognize relationships between social work practice and social welfare policy analysis. Criteria for assessment--Gilbert and Specht, pp. 12-14.
4. By the end of the course, students will be able to describe at least four models for policy analysis. Criteria for assessment--Perlman and Gurin's problem solving process; Freeman and Sherwood's social policy development process; Gilbert and Specht's dimensions of choice, and Gil's framework for policy analysis.
5. Given a social welfare policy, selected by the instructor, student will be able to apply David Gil's model for:
 - a. enumerating the domains of concern to society which constitute the focus of the policy.
 - b. explaining how the policy affects each domain

in substantive terms.

c. stating how society as a whole is affected by the consequences of the policy.

d. identifying the affects of the policy interaction with various forces within and outside the society.

e. formulating at least one alternative policy which could be designed to achieve the same objectives.

6. Given the same social welfare policy, students will be able to apply Gilbert and Specht's model for policy analysis to identify the:

a. bases of social allocation.

b. the nature of social provisions.

c. structure of the delivery system.

d. mode of finance.

SW 457--Community Organization

This course explores techniques of community organization with an emphasis on metropolitan ghettos, senior citizens, and youth programs. Community development, community planning, and community action organizational models will be examined.

Competency-based objectives:

1. After studying Rothman's three models of community organization practice and Ross' conceptions of community work, students will be able to enumerate and describe three major models of the community organization method.

2. After becoming familiar with major models of the community organization method, students will select one, in order to enumerate and describe a minimum of three approaches

that have been utilized by practioners in the selected model. Criteria for assessment--Ross, pp. 3-30.

3. Following Ross' syntheisi of prevailing methods in community organization, students will be able to write or state the steps a social worker must take when functioning as an "external agent" in a foreign country. Criteria for assessment--Ross' views, pp. 3-30.

4. After becoming familiar with the community organization's multiple approach, students will be able to write the steps a social worker will take when employing the multiple approach to assist community people in alleviating conditions resulting from an introduction of a new industry in their community. Criteria for assessment--Ross, pp. 11-14.

5. After completing assigned readings on the "inner-resources" and the "external agent" approaches, students will be able to identify fundamental differences and similarities between the two approaches. Criteria for assessment--Ross, pp. 8-10 and 14-17.

6. After becoming familiar with definitional problems on the concept community organization, students will be able to define community organization as a process. Criteria for assessment--Ross, Chapter 2.

7. Given a set of different communities, students will be able to identify the geographic and the functional communities in the set with 8-% accuracy. The set shall consist of ten items.

8. After reading Ross an planning and community integration, students will be able to identify essential aspects

of the community organization process. Criteria for assessment--Ross, pp. 51-60.

9 After reading about and discussing "community organization as a social work process," students will be able to identify the professional expectations of:

- a. the objectives of community organization.
- b. behavior in the community setting.
- c. his association with the community organization process.

Criteria for assessment--Ross, pp. 61-72.

10. Upon completion of assigned readings on community life, students will be able to identify ten hypotheses of community life from a check list of fifteen items. Criteria for assessment--at least eight of the hypotheses presented by Ross in Chapter 4.

11. After completing assigned readings on the planning process, students will be able to identify and discuss briefly the steps that are generally recognized in the planning process. Criteria for assessment--Ross, Chapter 5.

12. After reading about and discussing principles of organization, students will be able to identify specific principles governing discontent and association in a program. Criteria for assessment--Ross' views, pp. 157-202.

13. After having presented in class the roles of the professional workers, students will be able to discuss adequately two of the following roles: the guide role, the enabler role, the expert role, and the social therapist role. Criteria for assessment--Ross' views, pp. 203-231.

B. Recording Data to Measure Faculty Improvement

Another use in this project of Robert Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives was to assist in measuring faculty improvement. As stated earlier, Form 0-2, presented on page 116, was intended to serve as a tool for collecting faculty improvement data. The fifty-four course objectives, originally developed by the social work faculty, were examined against Robert Mager's criteria, and the results of these examinations were appropriately recorded in a corresponding form 0-2 for each objective. The data recorded in the fifty-four original forms are presented in the table below.

Table 3. Number of Times each Criterion was Met in the Course Objectives Originally Developed by the Social Work Faculty

Faculty	Course No.	No. of original objectives submitted	No. of Times ea. Criterion was Met								
			1	$\frac{a}{2}$	3	1	$\frac{b}{2}$	3	1	$\frac{c}{2}$	3
A	220	14	7	5	2	1	0	13	4	6	4
A	320	6	1	3	2	1	0	5	1	2	3
B	321	10	3	4	3	5	3	2	2	3	5
B	338	10	1	6	3	0	3	7	1	2	7
C	457	14	10	3	1	1	12	1	5	4	5
	Totals	54	22	21	11	8	18	28	13	17	24

Note: a, b, c stands for the respective criteria (see Form 0-2).

1 = definitely yes; 2 = to some extent; 3 = definitely no.

Table 4. Number of Times Each Criterion was Met by the Social Work Faculty in the Objectives they Brought for Examination before Entering the Program

Faculty	Number of Objectives	Number of Times Each Criterion was Met								
		a			b			c		
		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
A	20	5	6	9	0	0	20	2	0	18
B	20	3	7	10	2	4	14	1	3	16
C	20	5	6	9	0	9	11	3	0	17
Totals	60	13	19	28	2	13	45	6	3	51

Note: a, b, c stands for the respective criteria (see Form 0-2).

1 = definitely yes; 2 = to some extent; 3 = definitely no.

The data recorded in Tables 3 and 4 were intended to show the usefulness of Mager's criteria in recording data which eventually will be used to analyze faculty improvement (see Table 7). The data in Table 4 shows a relatively low capacity in these instructors' abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. The data in Table 3, represent these instructors respective improvements achieved during the preparatory phase of the project. Using the percentage indicator, one can see that Faculty A improved from 11.7 percentage points to 25 percent. Faculty B improved from a 12 percentage point to 20 percent. Faculty C improved from 16 percentage points to 33.3 percent. Since there was no uniform increase in relation to their original scores, one

can reasonably say that individual differences among these faculty still account for some of the differences in their improvement scores. More analysis of these data will follow in Chapter V of this text.

Preparations for the Implementation Phase

One approach to competency-based education prescribes that after major competency-based areas have been identified, the program should proceed to operationally define each of these areas by developing more related competencies with greater specificity. Another approach suggests that one moves from competence identification into instrumentation. A third approach, which is in essence an extension of the first, requires that after having operationally defined the competencies one moves to the selection of topics which are consistent with the operational definitions of the competency areas.

Although all of these approaches have been praised as superior, none of them was followed in this study for pragmatic reasons. For instance, we did not follow the first approach because we became very concerned with the criticisms leveled against competency-based teacher's education programs which have formulated hundreds of learning objectives for educational modules that must be completed within a relatively short period of time. Secondly, we became apprehensive in attempting to reach agreement on too many competencies with greater specificity. Thirdly, we all became over concerned with the limitations of time that dissertation

projects impose upon students.

For these reasons, we began to concentrate on the method or approach that we would be using in the implementation phase. The project design called for a strategy that will keep the faculty in the process while providing them with more practice in applying the criteria elements to the learning objectives with the greater specificity that they were able to develop. This would be done while they were teaching assigned courses and the author was collecting the data which was required for this report. With these considerations in mind, we proceeded to review instruments for data collection which had been located or developed.

Facilitating the formulation of specific competencies

Formulating specific competencies in the form of learning objectives was viewed as the most critical continuing activity of the faculty process. It was through this activity that the faculty were expected to continue improving in their ability to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. This activity was also viewed as the only opportunity which we have in producing the necessary data that was needed to examine faculty improvement. Form No. 3 presented as Figure 3, constitutes the instrument which was developed for this purpose.

Data from students

We looked at the students as an important source of data in this project. For this reason we proceeded to identify what kinds of data were needed and for what purpose.

Fig. 3

Form 3	
Course # _____	
Major Competence: (Course Objective) _____	

Specific Competencies: (Please list the specific competencies (learning sub-objectives) that you have formulated for the students in relation to the above competency area)	
Assessment Techniques: (Which of the following techniques did you use to assess the competence or competencies?)	
☐ Simulated practice situations	☐ Direct assessment of actual work samples
☐ Tulane Assessment Scale for Caseworkers	☐ An independent assessment panel
☐ Teacher's observation	☐ Written examination of cognitive practice items
☐ Oral examination of cognitive practice items	☐ Written documentation of practice competence
☐ Pre-post assessment instruments	☐ Post assessment
☐ Criterion-referenced testing	☐ Norm-referenced testing
☐ Others: (Please list) _____	

Uses of basic data, attitudinal data, and hard data reflecting students' achievement were discussed. We reviewed some instruments developed in other programs for eliciting students' basic data. After these reviews, we decided to develop a simple instrument for collecting students' demographic data which was capable of incorporating some of the items from those which are most frequently asked in similar instruments. Form No. 4, presented as Appendix II, was the result of these reviews and discussions. Initially it was decided to administer this instrument at the end of each semester. Later on, it was recognized that the data was not relevant to this phase of the project and its administration was postponed.

Another area which we considered important in relation to students' data was faculty evaluation. We looked for instruments that have been developed in other institutions for students to evaluate faculty. Among those that were located, two of them attracted our attention. These instruments are presented as Appendixes III and IV. More discussion on these evaluation questionnaires and on the data which was collected by administering one of them will be presented in Chapter V.

Summary and Discussion

This rather descriptive chapter is reflective of a curriculum development effort which is in a state of flux. It foreshadows the beginning of a faculty process that social work education can use to bring groups of social work faculty to work together, improve on their capacity to develop learn-

ing objectives, and consequently expect some uniformity in the curriculum. While many preparatory activities have preceded the actual production of uniform objectives for every course, the bulk of the efforts to bring the social work faculty to work together can be placed within a three semesters period preceding the Spring term of 1980.

Four forces--three internal and one external--provided the impetus for the heightened level of activity in this project. First, the host college was familiar with competency-based education. Medgar Evers has been offering a competency-based teacher's education program since 1970. Second, the Public Administration Program of the College is a past recipient of a three year FIPSE grant, intended to develop a competency-based model for the teaching of undergraduate public administration. Finally, faculty efforts to bring about changes in the social work curriculum has been a long standing interest of the academic division where the program was located. The courses targeted for change were originally part of a defunct Inner-Cities Baccalaureate Program and are now offered as a specialty within the B.S. degree in Public Administration.

The external force which provided impetus for these activities is surmised in the critical observations that have been made by the Council on Social Work Education and incorporated in its guidelines. Moved by these forces and influenced by the competency-based literature in social work education the program developer was able to lead the host college

social work faculty into the developmental process described in this report.

A framework for revamping the curriculum was developed. It was assumed that this framework would have the capacity to unify both the social work faculty objective orientations and the curriculum. Central to that framework were the criteria which were utilized to formulate explicit course objectives in behavioral terms. To evidence uniformity, the project utilized perceptual instances of being uniform as expressed by the faculty members.

Although this chapter attends to the function of learning objectives toward the goal of faculty development, it has noted their relative importance in the selection of course content and the role they will eventually play in the selection of items that the instructors can use in constructing their examinations. A unique aspect of the approach used in this faculty development process is its diagnostic-prescriptive character. Faculty were assisted in evaluating their respective objectives orientations before they came into the process. Following that diagnosis, they were given the opportunity to decide on the criteria for judging behavioral objectives. The attempts made by the faculty to formulate course objective in accordance with Robert Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives and the manner in which each instructor judged the objectives presented by the other participants, appear to be good indications of the effect that the literature on competency-

based education can have in bringing about program changes. The time spent and the interest displayed by these faculty throughout the workshops can be added to the group of indicators that can be used to measure the influence of the materials selected for discussion. Based on these observations, although not actually gauged in this project, we were convinced that the literature which was selected were contributing factors toward the development of a more uniform objective orientation. Hence, it is hypothesized that a uniform objective orientation has a potential for furthering their teaching and subsequently the learning of their students. But, in spite of these encouraging notations pointing toward uniformity, there were a series of obstacles that we had to overcome.

Uniformity does not come about because someone wants it to happen. There are a number of things that a project developer must do in order to make it happen. Every social work educator brings into this kind of process his own experiences, style, and methods of doing things. As stated earlier, these variations were reflected in the learning objectives they submitted for analysis. They were further manifested in statements they made while expressing ideas about organizing and presenting material. But in all, we became more aware that teachers skills, intentions, and knowledge are strong determinants of the choices they make of learning objectives.

The data in Table 2 indicate that in twenty-nine of the

fifty-four course objectives submitted by the faculty there was no agreement or disagreement. This relatively large number of mixed votes represented differences that were temporary obstacles to the goal of reaching agreement. We minimized the influence of these differences by suggesting that the absence of agreement was merely an indication of lack of specificity or clarity in the intent sought by the proponent.

Another issue that kept emerging throughout the workshops was how to conform to the given standard for stating the learning objective. Although we agreed to use Robert Mager's criteria as a normative guide, we overlooked what he himself said about this problem. Robert Mager advises:

One need not to consider himself an unmitigated oaf for using such words as 'appreciate' and 'understand' in his statement of objectives, provided you go on to explain what you mean by them. One way to do this is to include the intended meaning in the same statement. Another is to use in an overall objective intended merely to identify the appropriate subject matter, and then to write as many specific statements³⁰ as are necessary to communicate the intent.

Although we were mindful of the vagueness of words which have been long used by educators in educational models, we continued in our attempt to incorporate the criteria in Mager's model. This was done because we thought they were important to insure some uniformity. Later, we found that to incorporate all the criteria in a single statement was not an

³⁰Loc. cit., Robert F. Mager, 1962, p. 11.

easy task. At times it was necessary to state the criterion of acceptable performance as a separate sentence.

Our major goal was to learn how to write learning objectives that communicate the same thing to both faculty and students. On a basis of what the faculty told me, Mager's characteristics were always present in their mind but they found it difficult to incorporate them all in one single statement and at the same time make the statement grammatically correct. When one considers that in 69% of the responses registered for the first ballot the faculty did not achieve initial agreement, it is reasonable to conclude that a relatively low degree of communication existed. It was through the process of discussion that the group was able to bridge the communication gap.

However, this was not done without paying a price. As we attempted to incorporate the three criteria we all sensed a gradual moving away from consensus. In order to prevent this from happening, we had to sacrifice one of the criteria. We began to pay less attention to the requirement of describing how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable. It is therefore recommended that any expectation of full mastery of the three criteria by faculty members in respect to time be set aside for the moment. Faculty process is always slow. Administrators wishing to replicate this study may have to utilize an incremental approach to keep the faculty members in the developmental process. The initial activities of the project should be geared to in-

sure group cohesiveness and a frame of reference to formulate uniform course objectives.

Practice Principles

It has been observed that a professional acts in accord with sound principles.³¹ A professional education consists of experiential learning of the practice principles through which one seeks to become more technically proficient. Adherence to principles enables the social work educator to be more self-directive and competent.³² The preparatory phase of this project has provided us with an experiential setting from which practice principles can be identified.

Two basic propositions guided almost every action taken in the preparatory activities. One is founded on the statement that man is never more human than at the moment of decision. The second states, to feel able to and to be able to choose means being autonomous. From these propositions emerged this principle: if a person is allowed to act a personal position it will heighten his sense of responsibility and competence. Coupled with this principle is another proposition: choices are best made when people are informed and can actively and willingly participate in their making. These propositions were applied on various occasions (e.g., in

³¹Harold Lewis, "Morality and the Politics of Practice," Social Casework, 1972, p. 405.

³²Max Siporin, Introduction to Social Work Practice (New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975), p. 113.

the approaches made to College administrators and to the faculty to insure acceptance of the project; in involving the faculty in identifying the criteria for behavioral objectives, etc.).

From the literature on role theory, one learns that the central concept of social role is understood as a pattern of expected behavior associated with a social system status for an individual.³³ Up to this stage of the developmental process, various roles were assigned to the participants. The faculty acted as "experts" when drafting course objectives sets. They changed role to "decision makers" when voting on the course objectives. They became "institutionalization agents" when engaged in the process of apply selected criteria for behavioral objectives. The practice principles that can be recognized from this role changing situation are as follows: the development of new role conceptions and their effective, satisfactory enactment are powerful influences for situations and for behavior change. Legitimate and appropriate behavior can be expected by creating a social order which is based on social interaction and relationships between people in terms of reciprocal and complementary social roles.

Propositions drawn from the general systems theory were

³³Theodore Sarbin and V. L. Allen, "Role Theory" in Gardner Lindzey and E. Aronson, eds., Handbook of Social Psychology (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1968), I, pp. 488-567.

also useful in this phase of the project (W. A. Lutz, 1956; G. Hearn, 1969; L. Von Bertalanffy, 1968; T. Parson, 1968; and J. G. Miller, 1955). From the reading of this literature, one concludes that a systems model enables the conceptualization of the problem-person-situation of the program as a whole unit. This assertion was translated into the following practice principle: It is important to understand people individually and collectively in order to involve them in a process. However, it was learned eventually that once people are in the process, the facilitator must watch for both functional and dysfunctional actions in respect to conflict. The application of the above principle and the precautions taken in relation to its effects are reflected in the steps that were followed to diagnose the faculty's objective orientations and the approaches that were utilized in the discussions related to the mixed votes.

Another important proposition which we applied in this phase of the process was derived from Erikson's "principle of mutuality" ". . . a relationship in which partners depend on each other for the development of their respective strengths . . ." ³⁴ Individuals engaged in a faculty process must see themselves as professional partners, depending on each other, for the development of their respective strengths so that their individual gains begin to cogwheel with the

³⁴Erik Erikson, Insight and Responsibility (New York: Norton, 1964), pp. 114, 231.

developmental gains of the others which move him along as he moves them. This principle was associated to that step in the process where faculty began to modify their behavior for formulating learning objectives in behavioral terms. As evidenced in the analysis made of their respective course objectives sets (see p. 114), differentiation existed in their respective ability to incorporate all the three criteria for behavioral objectives. These differentiations, however, began to cogwheel as they discussed each other's objectives. The sharing of their respective strengths presented in the form of suggestions became essential toward the improvement of all the objectives as a whole.

In social work, certain propositions have been formulated for the general problem-solving process. One of such propositions used in this project was stated by Donald R. Fessler: "Strong pressures for change in a group can be established by creating a shared perception by members of the need for change, thus making the source of pressure for change come from within the group."³⁵ Fessler's statement became a central guide in introducing the project to decision makers and the Social Science Division's faculty of the host college. It was also applied in the organizational meeting held with the participating faculty. Moreover, it became

³⁵Donald R. Fessler, "The Group Process Approach to Community Organization" in Ralph M. Kramer and Harry Specht, eds., Reading in Community Organization Practice (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969), pp. 251-256.

very useful in moving the faculty in the search for criteria for formulating learning objectives. The practice principle which can be derived from these applications state: In order to make the source of pressure for change as coming from within the group, one must contact different levels in the organization, thus making the pressure for change more effective.

As stated earlier, it was observed that the faculty process is a very slow one. To balance this condition we have recommended that educational administrators can utilize incremental approaches for bringing their faculty into the various tasks that may be required to bring about uniformity in a curriculum. Needless to say, this recommendation has implications for implementing the Council on Social Work Education's guidelines which states, "only specific objectives can serve as guides to curriculum developers and teachers." In preparation for our goal toward greater specificity, we have identified the following practice principle: Before faculty can be asked to make the competencies desired in the learner more specific, they must be required to exhibit a certain level of understanding of the state of the art in that direction. This requirement might be obtained by encouraging the faculty to apply competency-based methodologies to social work education. While individual efforts will not produce agreement on the competencies to be developed, a highly motivated faculty may be required for initiating and maintaining a systematic approach for defining

students' competencies. The application of criteria for behavioral objectives to course objectives is one step in this direction.

New faculty can be brought into the effort toward specificity by merely asking them to formulate more specific learning objectives which are related to sets of course objectives that have been previously agreed upon. This recommendation is based on the proposition that the new faculty coming into the process should not view this request as an intrusion into their creativity or academic freedom, but rather that they see this requirement as an opportunity to make a curriculum development process which is in a state of progression. More importantly is to insure that they perceive their participation as something which is normally required of a faculty person who is teaching any course. From this conditioning emerges this practice principle: Although classical models in competency-based education prescribe a sequencing of steps to be completed prior to the teaching of a course, it is helpful to combine some of the steps with the ordinary activities which are performed by the instructor while he teaches a course. After having identified the broad competencies for a given course, the teaching faculty can be useful resources in order to strive for more specificity of the operations which in their views define the broad statements of competencies.

There are a few identifiable practice principles which came from our practice wisdom: The availability of course

objectives sets, approved by a collectivity of faculty, should be viewed as strong guidelines for developing the topical outlines and examination items for students in order to move toward uniformity in a curriculum. Opportunities for faculty to become more productive increase as they are released from the time which is normally consumed in developing course objectives. The time saved for them in this manner increased the time which they will have for developing the more specific operations that they would like their students to perform. Differences in faculty's objective orientations can be changed as faculty begin to perceive the conceptual basis on which the new orientation is based.

CHAPTER V

THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE

In this chapter we will describe the result of the progress that was made over time by the social work faculty in their respective abilities to formulate clear and specific learning objectives. Particular attention was given to these specific learning outcomes that the faculty developed in that stage of the project when the common competency-based course objectives were being implemented. The data which were collected and used to measure faculty improvement will be presented and analyzed. The unit of measurement, used to gauge faculty improvement, was the learning objective. The criteria for measurement were those three elements for behavioral objectives, which Robert F. Mager so adequately had identified and that were previously discussed in page 111.

Considerable efforts were made to apply appropriate descriptive statistical techniques to the analyses of the data. However, only those applications which were found useful to the analysis pursued are presented. Whenever possible, comparisons were made of equivalent data collected from another group of faculty who were not exposed to a similar training. These comparisons between the two groups were useful in ascertaining more clearly the extent of program effectiveness.

More specifically, we attempted to identify differences in students' perceptions of the faculty who were trained in this project as opposed to those of a group of social science faculty who were not exposed to a similar program. Students' evaluation of the faculty served as the vehicle to elicit these differences. In the analysis of some students' evaluation data, particular attention was paid to the students' ratings of the faculty in the area of learning objectives. Attempts were made to identify the corresponding project's activity which might have contributed to the observed results of the students' ratings. The chapter concludes by reflecting on possible effects of the learning objective in other areas of teaching.

Defining Roles and Procedures

Two preparatory steps preceded the implementation phase of the competency-based objectives. These were role definition and the clarification of process and procedures. The author's role at this stage of the project became a multiple one. On the one hand, he provided for the collection of data relating to the evaluation of faculty improvement and, on the other hand, he continued to be a participant in the implementation of courses. Additionally, he secured the services of three independent judges and explained their tasks to them. Moreover, he continued to monitor the overall activities of the project design. The social work faculty's role remained the same as that which is normally defined for faculty who teach courses, the only difference being in the

conditions that were stipulated for linking their teaching activities with the tasks which were required in the project design. For example, any instructor who teaches at Medgar Evers College is expected to develop and have ready for distribution to the students, on the first day of class, a course syllabus for every course he is assigned to teach. Although the College has not established uniform requirements to shape the form or scope of syllabi, participants in this project agreed to follow a set of minimal components to be included in the course plan. Each syllabus was expected to contain the course description, the set of common objectives that the social work faculty had agreed upon, a topical outline, and a reading list. In addition, at least one topic or unit in the course outline was to be particularly related to a common course objective. Although it was expected that more topics than objectives would appear in the course outline, those topics which were specifically developed to further an objective should be easily identified through identical wording. The relationship between course outline and common objectives was to be examined by three independent judges.

Process and Procedures

The next step in preparing for implementing the competency-based objectives was to agree on the process and procedures that were to be followed for linking the teaching efforts with the project's activities. The first item discussed was the course syllabus. It was agreed that four copies of each

syllabus were to be made available for examination by three independent judges. These judges would determine the relatedness of their topics to the respective course objectives.

The second item discussed was the data collection process. The most important data to be collected at this stage of the project were the specific learning objectives that the social work faculty were going to develop while teaching their courses. Only those specific objectives that were intended to operationally define a given course objective were to be reported in Form 3 (see page 136). These specific objectives were to be collected at three different times. The first sets were due at the end of the first eight weeks in the first semester of implementation, the second sets at the end of that semester, and the remaining sets at the end of the second semester. The participating faculty were advised that those specific objectives were to be examined against the three criteria for behavioral objectives which they had previously used in shaping the common course objectives.

Relationship Between Course Content and Course Objectives

The next step was to determine the relatedness of the courses' content to the courses' objectives.¹ In order to carry out this task the services of three independent judges were utilized. These judges were selected from the host

¹These course objectives can be located in pp. 120-131 of this manuscript.

College's faculty who have had extensive experience in competency-based educational programs. One of them had directed the development of a competency-based model for the teaching of Public Administration. The other two had participated in the development and implementation of the Competency-Based Teacher's Education Program, still offered at Medgar Evers College. Thus, the judges were selected on the basis of their experience in competency-based education and their willingness to serve as examiners in this project.

The three judges were first sensitized, as a group, to the purpose and scope of their tasks. Essentially, they were asked to individually look at the syllabi, prepared by the participating faculty, and to judge whether or not topics, contained in the course outline, were related to the particular objectives appearing in the same syllabus. To better prepare them for this activity, the judges were asked to participate in a half day workshop where ideas were discussed, and approaches were reviewed for associating course content and course objectives. In this workshop, selected syllabi were provided to the judges for practice. Initially, it was observed that some disparities were apparent in the judgements of these judges, particularly in the case of those syllabi which were non-competency-based. This situation was fully discussed, and two criteria emerged out of that discussion to guide their future judgements. It was agreed that relatedness could be established in those instances where similar language was used in both the topic and the

objective. It was also agreed that, when the informed judgment of the examiner dictated that the development of a specific topic had the capacity to contribute to the accomplishment of a corresponding objective, the two could be considered related. Once these criteria were set, the judges' practice continued, and minimal disparities were manifest.

In order to facilitate the data collection of the judges' examinations, they were asked to make appropriate recordings in the margin of the syllabi, alongside the course objectives. This is to say, every time a judge found a topic that was related to a particular objective, he would write the topic's outline symbol in the margin space beside the corresponding objective. This kind of recording permitted the tabulation of their examinations which appear in Appendix V.

By looking at the data in Appendix V, one is reminded of Campbell and Fiske's convergent and discriminate principles.² According to the convergent principle, two measures of the same property should correlate highly with one another, even though they represent different methods. The discriminate principle implies that two measures should correlate highly with one another if they measure different properties, even though a similar approach is used. The fact that forty-one of the forty-nine observations made (85%) reflected similar

²Donald T. Campbell and Donald W. Fiske. "Convergent and Discriminant Validation by the Multitrait-Multimethod Matrix," Psychological Bulletin 56 (1959), pp. 81-105.

findings among the three judges (in terms of the same number of topics found to be related to a particular objective) suggests a high correlation in these examinations. In other words, the convergent principle seems to operate in the sense that the three measures were examining items with the same properties.

The data also indicate that, in six observations out of the forty-nine (12%), two of the judges agreed on the same number of topics relating to those six objectives, while only one judge differed. These observations still suggest a fairly acceptable degree of disparity, when one considers that every measure consist of a true and and an error component. The fact that, these six situations were examined three times (each time by a different judge) and in twelve of the eighteen examinations (67%), the results were identical suggest that these judgements could well be manifestations of the true component of the measure. Conversely, those six observations, where the results differed, may be attributed to the error component of the measure.

When two or more judges reported at least one topic as being related to a particular objective, such observation was recorded as association. Table 5 tabulates the number of judges reporting at least one topic by objective. Table 6 summarizes the extent of association on the basis of the data in Table 5.

The simplified version of the judges recordings, appearing in Table 6, indicates that there was association between

Table 5. Number of Judges Reporting at Least One Topic
by Objective

Course Number	<u>Objective Number</u>														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Number of Judges Reporting at Least One Topic														
220	3	3	2	3	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3
320	3	3	3	3	3										
321	2	3	3	2	3	3	1	3	2	3					
338	3	3	3	3	3	3									
457	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3		

Table 6. Summary Number of Observations Where Association
was Found Between Topical Outlines and
Course Objectives

Course Number	Number of Objectives	Number of Observations where Association was Established Based on Judges' Recordings
SW 220	15	14
SW 320	5	5
SW 321	10	9
SW 338	6	6
SW 457	13	13
Totals	49	47
Source of data: See Appendix V and Table 5.		

topics and course objectives in forty-seven out of the forty-

nine observations. This finding suggests that these faculty were closely guided by the common course objectives in selecting content for their courses. Moreover, it manifests that they were following a logical approach to curriculum development. The data, in Table 6, also indicate two observations which, according to the established criterion, were recorded as being without association. These findings were brought to the attention of the respective instructors who were responsible for teaching those courses involved. After a discussion with the instructors, it was recognized that lack of specificity in the wording of the topics, which were intended for the respective objectives, was what apparently contributed to the situation where only one of the judges was able to detect such relationship. Subsequently, the wording in these topics was clarified and the resulting modified versions were presented to the judges again. After examining the modified topics against the respective objectives, the judges unanimously agreed that they were clearly associated.

Improvement Over Time

The critical question of measurement in this study was to link the extent of progress that was made over time with the participants' respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. Three abilities were involved in every objective statement which was examined. For the purpose of recording, these areas have been coded as a, b, and c. The specific ability denoted by each letter is stated

in Table 7. In Chapter IV, page 133, we presented data, which changed into percentages (see Table 7), have served as indicators for registering the level of performance of the participants in each area before they came into the project. From similar data, appearing in Table 3, page 132, we computed percentage improvement scores (see Table 7) registering the progress made at the preparation phase of the study. During the implementation phase, we collected data, at three different times, which enabled us to compute percentage improvement scores for these periods. These improvement indicators and the number of objectives on which they are based appear in Table 7. Under T_1 are the performance indicators of the participants before the program started. Under T_2 are the respective improvement indicators for the progress made up to a certain point in the preparatory phase (i.e., before the objectives which appear on pp. 120-131 of this report were collectively improved). Under T_3 are the percentage indicators of progress made from the end of the preparation phase to the end of the first eight weeks in the first semester of the implementation phase. Under T_4 are the percentage indicators of progress made from the 9th week of implementation to the end of the first semester when the competencies were being implemented. Under T_5 are the percentage indicators of the improvement made from the end of the first semester of implementation to the end of the second semester.

The percentage indicators appearing in Table 7 evidenced a gradual improvement over time in the project participants'

Table 7. Summary Progress made by the Faculty Over Time Throughout the Project

Part 1. Criterion (a): Instructor's ability to identify the specific behavior by name.									
Faculty	Percent of Progress over Time								
	T ₁			T ₂			T ₃		
	n	f	%	n	f	%	n	f	%
A	20	5	25	20	8	40	30	24	80
B	20	3	15	20	4	20	13	10	76.9
C	20	5	25	14	10	71.4	12	12	100
Part 2. Criterion (b): Instructor's ability to describe the conditions under which the behavior is expected to occur.									
Faculty	Percent of Progress over Time								
	T ₁			T ₂			T ₃		
	n	f	%	n	f	%	n	f	%
A	20	0	0	20	2	10	30	14	46.7
B	20	2	10	20	5	25	13	6	46.2
C	20	0	0	14	1	7.1	12	10	83.3
Part 3. Criterion (c): Instructor's ability to specify criteria for acceptable performance.									
Faculty	Percent of Progress over Time								
	T ₁			T ₂			T ₃		
	n	f	%	n	f	%	n	f	%
A	20	2	10	20	5	25	30	8	26.7
B	20	1	5	20	3	15	13	3	23.1
C	20	3	15	14	5	35.7	12	6	50

respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. Since the percentage indicator in every ob-

servation tended to increase over time toward the 100% mark, it is reasonable to conclude that the percentage improvement scores were moving toward unity from one period to the next. It was also noted that the level of performance of the instructor before entering the program does not seem to have determined his respective improvements over time. For instance, Faculty A and C entered the program with the same performance indicators in two of the three areas (a and b), but their subsequent percentage indicators of improvement were different over time. The fact that no consistent ratio of improvement in relation to the level of performance at which they entered the program could be identified, suggests that the initial level of performance in a faculty member was not a determinative influence in his respective improvement over time. The data in Table 7 and the analyses made thus far, reasonably suggest that individual differences among the faculty coupled with other factors in the institutional environment probably account for their respective difference in improvement.

It was also noted that every faculty member in this project, fully mastered a capacity to identify the specific behavior by name. Faculty member C reached that point after the first eight weeks in the implementation phase (i.e., one semester and a half after starting the project), and Faculty members A and B attained full mastery by the end of the second semester of being in the project. The data further indicate that not only had they achieved unity in this particular ability, but kept demonstrating the same extent of achievement

until the end of the project. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that once they achieve full mastery of a given capacity, they will continue to possess that ability in the future.

The data also show that although two of the faculty were very close to the 100% demonstration of the ability to describe the conditions under which the behavior is expected to occur, only one of the three instructors attained full mastery of this capacity within the project. However, the gradually increasing rate of improvement shown by the first two subjects, reasonably indicates that probably they will all be able to possess fully that second ability shortly after the project.

The data further show that the impact of the project on the subjects' ability to specify criteria for acceptable performance was less effective than the impact in the other two areas. None of the instructors fully mastered that capacity throughout the project, although one of the faculty got close with a final score of 81.8%. On the other hand, the other two instructors finished the project with scores of 39.3% and 33.3%, respectively. The fact that the scores registered for all participants show a generally upward trend is encouraging. It probably means that whatever improvement was made will be retained over time. However, the relatively slow pace of progress which is being demonstrated seems to indicate that additional expertise was needed to ensure better progress in this area. That is to say, the impact of the training which was conducted in this project depended almost totally on the collective capacity of the group. The fact that none of the participants

was able to master fully this particular ability by the end of the project may suggest that a different approach for developing this area may be required. Therefore, it is sensible to recommend that in future replication studies this capability be reinforced by bringing into the design a resource person with sufficient expertise in the measurement area.

The Gain Score

The analysis of the improvement data was supplemented by describing further impact of the project on the subsequent development in each participant's respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. Thus, the measure used for this part of the analysis was the change in improvement score between repeated measures over time. The statistic used was the gain score. Borrowing Theodore H. Poister's symbolism, the equation $X = Z - Y$ was applied, where X = the percentage gain score, Y = the pretest percentage score, and Z = the post-test percentage score.³ Table 8, below, shows the computed gain scores over time.

The gain scores appearing in the table below evidenced gradual improvement over time in all the faculty across the three abilities. Thus, the gain score statistic reinforces our previous observation that there was improvement over time in all the participating instructors. If the individual gain

³Theodore H. Poister, Public Program Analysis: Applied Research Methods (Baltimore: University Park Press, 1978), p. 310.

Table 8. Computed Gain Scores over Time for the Faculty in the Program

Faculty	Percentage Gain Scores by Criterion Element											
	<u>a</u>				<u>b</u>				<u>c</u>			
	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4
A	15	40	20	0	10	36.7	30.2	19.5	15	1.7	7.9	4.7
B	5	56.9	23.1	0	15	21.2	33.8	18.2	10	8.1	1.9	8.3
C	46.4	28.6	0	0	7.1	76.2	6.7	10	20.7	14.3	20	11.8

Note: a, b, c: stands for the respective criterion element (see Table 7)

X_i : Gain Score

scores would have been the same at each examination point, one could unequivocally argue that the training alone was responsible for the observed results. However, since the extent of improvements, as measured by the gain score statistic, are different from instructor to instructor, one must attribute the disparities to individual differences among the subjects or to other intervening factors within the environment. The data on hand allowed us to probe if the respective performances indicator which the faculty exhibited before coming into the project was in fact a determinative factor. Thus, we analyzed the gain score of Faculty members A and C in criterion elements a and b, where their initial performance indicators were the same. This examination revealed that the first gain score obtained by Faculty member A in criterion element a was 13, while that for Faculty member C was 52. Likewise, Faculty

memb A's first gain score in criterion element b was 10, while that of Faculty member C was 8. Since these gain scores were different, it seemed less probable that the differences in gain scores were attributable to the differences in their respective initial performance level.

Another question we raised was, what known factor within the environment could account for the difference? We noted that among the three, Faculty member C gained the most overtime. What was unique about Faculty member C which could be identified as the element that may account for the difference? We noted that Faculty member C initiated this project, thus one can assume that his research into the literature of competency-based education may have placed him at a different level of understanding when compared to the other participants. Additionally, he had prior exposure to the actual workings of a competency-based model (i.e., the Public Administration model); the others did not. Although these differences between Faculty member C and the other instructors may be offered as possible leads for explaining the differences in improvement, one can not be certain due to the lack of empirical data. In fact, a closer examination of the participants' level of performance indicators, when they entered the project, suggests that this may or may not make a difference. That is, the performance level of Faculty member C for criterion a was higher than that of Faculty member B, but was similar to that of Faculty member A. In criterion element b, only Faculty member C registered a performance greater from

zero (10%), Faculty members A and C performance indicators were zero. Although in criterion element c the initial performance indicator of Faculty member C was 5 percentage points higher than that of Faculty member A and 10 percentage points higher than that of Faculty member B, the fact that this same pattern was not shown in the data for the other two criteria is sufficiently compelling to rule out these antecedents as determinatively causal factors. On the other hand, we did not ascertain whether the objectives which were examined for Faculty member C were developed prior to or after his exposure to the Public Administration competency-based experience. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that any further probe into the the identification of factors which may seem to have a causal relationship in respect to the difference in improvement scores among these faculty is beyond the scope of the data which was collected in the study. Thus, we recommend that in future replication studies the collection of data with some potential for explaining difference in the outcome variable among participants be given serious consideration.

Comparison of Pre and Post Scores of the Project Group with Another Group

In order to feel more secure about the interpretation of the project's results, we collected and analyzed equivalent data from another group of faculty who were not exposed to the training activities of this project. The use of a comparison group was built into the design in order to have

more dependent variable information that would enable the writer to be more confident about his interpretation of the program impact in relation to the faculty's respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms.

The instructors selected for comparison were drawn from among a group of six social science faculty who, according to their own responses, previously recorded in a planning survey instrument (see Form No. 1, Self Assessment Questionnaire, Appendix VI), have declared not having "a too good readiness" for formulating competency-based objectives. According to the original project design, we should have drawn our comparison subjects from adjunct faculty who were teaching a second section of the same courses in which the competency-based objectives were being implemented. As stated earlier, in the methodology chapter, this comparison idea was not possible because of insufficient enrollment. The alternatives left open were, to address the comparison question by examining the pre and post improvement scores of the participating faculty only, or to select a comparison group from among the rest of the social science faculty. The methodological question confronting us at this point was, how to make these two groups as equivalent as possible. Although a great variety of characteristics were considered for a good matching, they will not be fully discussed. Only some indication will follow pointing to the way in which the comparison subjects were selected.

Initially, we attempted to select the comparison subjects

from that group of six social science faculty aforementioned, but limiting the selection to the first three individuals who would display identical pretest scores to those registered for the faculty members in the project group. After recording the potential subjects' pretest scores, it was learned that only one person's score matched with another faculty member in the project group. Thus, we decided to use this particular person and to call on two others based on the proximity of their pretest scores to those of the two other members in the project's group. It was important that the comparison subjects would approve of serving in that capacity, and that the person selected had not been exposed to a similar or equivalent training.

The data used for computing pre and post observations for the program group have already been presented in preceding pages (see data in Tables 3, 4, and 7). As shown in Table 4, page 133, we introduced data reflecting the number of times each criterion element was met by each instructor who was in the program, based on twenty objectives that they had developed prior to their initiation in the project's activities. These data, in aggregate form, constituted the program faculty's respective pretest scores. Similarly, the data which appear in Table 7, under the T_5 column, constituted their respective post-test scores.⁴

⁴Only the T_5 data were used because they correspond with the data which could be obtained from the comparison group without risking contamination. More importantly, we wanted to compare only the performance of the two groups before and after the project.

In order to have equivalent pre and post scores for the comparison group, similar procedures to those employed in computing the scores for the program group, were followed. Twenty course objectives were selected at random from among the course objectives which appeared on syllabi that the potential comparison subjects had developed prior to the time when this project started. These objectives were also examined against the three criteria for behavioral objectives that we had been using throughout this project. The results of these examinations were tabulated and the corresponding distributions used to compute the potential comparison subjects' pretest scores. The particular pretest scores of three instructors selected for the comparison group are presented in Table 9. Following the logic of the project design, specific learning objectives that the instructors in the comparison group had developed in connection with courses they were teaching during the last semester of the implementation phase of the project were solicited after the completion of the project. These specific objectives were also examined against the three criteria for behavioral objectives and the corresponding results used to compute the comparison subjects' post test scores. Since the number of objectives used in computing the post test scores were different, the instructors' corresponding frequencies were changed into percents. The pre and post data used in this analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 shows the respective pre and post-test scores

Table 9. Gain Scores for the Program and Comparison Groups

Group	Faculty Member	<u>Pretest</u>		<u>Post-test</u>		Gain Score
		$\sum abc$	Percentage Indicator	$\sum abc$	Percentage Indicator	
Process	A	7	11.7 (20)	66	78.6 (28)	66.9
	B	6	10 (20)	132	77.2 (57)	67.2
	C	8	13.3 (20)	62	93.9 (22)	$\frac{80.6}{\bar{X} = 71.6}$
Comparison	F	6	10 (20)	9	10 (30)	0
	G	4	6.7 (20)	6	7.4 (27)	.7
	H	10	16.7 (20)	14	17.2 (29)	$\frac{.5}{\bar{X} = .4}$

for these individuals in the process and comparison group.

$\sum abc$, denotes the total number of criterion elements met by each instructor. The number of objectives involved in computing the percentage indicator are shown in parenthesis.⁵

In order to compare the difference between the groups, before and after the program, we modified the pre and post data by creating a gain score for each subject. The analysis then, was centered around the mean gain scores of both groups. As the data in Table 9 indicate, the mean gain score for the

⁵The percentage indicators were arrived at by dividing two products--the number of criterion elements met multiplied by 100 and the number of objectives involved multiplied by 3. The multiplier 3 represents the number of criteria which were expected to be found in each objective.

process group is far greater than that of the comparison group. This relatively large difference between the two group means sustains our program assumption that orienting faculty to a competency-based approach has a good potential for bringing about improvements in the participants' respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. On the basis of the observed mean difference of their respective gain scores, one can reasonably say that the training which was followed in this project was effective.

Comparison of Students' Ratings of the Faculty in the Process and Comparison Groups

Students' observations have long been an internal part of the faculty evaluation process. Therefore, we collected data on students' evaluation of the faculty for instructors in both the process and comparison groups. These data were collected by means of the same evaluation instrument which is used by the host College (see Appendix IV) for evaluating its faculty. Subsequently, the students' ratings of the faculty were processed in the College's computer and copies of the corresponding print-outs are included in Appendix VII.

The print-outs summarize the data by indicating first, the percent of students who have rated the instructor as "poor," "good," "very good," and "outstanding" in seven different categories. Secondly, the print-outs show a summary rating by area on a 1 to 5 point scale. Although one can compare the ratings in the seven categories between the groups (see Table 13) and obviously find that the ratings across cate-

gories are higher for the process group than those of the comparison group, one is reminded that only one of the seven categories is directly connected with the central variable that we have been stressing throughout the project. Thus, a more informative analysis can be obtained by studying the average ratings given by the students in the four items comprising the overall measure for course objectives.

The data in Table 10, presented in the following page, evidence that higher average ratings went to the faculty in the process group in the four sub-items of the measure. This observation seems to suggest that the faculty in the process group were better prepared to inform the students in the area of course objectives. Our observational analysis continued to identify possible project activities which may have accounted for the difference in student ratings among these groups. For instance, item 7 intended to measure the extent to which the syllabus provided to the student was perceived as complete. The average ratings of the students in this sub-item show that the higher ratings went to the process faculty, rather than to the faculty in the comparison group. These average ratings were not only higher, but almost equal. On the other hand, the ratings of the comparison group were lower and disparate. These differences in the average ratings given by the students clearly indicate that the syllabi presented by the faculty in the process group were perceived by the students as more complete than those which were developed by the instructors in the comparison group.

Table 10: Average Students' Ratings of Faculty in the Four Items Designed to Measure the Course Objectives

Sub-item	Faculty:	Process Group			Comparison Group		
		A	B	C	F	G	H
7. The instructor provided a complete course outline or syllabus.		4.4	4.4	4.5	2.6	3.8	2.7
8. The instructor established clear class requirements and indicated how your performance would be evaluated.		4.4	4.3	4.6	2.9	3.3	2.0
9. The instructor explained the objectives and goals of the course.		4.4	4.3	4.4	2.6	2.4	1.9
10. There has been considerable agreement between stated course objectives and what was actually taught.		4.4	4.3	4.4	2.7	2.3	1.8
	$\bar{X} =$	4.4	4.3	4.5	2.7	3.0	2.1

The ratings in item 10 also deserve some attention. This item was intended to measure the degree of agreement between stated course objectives and what was actually taught. Again, the ratings given to the faculty in the process group were higher than those which were registered for the faculty in the comparison group. One is reminded that considerable efforts were made in this project to ensure that course objectives and topical outlines were in agreement. Clearly, the relative difference in the ratings of the faculty in

the process group, when compared to those of the comparison group, reasonably suggest that the agreement which was systematically sought in this project between course objectives and topical outline seems to have adequately guided what was taught, and the extent of its effect consequently perceived by the students.

With regard to items 8 and 9, the fact that there are observed differences in the ratings registered for the faculty in these two groups deserves some attention. Item 8 measured the extent to which the instructor established clear class requirements and indicated how the students' performance would be evaluated. Since one of the areas that the faculty in this project attended to was the developing of criteria to evaluate students' performance, it is reasonable to expect some difference between the ratings of the two groups. The high ratings given to the faculty in the process group, when compared to the low ratings registered by the faculty in the comparison group, fairly suggest that the observed differences between the two groups on this this sub-item may be attributed to the outcome of the project.

Item 9 was designed to measure the extent to which the instructor explained the objectives and goals of the course. Here again, one is reminded of the collective efforts which went into the development of those course objectives presented by the faculty in the process group. Clearly, the higher ratings which were given to the faculty in the process group seems to suggest that they were more effective than the

faculty in the comparison group in explaining the course objectives to the students. Here again, this difference registered between the groups can be attributed in part to the outcome of the project.

The analysis clearly indicate that for each one of the sub-items measuring the course objective, there was an identifiable enabling activity which was considered in this project. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that the observed difference in students' ratings between these two groups appear to be affected by the project's activities.

This analysis was extended to the percentage of students who rated each of the group by category. The computer printouts which appear in Appendix VII indicate the percentage of students rating each faculty as "poor," "fair," "good," "very good," and "outstanding." These data, appearing in the computer printouts, were summed according to rating and group. The corresponding summaries are presented in the following tables.

Table 11. Percent of Students Rating the Faculty As Indicated:

Rating	Group					
	Process			Comparison		
	Faculty			Faculty		
	A	B	C	F	G	H
Oustanding	43.5	46.3	46.8	1.3	5.7	0
Very Good	39.3	44.2	53.2	16.5	18.6	5.3
Good	17.2	9.5	-	39.2	44.3	26.3
Fair	-	-	-	34.2	22.8	43.4
Poor	-	-	-	8.8	8.6	25.0

Table 12. Average Percent of Students Rating the Two Groups as Indicated:

Rating	Group	
	Process	Comparison
Outstanding	45.5	2.3
Very Good	45.6	13.5
Good	8.9	36.6
Fair	-	33.5
Poor	-	14.1

The data in Table 11 represent the percent of students rating each faculty as outstanding, very good, good, fair, and poor. Table 12 summarizes that data by rating and group. The data in Table 11 evidence that a relatively larger percent of students perceived the faculty in the process group as outstanding, when compared to the low percent of their counterparts in the comparison group. Conversely, the data show that the percent of students rating faculty as poor were distributed among those giving that rating to faculty in the comparison group. Moreover, about one third of the raters in the comparison group perceived its faculty as "fair," when none of the students rated any faculty in the process group in that category or below it. The data clearly suggest that the students, in rating these instructors, perceived them differently individually and collectively. The fact that 91.1 percent of the students rating the process group perceived its faculty as outstanding and very good, while only

15.8 percent rated the faculty in the comparison group in these same categories, suggest a substantive, if not significant, difference in the students' perceptions of these groups. Although a statistical test of significance was not done because of the small size of the sample, it is recommended that in future replication studies, whenever possible, the size of the sample be increased, so that the appropriate statistical test of significance be applied to the data.

It was noted that the highest percent of students rating the faculty in the comparison group tended to concentrate around two middle categories (i.e., good and fair) with the remaining percentage of students distributing almost equally above and below those two categories. In the process group the students were distributed only among the three top rating categories, with the highest percentage (45.5%) going to "Outstanding," the second highest to "Very Good," and the lowest to "Good." Again, no students gave ratings of fair or poor to faculty in the process group. These observations clearly indicate that the students rating the comparison group's faculty were more divided in their perceptions of the objectives, than in the case of the process group.

The analysis seems to support a tentative claim, i.e., that the difference in the dependent variable (percent of students rating the group in a differentiate rating category) must be attributed to the effect of another dependent variable, which in this case was the course objective. Given the conditions under which both groups developed their course

objectives, and given the aforementioned distribution of students by differential ratings and by groups, it is reasonable to conclude that the differences in percentage of students rating the two groups in the top two rating categories can fairly serve as a measure of the project's effectiveness. Therefore, based on the data presented in Tables 11 and 12, one can reasonably say that the project was effective in bringing about improvements in the course objectives area.

Table 13. Summary of Students' Ratings by Group and Area of Teaching

Area of Teaching	Group							
	Process				Comparison			
	A	B	C	$\bar{X}$	F	G	H	$\bar{X}$
Course Objectives	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.4	2.6	2.9	2.1	2.5
Presentation	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.0	3.3
Communication & Motivation	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.2	3.3	2.9	3.1	3.1
Instructional material & Assignments	3.9	3.8	4.2	4.0	3.5	2.8	3.2	3.2
Evaluation	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.2	3.4	3.1	3.1	3.2
Other evidence of teaching effectiveness	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.2	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.2
Overall Rating	4.3	4.1	4.7	4.4	3.2	2.7	3.1	3.0

Notes: A, B, C, F, G, H stands for the faculty.
 A scale of 1-5 was used to register the students' rating: 5 = Outstanding; 4 = Very Good; 3 = Good; 2 = Fair; and 1 = Poor.

Thus far, we have compared the program group with a comparison group around the percentage of students who have

rated each group from outstanding to poor. The analysis centered around the sub-items which were designed to measure the course objectives. However, as we can see from the print-outs we have collected and processed, students' ratings of the faculty in six other areas, besides the course objectives. Table 13, above summarizes these other data.

The data in Table 13, are useful in identifying which group received better ratings from the students. The individual average ratings also evidenced that every faculty member who was in the program did better than his counterpart in the comparison group. The tendency of these ratings, to be higher in the program group across categories and subjects, seems to indicate that there is a relationship between the students' ratings (the dependent variable) and the program status of the faculty (the independent variable).

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This dissertation is part of a larger project which sought to improve an undergraduate concentration in social work education through the use of a competency-based approach to curriculum development. Particularly, it has addressed the issue of faculty capability for bringing about changes in the social work educational program through the use of competency-based objectives. Two basic models, related to the workability of learning objectives, were used in the implementation of the training design. One of these models helped to identify each faculty member's objective orientation before they came into the project, thus serving as a diagnostic tool. The second model, based on Robert Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives, enabled the faculty to guide themselves in the formulation of competency-based objectives, and assisted in measuring their respective improvement scores over time.

A major contribution of this demonstration lies in the process which was used. It enabled the participating faculty to develop their own understanding of the profession, its goals and purposes, and to agree on a common core of course objectives for the social work sequence. Another important contribution is the synthesis which was made on the use of

competency-based education by various human services professions, particularly social work. As stated elsewhere in this text, two currents have been flowing into the mainstream of competency-based education in social work. One of the currents has emanated from the efforts of social work faculty to evaluate students' competencies and skills. The other has flowed from the conscious use of competency-based educational approaches for program models. Various examples, illustrating each current, have been described in Chapter II. The examples cited can adequately serve as an updated reference for any in-depth study on the contribution of social work to the state of the art in competency-based education and training. More importantly, they can help program developers who are seeking guides that will enable them to put a competency-based learning program or component together.

Propositions which Helped to Guide this Project

Four propositions, selected in the planning phase, were mentioned in Chapter I as being instrumental in shaping this project's design. Proposition one called for the relevance of faculty development activities to emerging knowledge in the teaching of human service professions. It additionally states that the focus of faculty development must help the faculty member to build on new knowledge so that he can use that knowledge in his teaching, in his work with other colleagues, and in his future contribution to the profession. The application of this proposition is manifest at various steps in the process. The planning phase of this project

was influenced by the prior experiences of the designer who sought to share his knowledge of competency-based education with the social work faculty at Medgar Evers College. Most of the materials which were presented and discussed at the faculty workshops were selected for their relevance to the teaching of human service professions. Particular emphasis was given to the use of competency-based approaches in social work education. Although the project's long term goal was to improve the social work educational program, it was also recognized that the social work faculty, as a critical element in that process, needed to be trained in order to bring about the desired changes. Since the expected outcome of the training was to improve the faculty's respective abilities to formulate clear and specific learning objectives, the competency-based approach was used as a medium for achieving that purpose. As evidenced by the accomplishments, which were reported in respect to the preparatory phase of the project, the competency-based approach was an appropriate tool for bringing this group of faculty to work together and to agree on common sets of learning objectives for the social work courses.

Proposition two suggests that educational objectives at the course level require some degree of specificity in order to define that point in knowledge, values, and skills on which teaching and learning should concentrate. This proposition constantly reminded us of the Council on Social Work Education position which states that the primary objective

of social work educational programs is the preparation of students for employment in social work practice, and that greater specificity in this objective was necessary before it could serve as a guide to the identification of curriculum content, organization, and sequence. Throughout the entire project we subscribed to the idea that only specific learning objectives should serve as guides to curriculum developers and teachers. We also recognized that the learning objectives must be student-centered, activity-focused, and content-specific. While implementing the project we realized that the social work course is the smallest educational unit where common learning objectives can be sought. Although greater specificity than that which was given to the course objectives was required for the learning objectives of the daily lessons, it seemed counterproductive to strive for uniformity at that level. The daily lesson's objective must continue to be that part of the educational unit in which creativity is exercised in order to embody the varieties of specific competencies that diversity in the field of social work practice requires. What this project has done is advocate a uniform method of formulating learning objectives, while accommodating that diversity in the selection of more specific competencies and in teaching.

While defining those points in knowledge, values, and skills on which teaching and learning would concentrate, we recognized that "competency" was a generic word representing three distinct levels of human functioning. These three

levels are the cognitive, the attitudinal and the performance of skills. Acquisition of knowledge in social work can be manifest through the results of perceptual and conceptual processes. Attitudes are expressed as products of emotional responses toward specific events, objects, or situations in the form of values. The performance of skills relates to the outcome of psychomotor processes that enable the students to make overt responses and, at times, produce tangible product or action that can be observed and assessed by someone else. When any one of these levels is described in a series of words, a competency-based statement has been attempted. If the statement includes the three criteria which we have identified for behavioral objectives, a competency-based learning objective has been formulated.

The fourth proposition asserts that competency-based education, as a philosophical underpinning, has a potential for assisting in bringing faculty to work together and to foster agreement on students' competencies. The influence of this proposition was apparent in the selection of the workshop format for training the faculty. The discussions held and the tasks that were performed in these workshops were literally guided by the literature on competency-based approaches. The task of developing common course objectives for the social work courses was possible through the adoption of a competency-based approach. Clearly, competency-based education, in terms of this project, was a central force for bringing the social work faculty to work together and

for shaping the articulation of learning objectives for the social work courses. Every course objective was framed around a competency-based area appropriate to the course and consequently used as a guide for the selection of content, the articulation of specific levels of human functioning, and the setting of parameters under which students were to be examined.

Teaching Methods and the Competency-Based Approach

Three different methods, frequently used by teachers, were identified in this dissertation. Each method is concerned with different aspects of the lives of students. The cognitive teaching methods have centered on the communication of information and, therefore, seem appropriate for imparting competencies which are aimed at the cognitive level of human functioning. Behavioral methods are based on the principles of operant conditioning, hence rendering them useful for changing students' attitudes. Whenever competencies relating to professional ethics or values are preferred, a behavioral teaching method can be used. Humanistic teaching methods are concerned with the experience, emotional life, and goals of students. All the steps involved in a humanistic teaching method become student-centered rather than teacher-centered. From this perspective, direct experience, rather than abstract thinking or conditioned behavior, is primary. When dealing with the performance of skills level of human functioning, it would be useful to

utilize a humanistic approach. The principle governing this choice is that students seem to learn faster when allowed to perform tasks in which they have a genuine interest. It should be noted, however, that a program or component which aims at the mastery of performance skills must presuppose the fusion of related knowledge and professional attitudes appropriate to those skills. Thus, when skill competencies are to be realized, an adequate mixture of teaching methods will be most desirable. A competency-based approach which provides for the inclusion of the three levels of human functioning in a given educational unit is compatible with that requirement.

Competency-Based Education in Social Work and Measurement Strategies

As noted earlier, Cooper and Weber's general definition of a competency-based teacher's education program seems to prevail for characterizing a competency-based approach. According to Cooper and Weber, the competencies to be acquired by the students and the criteria for assessing those competencies are made explicit. Three types of criteria have been pervading competency-based teacher education programs. Knowledge criteria have been used to assess cognitive understanding, performance criteria to assess teaching behaviors, and product criteria to assess the teacher's ability to teach by examining the achievement of the students.

In social work, the efforts made to evaluate the competencies of students have produced four types of measurement

strategies. The first type, value inventories, received greater attention in the 1950's when the call for intellectual rigor and clarity about social work terminology was in vogue. According to Max Siporin, values and value orientations refer to conceptions of preferred and admirable things or characteristics of people. Values and norms that the individual has internalized and committed himself to become personal frames of reference for his actions. They orient and guide him in dealing with problems of living and in realtionships with others.

Incorporating appropriate social work values is an essential and significant task for students. The distinctive values of the profession are important components for professional preparation, and effective practice requires adherence to them. The authors of Volume Thirteen of the Curriculum Study, published by the Council on Social Work Education in 1959, recognized this need. The entire volume was dedicated to the identification of values and ethics which were usually taught in social work. Four years later, Aerold and Gough, of the Institute of Personality Assessment and Research at Berkeley, released a Social Work Interest Inventory, which was based on professional values.

One of the most frequently used value inventories was developed by Henry J. Mayer at the University of Michigan School of Social Work. The 1961 version consists of ten major value dimensions abstracted from relevant social work literature and includes four items related to each of the ten

dimensions. Each dimension represents a value position consistent with that generally espoused by professional social work. The student is asked to respond to each statement in terms of levels of agreement--definitely agree, probably agree, probably disagree, definitely disagree. Statements representing the same component are phrased in both positive and negative terms to discourage acquiescence-response set. In 1973, Kadushin and Kelling used the Mayer's Social Value Questionnaire in a study conducted at Wisconsin University. These value inventories are useful instruments for educators who are seeking to measure competencies which are aimed at strengthening the attitudinal level of human functioning.

The second type of measurement strategies, knowledge inventories, has addressed a central concern in social work education. Social work educators have long recognized that competence for social work practice must be based on sound knowledge. Many writers have concurred that knowledge is human and professional power. Over the years, social work educators have had much admiration for scientific and theoretical knowledge. However, as others have noted, many social work practitioners have a characteristic skepticism and distrust of theory. But in spite of controversies, theoretical knowledge in social work is translated into operational propositions in the form of practice principles. Thus, the functional aspect of knowledge in social work is to increase the practitioner's ability to exercise conscious and deliberate mastery over his environment and to assist him in

getting things done.

Against this background, social workers have used standardized knowledge inventories to measure fundamentals at the cognitive level of human functioning. A generally acceptable instrument for testing knowledge is the 60-item multiple choice test, devised for social work master's degree graduates by the Division of State Merit Systems, Examination Branch, Department of Health, Education and Welfare. The test consists of 12 items in general casework, 21 in casework with children, 10 relating to social work supervision, and 12 relating to psychiatric information. An equivalent test is the one administered by the Association of Certified Social Workers. Both examination instruments were designed to measure essential knowledge for professional practice.

Another widespread, standardized knowledge inventory is the Minnesota Inventory of Social Work Knowledge. This examination consists of 82 multiple choice questions containing objective information items. A similar instrument, the Clark's Knowledge Inventory, was first administered to entering students at the Graduate School of Social Work of the University of Utah. The data resulting from the application of both instruments, as well as the other knowledge inventories mentioned above, can be used to assess to what extent educational programs have been educating the student to understand people in social problem situations.

The skill assessment scales and simulation models, constituting our third and fourth types of measurement strate-

gies, seem to be equated with the performance of skills level of human functioning. Skill assessment scales generally consist of lists of performance requirements for social workers in either real or simulated cases. Two different groups of measures related to skills are usually found among skill assessment scales and simulation models. One group consists of a series of subjective assessments on the part of knowledgeable informants who had an opportunity of seeing the student in action. The most frequently used informants are students' supervisors, clients, and peers. Each of these have the opportunity to observe the student from different vantage points and in different relationships. A composite of their reports permits a comprehensive assessment of the way students performed their professional roles. The second measure of skills calls for examining students' work samples. This approach permits judgements by experts of the student's actual performance on the job.

A generally known assessment scale was developed by Aleanor Merrifield in 1964. It includes a schedule of 64 separate performance items on which students are evaluated by a faculty team. It also contains a list of specific tasks, presumed to be required for practice. Two years later, Margaret Schubert of the University of Minnesota furthered this area by developing another skill assessment document based on Merrifield's work. The Schubert instrument included a series of five point rating scales designed to assess student's performance in casework field placements. The tasks

to be performed by the students consist of words which are behaviorally specific, focusing on identifiable performance attributes which can be evaluated. At about the same time that Professor Schubert was working on her instrument, the University of Michigan was developing another skill assessment instrument with 58 separate performance items covering such topics as knowledge of the community, the agency, casework skills, and groupwork skills.

Simulation models have been used in social work education to test the responses of students in representations of the practice situation. A comprehensive review of simulation technology, conducted by Roland G. Meinertz, was published in 1972. Worth noting, among the simulation models, is the work of Harris K. Goldstein at Tulane University. Goldstein's method involves showing a 30 minute film of a caseworker working with a particular family. A large part of the film is concerned with the interview interactions between the caseworker and one family member. The film is interrupted at 12 different points and students are asked to respond to questions in a booklet. Specifically, students are asked to state what they would do or say at a certain point if they were the workers and to offer reasons for their choices of intervention activity. Goldstein's model, better known as The Tulane Assessment Scale, has been widely used in social work education.

A more elaborate simulation is the Benjamin Rose Institute Interrupted Case Study. This test uses a case vignette

instead of a film, and integrates practice in casework, groupwork, and institutional and community settings. The case study begins with a problem related to a family decision to institutionalize an older relative. After this has been done, it presents problems related to the group setting. The final questions are concerned with the social worker's efforts to effect community change on behalf of senior citizens. At selected points, questions are asked regarding what can be done about the particular situation, and students record their responses in accordance to the multiple choice items presented to them. The students' answers are compared with a set of consensual answers arrived at by a panel of experienced social workers.

Conscious efforts to apply competency-based approaches in social work have also contributed to the development of evaluation tools and performance-based objectives. A useful model in this direction was developed at Florida Technological University. In 1975, John Hodgins reported on the efforts made at this university to develop a basis for the assessment of competency-based skills consisting of theoretical indicators derived from interdisciplinary theories. The Florida University's assessment model considers the social worker in his role as a sociocultural agent, a value agent, a normative agent, and institutional agent. Five questions are asked to elicit the range of activities: How are the activities of each subsystem coordinated? What is the energizing force of each subsystem? What are the sanctions of each

range of social work activity? What is the end result of each subsystem? Frank W. Clark has examined the answers that have been given in this model to theory, activity ranges, and systems questions. From the information collected, he has developed over 100 potential performance items. According to Clark, his performance assessment tool represents a logical approach to the identification of competence.

The Faculty Development Process

The approach which was used to train the social work faculty can be characterized as diagnostic, prescriptive, integrating, and evaluatory. It was diagnostic in the sense that the faculty's previous work on learning objectives was examined in order to determine their respective objective orientations and proximity to select criteria for judging competency-based objectives. It was prescriptive because the participants, as a group, agreed to follow a uniform objective orientation, and were required to incorporate into their future statements of students' expectations the three criteria that Robert Mager has identified for judging behavioral objectives. It was integrating because the faculty were following the logic of a competency-based education model in developing the courses. That is, the social work faculty first agreed upon common sets of course objectives, then used them as guides for selecting course content, and finally developed more specific learning objectives to operationally define each common course objective. The process

was evaluatory in the sense that faculty progress in the area of interest was measured over time and their respective scores were recorded, analyzed, and compared to equivalent measures obtained from another group which was not in the teaching program.

A workshop format was utilized to carry out most of the training and major curriculum development activities. The first series of workshops served to sensitize the social work faculty to the use of competency-based education models. This part of the process was essentially collaborative. In between workshops each participating faculty member located appropriate competency-based educational materials and prepared for presenting them to the other faculty members at a subsequent workshop. The discussions held in these workshops facilitated participatory decisions in respect to the approaches and techniques that were followed in developing the course objectives.

The second set of workshops allowed for the presentation of proposed course objectives and facilitated agreement upon them. After these objectives were agreed to, the social work faculty members, working together, made every effort to incorporate the three select criteria for behavioral objectives. The product of this part of the process has been fully reported in this dissertation.

After the development of the common objectives was completed, the frequency of the faculty workshops in a given period (i.e., a semester) was reduced. Instead of meeting once

a week, we meet two or three times in the semester. The reason for this reduction in the number of workshops resulted from the project's design. During the implementation of the common course objectives, what became critical was the research component of this phase of the project. The faculty members were expected to develop more learning objectives that would operationally define each common objective, but the central task during that time was the measurement of the faculty's progress over time. Those specific objectives which they developed in connection with the daily lesson that they taught were used as the basis for recording their progress.

Another alternative to the project design, not followed here, would have been to continue striving for more common specificity beyond the course objectives. When this is done, one is confronted with the dilemma that the continued specificity of behaviors could lead to an unwieldy instrument of enormous size and triviality. In addition, it could tend to minimize and destroy those independent judgements and styles that, according to Harold Lewis, are the hallmark of each practitioner.¹ The question of how far one can subdivide

¹Lewis has stated, "Of all the attributes of skill, style alone asserts the individuality of the practitioner in an unmistakable, not easily compromised fashion . . . How to tolerate the widest range of distinctive styles while curtailing the excesses of individual styles whose influence is destructive of goals and purposes is a question social work must address." See Harold Lewis, "The Essence of Social Work Skills" (Paper presented at NASW Annual Symposium, Hollywood-by-the-Sea, Florida, October 1975), p. 5.

complex competencies into component parts before one risks transforming professional education into technical and vocational training is not easy to answer. It is one question that will need to be addressed individually by each educational institution first, and later considered with great caution by the profession.

The Research Component

Our research component has investigated the participants' objective orientations and measured their progress in relation to generally accepted criteria for behavioral objectives. Five measures were taken throughout the program. The first measure (denoted T_1 in appropriate tables) has served as an indicator of the progress the faculty made on their own in relation to the select criteria for behavioral objectives. The second measure (denoted as T_2) was taken after completion of the preparation phase and served to indicate the progress made during the first semester in the program. The third measure (denoted as T_3) was taken after the mid-term of the first semester in the implementation phase, indicating the improvement made during that period. The fourth measure (denoted at T_4) was taken at the end of the second semester in the program and likewise served as the respective indicator of achievement for that time. The fifth and last measure (denoted at T_5) was taken after the completion of the program, thus serving as an indicator of progress for the third semester in the program.

The data generated by these measures fairly indicated

that a gradual improvement was being made by all participants over time; however, slight variations were observed between subjects which could not be explained by the data alone. There was no consistent pattern of improvement which could be logically related to the subjects' respective improvement scores. From these observations we inferred that individual differences among these faculty members, coupled with unidentified institutional factors, accounted for these variations. Notwithstanding the differential progress manifest by the participants' respective scores, it was found that all participants fairly mastered the ability to identify the specific behaviors by name after the first semester of implementation, only one participant fully developed the ability to describe the conditions under which the behavior was expected to occur by the end of the project, and none of them fully developed the ability to specify criteria for acceptable performance. The latter observation led us to conclude that additional reinforcement, beyond the one provided in this project, might be needed to ensure more progress in this area.

The comparison of equivalent measures with those obtained from another group which was not in the program was sufficiently compelling to conclude that the method used in this project was instrumental in improving the participant group's capabilities on the variable of interest. As the data in Table 9 indicate, the mean gain score for the program's group far exceeded that of the comparison group. The difference of 71.2 percentage points between the mean gain scores of the

two groups fairly sustained our project's assumption that orienting faculty to a competency-based approach has a good potential for bringing about substantial improvement in the participants' respective abilities to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. Based on the findings of this project, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that high percentage indicators in the faculty members' improvement scores can also serve as measures of clarity or communicability on the learning objectives that the faculty developed. A simple test for this hypothesis can be based on analysis of data from the administration of student evaluation of faculty instruments.

Questions Addressed in this Manuscript

Several questions have been addressed in this manuscript: Is there a need for a project of this nature? What has been done in the field to apply competency-based education to social work curricula? It is possible to reach faculty agreement on learning objectives for social work education at any level in the overall curriculum process? What are some of the implications for the teaching of social work when agreement is reached? How can we go about measuring faculty improvement on the variable of interest? Can changes in light of present realities affecting the data one needs to collect for comparison purposes be accommodated in line with the project design? What other lessons have been learned from the project experience?

The need for initiating a project of this nature has been documented in the first chapter of this report. The intensity of this need was later ascertained by reviewing the efforts that have been made throughout the nation to improve social work education. Although we have chosen to emphasize those efforts which were made in competency-based programs, it should not be taken that we are implying that no other progress has been made with other approaches. Our interest in competency-based approaches merely represents the philosophical underpinning that we have used to guide most of the activities leading to our planned process for change. The syntheses that have been presented of the relevant literature surveyed suggest that the ability of social work faculty in formulating educational expectations, and the lack of agreement upon them which prevails, are crucial factors impinging upon any curriculum development effort.

Changes in social work curricula and in the behavior of teachers will not come about because one wishes them to happen. Desired changes must be preceded by planned and directed efforts which must be supported by administrators. Given the financial constraints, under which most educational institutions now operate, there may be no other choice but to rely heavily on those who are responsible for implementing the program to bring about the desired change. As suggested in this report, changes are frequently brought about under individual initiatives of faculty members. Unfortunately, some of these changes are not always systematically shared

with the other instructors. Thus, it is incumbent upon program administrators to encourage designs that are intended to capitalize on these individual efforts.

The field of social work has long accepted the claim that it is difficult to reach agreement on learning objectives for social work education. The fact that the faculty who participated in this program were able to reach agreement on course objectives seems to cast doubt on the validity of that statement. We admit that the findings of this report must be generalized with caution due to the small sample which was available. Nevertheless, the fact that substantial agreement was reached at the course level warrants the application of this same approach to larger samples in other schools. We must note, however, that although the technique used for reaching agreement at the course level was successful, we avoided using it on the more specific objectives which are expected to guide the daily lessons.

Notwithstanding the above, we strongly recommend that some concerted effort be made to institute a procedure whereby those objectives with greater specificity that are developed in relation to the central stated objective of social work education at different institutions be systematically collected and used for identifying commonalities. These common choices, once identified, may serve as logical base for selecting specific expectations that will operationally guide the teaching of equivalent core courses, usually taught at various schools. The long range product of this evolving

process would be geared toward the attainment of more uniformity in the social work core curricula at differential levels in the educational continuum. The coordination of this effort would be most demanding and time consuming, but the perceived benefits to be derived would in all probability be sufficient to justify that cost.

Pursuing agreement on learning objectives at any level in the curriculum development process has serious implications for curriculum planning and the teaching of social work. The issue of standardization of objectives for educational programs is a familiar one. On the one hand, social work has moved into the certification of social workers for formal recognition to practice in the profession, and most states have instituted licensing examinations for that reason. These requirements logically support a call for standardization of course objectives around a core preparation. On the other hand, the diverse recognized functional roles of social work professionals (i.e., social reformer, advocate, social controller, social planner, social integrator, and mediator), coupled with the variability of progress, are strong forces against standardization. The argument against standardization is also supported by the criticisms that have been leveled against the efforts made to define social work practice., to isolate necessary knowledge and skills, and to describe social workers in terms of specific behaviors. Present knowledge of social workers' practice behaviors clearly indicates that standardization of learning objectives could

stifle progress in improving social work education.

One way to circumvent this dilemma is to promote the use of standards for core course objectives rather than standardization. Standardization implies that all trained social workers should receive identical training or at least identical criteria for competence in their respective levels of education. The use of standards for equivalent core courses merely implies that certified graduates at least have met certain minimal performance criteria in specified areas. The standards themselves might vary from program to program and from educational level to educational level, as long as the person employing a social worker could be reasonably certain that a graduate holding a degree has demonstrated basic competencies which are in line with expectations of effective practice as a social worker.

Obtaining agreement on course objectives also has implications for the teaching of social work. The agreed upon statements of learning are not only for students, but for the teacher as well. Individual faculty who are assigned to implement them must design ways and means to facilitate students' achievement. This implies that they are expected to select course content that is appropriately related to the common course objectives. They must use evaluation techniques which are in line with the performance criteria and which have been set for those objectives. Consequently, the teaching task will be viewed as more demanding and complex. Some will take this added dimension as a challenge and will

attempt to comply with what is required. Others will ignore it completely and defend their actions on grounds of academic freedom. This latter move, if it happens, may interfere with efforts at improving the teaching of social work.

The thrust of this report has centered around the capacity of a group of social work faculty in a given school to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms. Therefore, measuring for this variable before and after the program is crucial. The critical question that emerges is how to measure faculty improvement? The research on the literature that we conducted did not offer much guidance in this direction. The instruments that we collected from the schools with competency-based programs were similarly not helpful. Most schools provided us with instruments that they had developed to evaluate students' competencies, but none of them had attended to the issue of measuring faculty improvement in any systematic way. As a result, it was necessary for us to develop our own approach and instruments. The tools that we had used to collect and analyse the data for measuring faculty improvement were presented in the preceding chapters or as appendices in this report. As demonstrated in Chapter V, we were able to record the improvement that each participant was making in relation to his ability to formulate learning objectives in behavioral terms.

A crucial issue of project design is the changing conditions that usually occurs in the real world of program implementation. In this demonstration, the original design

called for a more sophisticated approach to the comparison question than the one which we presented in this report. The design called for the comparison of the full time social work faculty with adjuncts who were assigned to teach additional sections of the same courses that were treated here. Although the required adjunct sections were scheduled, student enrollment in them was low, resulting in the cancellation of those sections. An immediate adjustment was necessary, demanding the preservation of the comparison issue in line with the original design. As explained earlier, this was done by selecting a comparison group equivalent to the adjunct group. The idea of using this group was twofold. On one hand, we wanted to compare the net improvement gain scores on the variable of interest between the program participants and this other group. On the other hand, we wanted to look at the difference, if any, in the way that students rated the faculty of both groups. The findings based on these comparisons were fully discussed in Chapter V, and will not be reviewed here. The point is that, in future replication studies, these possible changes in conditions must be anticipated in the planning phase of the project and equivalent alternatives be sought in advance.

Additional Lessons Derived from this Experience

As suggested in this report, there is a need to assist even experienced faculty in adhering to informed ways of approaching learning objectives. If the approach, which is

used, is diagnostic, prescriptive, and evaluative, it has a good potential for enhancing the benefits that the participating faculty can derive in the form of feedback. However, for this feedback to be effective, it must be based on generally accepted criteria for judging the specific area which we want to improve. Robert Mager's criteria for behavioral objectives seem to be in line with the current wishes of most educators in making learning objectives clearer, communicable, and more specific to the students.

The learning objective has been highlighted in this project because it is a critical variable in curriculum development. From the content of this report, it appears that objectives are not utilized as extensively as one might think from reading the literature. Curriculum directors, social work educators, psychologists, learning theorists, and others are generally familiar with the technical terms, but it appears that a great number of them, after paying homage to the concept of behaviorally described learning, go on to formulate learning objectives in their own way.

Practically and operationally, learning objectives can serve many functions. They can serve as a means of communication between instructors and learners. They can become good guides for instructors to follow in making decisions about content to be taught. They can serve as a base for measuring and evaluating learning outcomes. They can be instrumental in expanding communication between the professional educator and social work theorists who attempt to dis-

cern what specific behaviors or performances provide data that can be used to structure, sequence, and validate social work programs. These are more than sufficient reasons for attempting to strengthen the faculty capability in formulating objectives.

The writing of learning objectives conforming to normative criteria presents a problem in faculty development. It is probably unrealistic to expect 100 percent success in any training program designed to meet all the desired criteria. Although several approaches can be used to facilitate the required sensitization, some approaches will prove to be more effective than others. The use of suggested readings, alone, does not seem to be very successful. Required formal training can be successful, but it is usually accomplished only against considerable opposition. A promising approach can be one in which the faculty are invited to contribute to the program by following an educational philosophy that places heavy emphasis on the learning objectives. One of these approaches, i.e., a competency-based approach, had been explored in this demonstration.

Irrespective of the approach used, one must be mindful that writing learning objectives is to some degree a creative and artistic process. Consequently, some individuals will be more proficient than others, even when they are exposed to the same kind of training. Recognizing these differences, one must adopt an incremental-participatory approach in the total developmental process. As suggested in this work, the

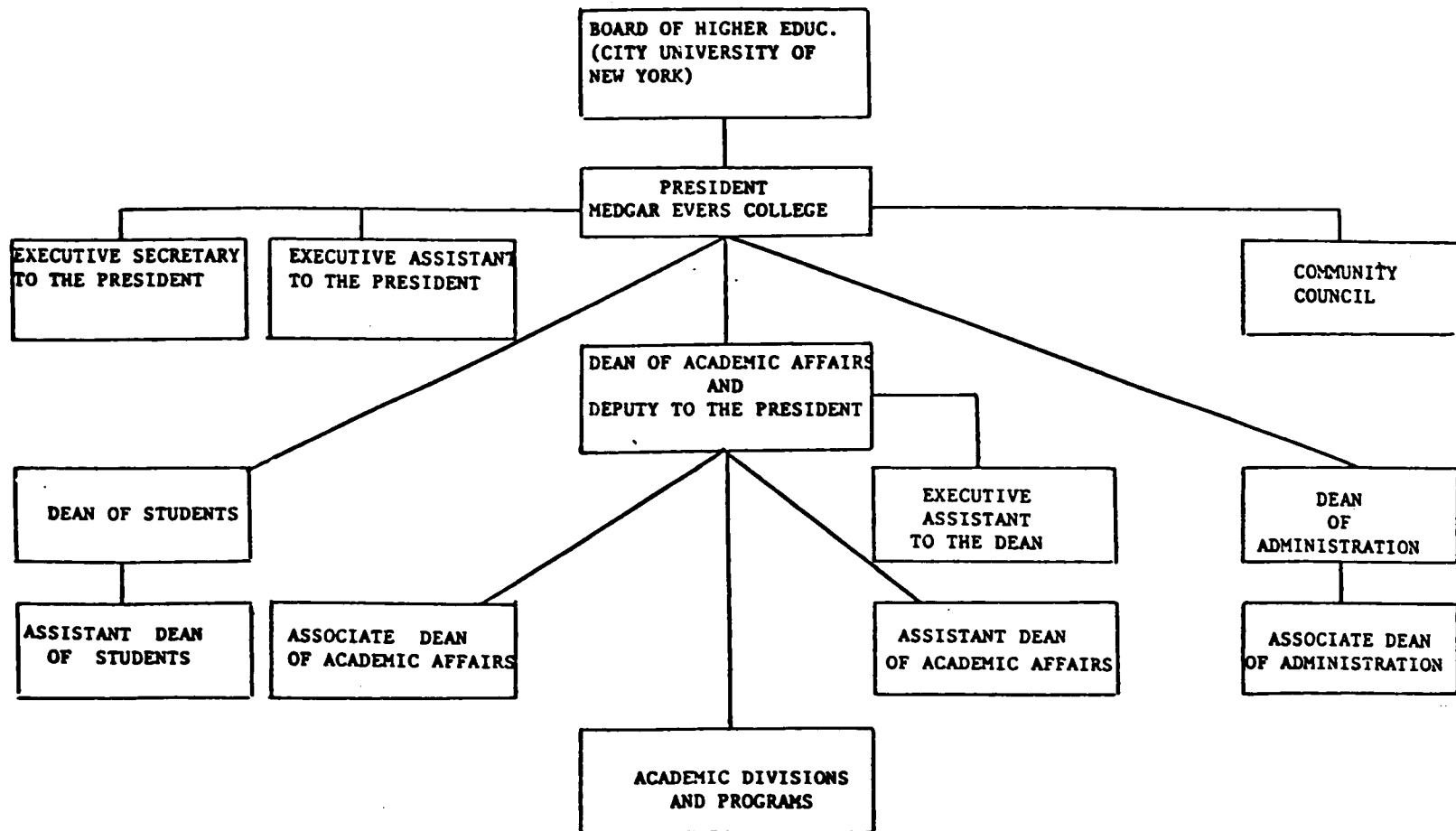
first logical step would be to encourage the faculty to propose course objectives that the entire group can agree upon. The second step is to sensitize the faculty to the extent to which each one of them has mastered each criterion element that will be used to judge a competency-based objective. The third step is to group the faculty into teams according to the criterion element in which they show the greatest capability. The next step is to process each course objective through each one of the groups, after instructing them to work on the criterion element assigned to the particular group. The last step would be to bring them together in order to agree on the course objectives. Obviously, this evolving process will be time consuming but, in light of the expected results, it is a viable alternative.

APPENDIX

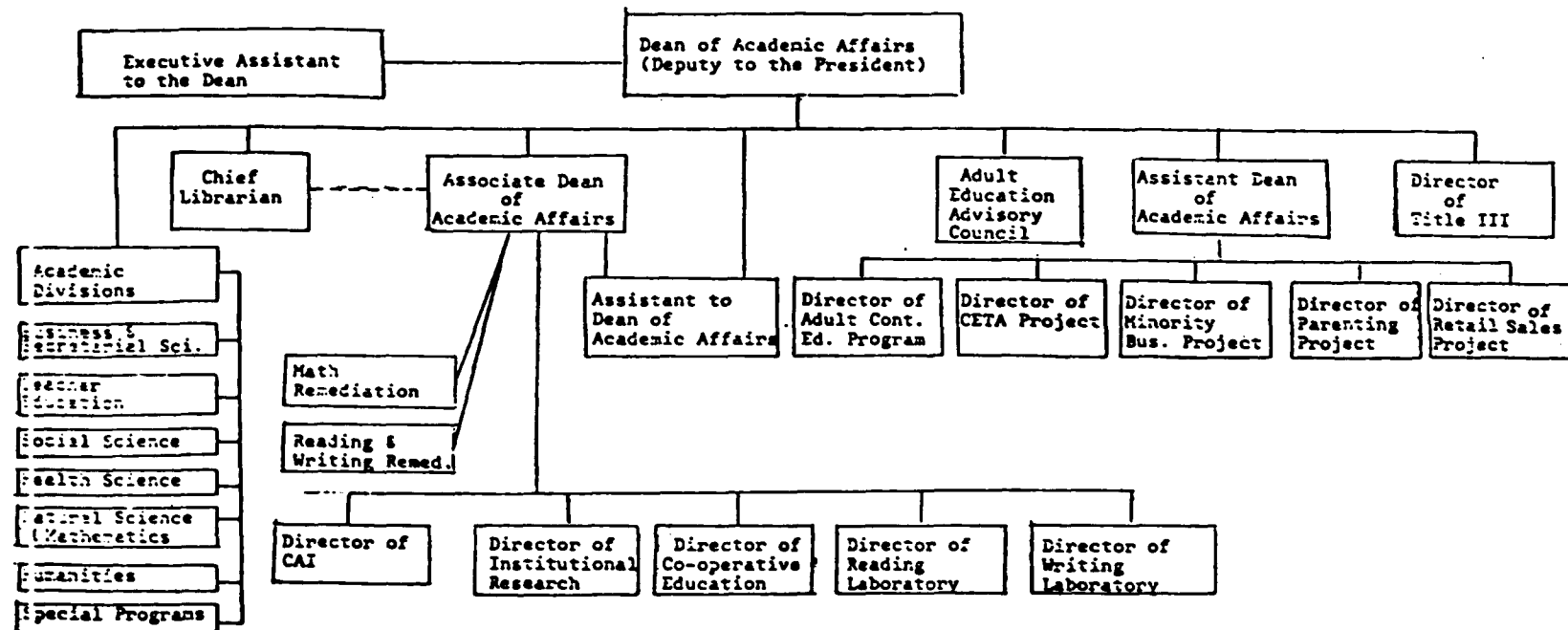
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APPENDIX I

TABLE I
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE:
MEDGAR EVERS COLLEGE



APPENDIX I

TABLE II
OFFICE OF THE DEAN OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS

cont.

TABLE III

OFFICE OF THE DEAN OF ADMINISTRATION

APPENDIX I

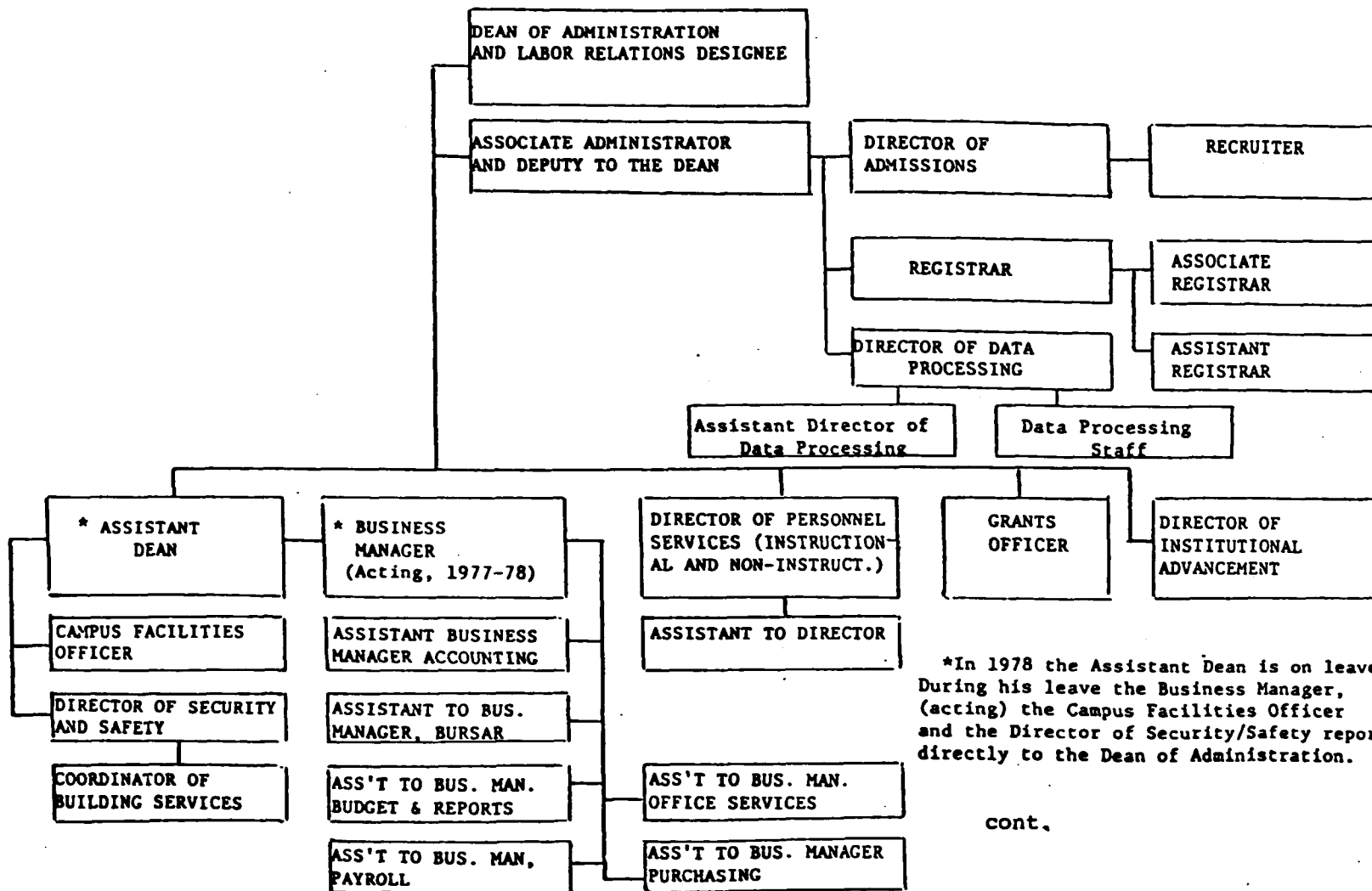
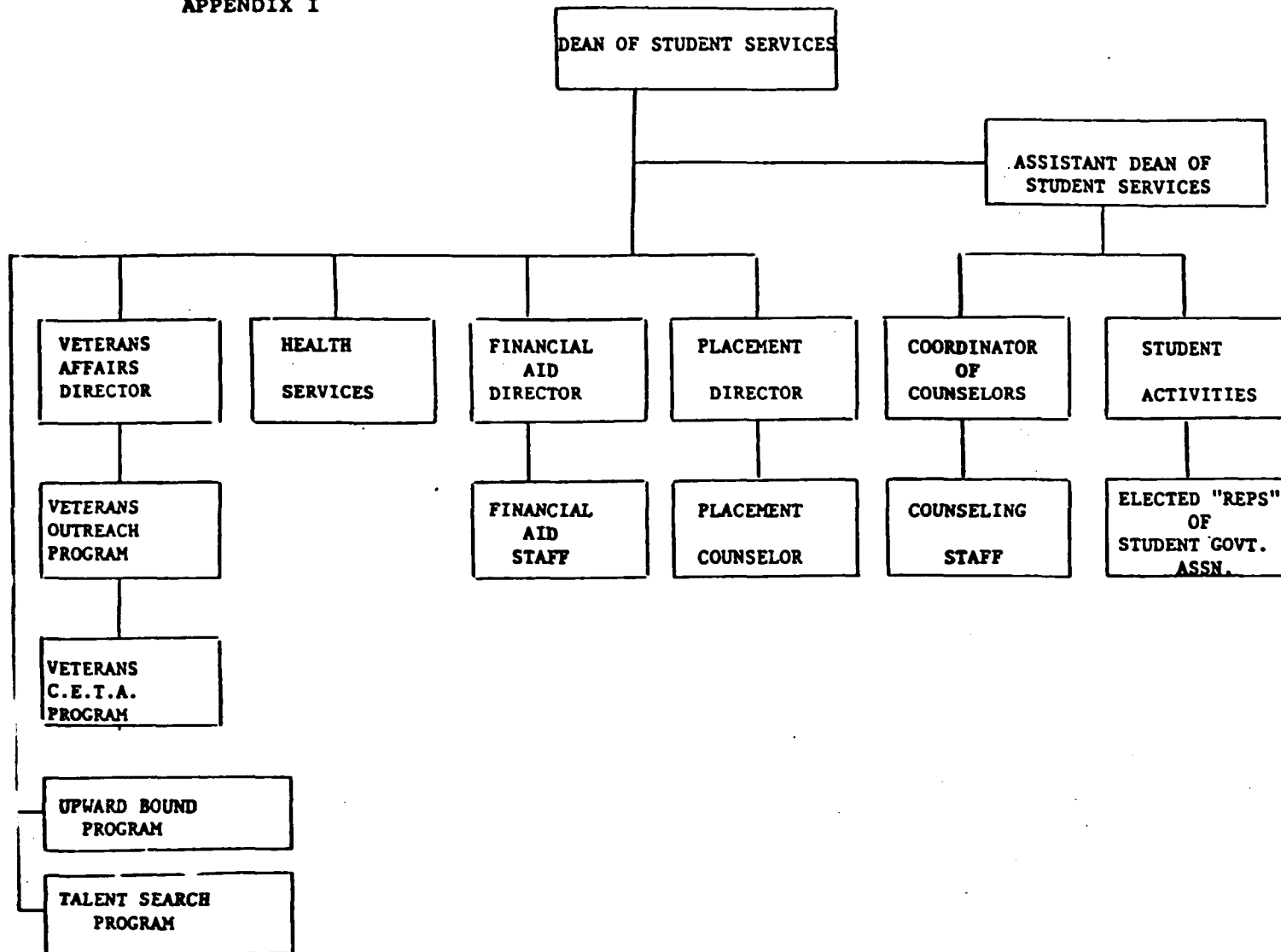


TABLE IV

OFFICE OF THE DEAN OF STUDENTS

APPENDIX I



APPENDIX II

Form #4	STUDENT'S PROFILE
	Course _____ Section _____
1. ☐ Male ☐ Female	
2. Age: ☐ 18-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 41 & over	
3. Have you ever performed social work tasks/functions before taking this course? ☐ Yes ☐ No	
4. Are you currently performing social work tasks other than those which are required in this course? ☐ Yes ☐ No	
5. Employment: ☐ Working ☐ Had never worked ☐ Had worked, but I am currently unemployed	
6. Class standing: ☐ 1st smstr freshman ☐ 2nd smstr freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Senior	
7. Check the social work method which attracts you most: ☐ Casework ☐ Groupwork ☐ Community Organization ☐ Research ☐ Administration ☐ Other (specify) _____	
8. Which of the following settings do you prefer for your practice? ☐ Government Agency ☐ Private Agency ☐ Community-based Agency ☐ Urban Area ☐ Rural Area	
9. List social work courses completed (including this course)	

APPENDIX III

STUDENT EVALUATION OF TEACHING

Instructor's Name _____

Course No. _____ Section _____

1. I am enrolled in this course because: ☐ It is required
☐ Is one of a required group ☐ I would have taken it anyway
☐ It is an elective
2. Grade you expect in this course: ☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D
☐ F ☐ Other
3. Major or Field: ☐ Education ☐ Sci. & Math ☐ Hum.
☐ Social Sci. ☐ Nursing ☐ Social Work ☐ Pub. Adm.
☐ Urban Planning ☐ Mental Health ☐ Comparative & International Adm.

For items 4 through 6, MARK THE NUMBER OF THE CATEGORY WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR JUDGEMENT.

- 1 = Much less than in most courses I've taken.
 2 = Somewhat less than in most courses I've taken.
 3 = About the same as in most course I've taken.
 4 = Somewhat more than in most courses I've taken.
 5 = Much more than in most courses I've taken.
4. Before this term began, my desire to take this course was..... 1 2 3 4 5
5. In this course I have learned..... 1 2 3 4 5
6. Compared to other courses at the same level of difficulty (i.e., 100, 200, 300, etc.) the amount of studying I did was..... 1 2 3 4 5

Directions: Listed below are several characteristics of teaching behaviors. Under each are the numbers 1 through 5, which stand for the following categories:

cont.

APPENDIX III

- 1 = In this respect, your instructor ranks below most of the teachers you have known.
- 2 = In this respect, your instructor is only fair in comparison with other teachers you have known.
- 3 = In this respect, your instructor is competent and compares well with the average of the teachers you have known.
- 4 = In this respect, your instructor is well above the average of teachers you have known.
- 5 = In this respect, your instructor is one of the most outstanding you have known.

RATE YOUR INSTRUCTOR BY MARKING THE NUMBER THAT INDICATES THE CATEGORY WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR JUDGEMENT ON EACH ITEM. JUDGE EACH ITEM SEPARATELY, WORK QUICKLY, BUT NOT THOUGHTLESSLY OR CARELESSLY.

7. Interprets difficult or abstract ideas clearly 1 2 3 4 5
8. Has presented course content in an organized manner..... 1 2 3 4 5
9. Makes good use of examples and illustrations to clarify concepts..... 1 2 3 4 5
10. Has increased my interest in the subject..... 1 2 3 4 5
11. Conveys his/her knowledge of the subject to student..... 1 2 3 4 5
12. Has given me new viewpoints or appreciations.. 1 2 3 4 5
13. Includes in class worthwhile and informative material which is not duplicated in the text.. 1 2 3 4 5
14. Tries to stimulate thinking on the part of the students..... 1 2 3 4 5
15. Has presented course content so that I perceived its relevance to my interest..... 1 2 3 4 5
16. Using the same categories above, mark the number which best expresses your judgement on the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness as compared with other instructors you have known 1 2 3 4 5
-

cont.

APPENDIX III

17. Did the exams reflect materials in the course?
☐Yes ☐No ☐Does not apply
18. Did the instructor speak clearly?
☐Yes ☐No
19. Was your work graded fairly?
☐Yes ☐No ☐Does not apply
20. How helpful to you were the instructor's responses to questions?
☐Not helpful
☐Very helpful
☐Moderately helpful
☐Does not apply
21. How much helpful feedback was provided on work submitted?
☐Very little ☐Very much ☐A moderate amount
☐Does not apply
22. Rate each of the following according to how much it contributed to your learning in this course.
- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------|
| ☐ | Very little |
| ☐ | A moderate amount |
| ☐ | Very much |
| ☐ | Does not apply |
| ☐ | LECTURES |
| ☐ | DISCUSSIONS |
| ☐ | READINGS |
| ☐ | ASSIGNMENTS |
| ☐ | LAB-RECITATION |
23. How difficult did you find this course compared to other courses at the same level of difficulty (i.e., 100, 200 300, etc.)?
☐Not difficult ☐Moderately difficult
☐Very difficult ☐Does not apply

APPENDIX IV

MEDGARS EVERS COLLEGE
OF THE
CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK
STUDENT EVALUATION OF FACULTY

Instructions: This questionnaire asks about your impressions and experiences in this course and how it has been taught. The information gathered will be used to evaluate this course, the overall effectiveness of the instructor's teaching, as well as to recommend improvement.

You are asked to rate your instructor on the organization of the course, his knowledge of subject matter, and his classroom performance. It is important that you answer the questions carefully and honestly. Do not answer questions that are unclear to you or that do not apply to this course.

You do not have to write your name on the answer sheet. Your responses will be handled confidentially. Indicate your answers by filling in the appropriate boxes on answer sheet. There is room on your answer sheet for additional comments. All responses should be made on the answer sheet darkened with the #2 pencil.

GENERAL EXPLANATION FOR RATINGS

Rating Quality

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1 | Poor | The faculty member's performance is generally unsatisfactory or inadequate in this area. |
| 2 | Fair
(Unsatisfactory, needs improvement) | The faculty member's performance is not entirely satisfactory and needs to be improved. |

cont.

Rating Quality

- | | | |
|---|------------------------|---|
| 3 | Good
(Satisfactory) | This rating means the faculty member's performance in this area is generally acceptable. It should be given when a faculty member performs at a level that corresponds with expectations for most faculty members. |
| 4 | Very Good | This rating should be given if the faculty member is above average with respect to the trait or standard. It should be given when a faculty member demonstrates above average talent and/or better performance than most other faculty members. |
| 5 | Outstanding | This rating should be given in <u>exceptional</u> cases. It should be given only when a faculty member demonstrates <u>rare talent</u> and performance with respect to the area or category. A rating of superior should be supported with a statement documenting the basis for the rating, giving concrete examples or evidence, especially if more than 2 or 3 categories or items are assigned this rating. |

Student Information: Please provide the following student information.

1. What is your classification:
(1) freshman (2) sophomore (3) junior (4) senior
2. What is your major field of study?
(1) Business (2) Education (3) Humanities
(4) Nursing (5) Natural Science (6) Secretarial Sci.
(7) Social Science
3. Have you ever taken a course with this instructor before?
(1) Yes (2) No
4. Which one of the following best describes why you are taking this course?
(1) a requirement or elective within my major
(2) a college requirement but not part of my major
(3) an elective not required in any way

cont.

APPENDIX IV

5. How many times have you been absent from this class?
 - (1) 0 times
 - (2) 1-3 class periods
 - (3) 3-5 class periods
 - (4) 6-9 or more class periods
6. How would you rate your performance in this course?
 - (1) poor (2) below average (3) average
 - (4) above average

Now check the rating which best describes, given the above explanations the faculty member's performance on each of the questions which follow.
(Ratings: 1 = poor; 2 = fair; 3 = good; 4 = very good; 5 = outstanding)

A. Course Objectives

7. The instructor provided a complete course outline or syllabus.
8. The instructor established clear class requirements and indicated how your performance would be evaluated.
9. The instructor explained the objectives and goals of the course.
10. There has been considerable agreement between stated course objectives and what has been actually taught.

B. Presentation of Subject Matter

11. The instructor appears to know his subject matter.
12. The class time is utilized effectively.
13. The instructor discusses recent developments in his/her field of study.
14. The instructor has increased my knowledge of the terminology, methods, and trends in this subject matter.
15. The instructor has presented fundamental principles and theories relevant to the subject matter.
16. The instructor covered the material at an appropriate level, neither too complicated nor too simple.

cont.

APPENDIX IV

Laboratory--If this instructor also provided laboratory, research, and/or field experience in this course, answer questions 17 and 18, if not, skip these questions.

17. The objectives of the laboratory and/or field experiences were clearly explained.
18. The laboratory or field experiences were helpful in understanding the subject matter or the course.

C. Communication and Motivation

19. The instructor's use of examples and personal experiences helped to get points across in class.
20. The instructor expects students to learn and achieve.
21. The instructor makes special attempts to help students having difficulty with the course.
22. The instructor stimulates students to think, reason, and explore new ideas.
23. The instructor has given me new viewpoints and has broadened my interests in this subject.
24. The instructor encourages students to ask questions or express opinions.
25. The instructor responds to student's questions and comments.
26. The instructor has provided insight into values and attitudes of myself and/or others.

D. Instructional Media, Materials, and Assignments

27. The instructor uses a variety of methods to present course information.
28. The instructor uses required textbook(s) and other reading materials appropriate to the course.
29. The instructor gives additional information to supplement assigned readings.

E. Evaluation Techniques

30. The instructor gives quizzes, examination, and/or oral or written assignments frequently enough to evaluate students' progress in the course.

cont.

APPENDIX IV

(Ratings: 1 = poor; 2 = fair; 3 = good; 4 = very good;
5 = outstanding)

- 31. The instructor's quizzes and examinations were clear and well organized.
- 32. The instructor's examinations and quizzes were based on assigned materials and class presentations.
- 33. The instructor returns exams and papers with grades, corrections, or comments soon enough to be helpful.

F. Other Evidence of Teaching Effectiveness

- 34. The instructor is present and on time for classes (except in case of emergency or with appropriate arrangements).
- 35. The instructor comes to class prepared.
- 36. The lectures are clear and understandable.
- 37. The instructor emphasized or summarized major points in each lesson.
- 38. The instructor deals effectively with disputes that arise in the classroom.
- 39. The instructor is available during regularly scheduled office hours.

G. Overall Rating

- 40. How would you rate your instructor in general (all-round teaching ability)?
- 41. Compared to other instructors you have had, how would you rate this instructor?

APPENDIX V

Tabulation of Topics Found By Each Judge

<u>Part A - SW 220</u>																	
<u>Judge</u>	<u>Objective Number</u>															<u>Totals</u>	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15		
1	5	4	2	5	1	4	1	1	1	2	3	1	1	1	8	40	
2	5	4	2	5	0	4	1	1	1	2	3	1	1	1	8	39	
3	5	4	0	5	0	4	1	1	0	2	3	1	1	0	8	33	
	15	12	4	15	1	12	3	3	2	6	9	3	3	2	24	112	

<u>Part B - SW 320</u>																	
<u>Judge</u>	<u>Objective Number</u>																
	1	2	3	4	5												
1	6	4	1	5	2												
2	6	4	1	5	2												
3	6	4	1	5	2												
	18	12	3	15	6												
																	54

<u>Part C - SW 321</u>																	
<u>Judge</u>	<u>Objective Number</u>																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10							
1	1	3	5	3	2	1	0	1	1	1							
2	0	3	5	3	2	1	1	1	1	1							
3	1	3	5	3	2	1	0	1	0	1							
	2	9	15	9	6	3	1	3	2	3							
																	53

cont.

APPENDIX V

<u>Part D - SW 338</u>							
<u>Judge</u>	<u>Objective Number</u>						<u>Totals</u>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	3	3	3	4	6	5	24
2	3	3	3	4	6	5	24
3	3	3	3	4	6	5	24
	9	9	9	12	18	15	72

<u>Part E - SW 457</u>														
<u>Judge</u>	<u>Objective Number</u>													<u>Totals</u>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
1	4	3	1	1	2	2	2	0	3	1	4	3	5	31
2	4	3	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	4	3	5	32
3	4	3	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	4	3	5	32
	12	9	3	3	6	6	6	2	6	3	12	9	15	95

APPENDIX VI

Self Assessment Questionnaire

1. How interested are you in competency-based education?
☐ very interested ☐ interested ☐ not too
interested

2. React to the following statements:
 - A. The ultimate purpose of professional social work practice.

 - B. The purpose of professional education is to teach effective practice behaviors.

 - C. Practice behaviors can be specified as the operational objectives of social work education.

3. How would you characterize your readiness to formulate objectives in behavioral terms?
☐ very good ☐ good ☐ not too good

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR A-GP1

CLASS SW 320-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 07

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A. COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	000,0	042,9	057,1	4,5 (90%)
B. PRESENTATION	100,0	000,0	023,6	052,7	023,6	4,0 (80%)
C. COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	000,0	010,7	050,0	039,3	4,2 (84%)
D. INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	014,3	071,4	014,3	4,0 (80%)
E. EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	000,0	007,1	060,7	032,1	4,2 (84%)
F. OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	000,0	010,0	067,5	022,5	4,1 (82%)
G. OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	000,0	042,9	057,1	4,5 (90%)
TOTAL	100,0	000,0	011,6	055,4	033,1	4,2 (84%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR A-GP1

CLASS SM 220-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 25

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	017,2	044,4	038,4	4,2 (84%)
B, PRESENTATION	100,0	000,0	037,3	040,7	022,0	3,8 (76%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	000,0	022,8	050,3	026,9	4,0 (80%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	042,7	041,5	016,0	3,7 (74%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	000,0	030,0	047,0	023,0	3,9 (78%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	000,0	036,0	043,3	020,7	3,8 (76%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	006,5	069,6	023,9	4,1 (82%)
TOTAL	100,0	000,0	029,0	046,4	024,6	3,9 (78%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR A-GP1

CLASS SW 498-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 29

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	005,3	050,9	043,9	4,3 (86%)
B, PRESENTATION	100,0	000,0	021,4	048,9	029,7	4,0 (80%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	000,0	014,4	055,9	029,7	4,1 (82%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	015,9	054,9	029,3	4,1 (82%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	000,0	016,3	052,9	030,8	4,1 (82%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	000,0	011,9	063,6	024,5	4,1 (82%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	011,9	045,2	042,9	4,3 (86%)
TOTAL	100,0	000,0	014,9	053,0	031,3	4,1 (82%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR B-GP1

CLASS SW 321-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 23

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100.0	000.0	000.7	052.2	039.1	4.3 (86%)
B, PRESENTATION	100.0	000.0	042.6	037.7	019.7	3.7 (74%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100.0	000.0	025.0	050.0	024.2	3.9 (78%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100.0	000.0	047.0	033.3	018.0	3.7 (74%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100.0	000.0	030.4	045.7	023.9	3.9 (78%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100.0	000.0	031.9	045.9	022.2	3.9 (78%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100.0	000.0	020.5	061.4	018.2	3.9 (78%)
TOTAL	100.0	000.0	030.9	045.4	023.7	3.9 (78%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR B-GP1

CLASS SW 220-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 17

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	000,0	037,9	062,1	4,6 (92%)
B, PRESENTATION	100,0	000,0	016,3	049,0	034,6	4,1 (82%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	000,0	011,1	052,6	036,3	4,2 (84%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	032,0	040,0	020,0	3,8 (76%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	000,0	006,3	049,2	044,4	4,3 (86%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	000,0	014,6	046,9	038,5	4,2 (84%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	006,3	050,0	043,8	4,3 (86%)
TOTAL	100,0	000,0	012,5	048,2	039,4	4,2 (84%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR B-GP1

CLASS SW 338-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 16

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUTSTANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	012,7	046,0	041,3	4,2 (84%)
B, PRESENTATION	100,0	000,1	016,2	060,6	015,2	3,8 (76%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	001,6	017,3	063,0	017,3	3,9 (78%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	029,8	053,2	017,0	3,8 (76%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	003,1	023,4	056,3	017,2	3,8 (76%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	006,4	016,0	064,9	012,8	3,8 (76%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	013,3	070,0	016,7	4,0 (80%)
TOTAL	100,0	003,4	017,9	059,7	018,9	3,9 (78%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR C-GP1

CLASS SW 447-001

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 12

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUTSTANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	000,0	000,0	053,2	046,8	4,4 (88%)
B, PRESENTATION	100,0	000,0	002,3	041,4	056,3	4,5 (90%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	000,0	000,0	055,7	044,3	4,4 (88%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	000,0	005,9	058,8	035,3	4,2 (84%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	000,0	000,0	058,5	041,5	4,4 (88%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	000,0	000,0	043,6	056,4	4,5 (90%)
G, OVERALL RATING	100,0	000,0	000,0	023,5	076,5	4,7 (94%)
TOTAL	100,0	000,0	001,1	049,3	049,6	4,4 (88%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR F-GP3

CLASS

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 20

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A. COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,9	034,2	039,2	016,5	001,3	2,6 (52%)
B. PRESENTATION	100,0	004,3	031,9	049,1	014,7	3,7 (74%)
C. COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	100,0	013,9	041,1	037,7	007,3	3,3 (66%)
D. INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	005,1	039,0	049,2	006,8	3,5 (70%)
E. EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	004,1	047,3	044,6	004,1	3,4 (68%)
F. OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	101,9	003,7	043,0	043,0	008,4	3,5 (70%)
G. OVERALL RATING	100,0	002,7	070,3	021,6	005,4	3,2 (64%)
TOTAL	101,4	010,3	041,7	039,0	007,5	3,4 (68%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR G-GP3

CLASS

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 20

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS-					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUT- STANDING	
A. COURSE OBJECTIVES	008,6	022,9	044,3	018,6	005,7	2,9 (58%)
B. PRESENTATION	001,0	008,7	047,1	036,5	006,7	3,3 (66%)
C. COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	006,2	023,3	040,4	025,3	004,8	2,9 (58%)
D. INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	009,8	017,6	054,9	017,6	000,0	2,8 (56%)
E. EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	006,8	012,3	043,8	032,9	004,1	3,1 (62%)
F. OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	004,8	008,7	056,7	026,0	003,8	3,1 (62%)
G. OVERALL RATING	010,3	017,2	058,6	013,8	000,0	2,7 (54%)
TOTAL	005,9	015,8	047,7	026,3	004,3	3,0 (60%)

APPENDIX VII

STUDENT EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR HOSP 3

CLASS

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RESPONDING 19

CATEGORY	PERCENT OF STUDENTS RATING INSTRUCTOR AS					RATING (5 POINT SCALE)
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD	OUTSTANDING	
A, COURSE OBJECTIVES	100,0	043,4	026,3	009,3	000,0	2,1 (42%)
B, PRESENTATION	104,6	020,4	046,1	027,0	001,8	3,0 (60%)
C, COMMUNICATION AND MOTIVATION	160,7	019,7	055,3	018,4	005,9	3,1 (62%)
D, INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND ASSIGNMENT	100,0	010,5	057,9	029,8	001,8	3,2 (64%)
E, EVALUATION TECHNIQUES	100,0	010,5	064,5	025,0	000,0	3,1 (62%)
F, OTHER EVIDENCE OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS	100,0	011,4	071,1	017,5	000,0	3,1 (62%)
G, OVERALL RATING	185,0	043,4	026,3	009,3	000,0	3,1 (62%)
TOTAL	104,3	022,8	049,6	018,3	003,2	3,0 (60%)

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