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THE ADOLESCENT TECHNICIAN: A TRAINING MODEL FOR MASTERY
AND DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH

City University of New York

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THE ADOLESCENT TECHNICIAN:
A TRAINING MODEL FOR MASTERY
AND DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH

by

MARTHA FRAAD HAFLEY

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

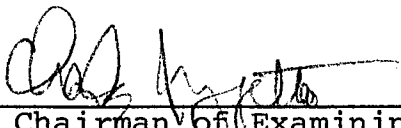
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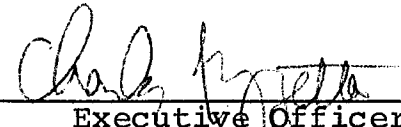
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1981

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 Social Welfare.

1 May 1981
Date

1 May 1981
Date


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Abstract

THE ADOLESCENT TECHNICIAN: A TRAINING MODEL FOR MASTERY AND DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH

by

Martha Fraad Haffey

Advisor: Dr. Charles Guzzetta

The human service training project for high school students was based on the supposition that an experience in adolescence of mastery in an occupational area, in this case human services, will positively influence the adolescent in the process of identity formation. In this project, identity formation refers to the developmental task of adolescence as defined by Erikson's theoretical model. In particular, this project focuses on the specific process of vocational identity as one aspect of an adolescent's identity. Models of vocational development which have informed this project have been drawn from the results of the Career Pattern Study (Super, et al.) and the Career Development Study (Gribbons and Lohnes). The purpose of the human service training project

was to help students master skills in the human service field at a technician level of performance by learning specific practice rules and by applying these rules to practice. The three areas of focus for this project were: (1) the level of performance for high school students in the human services; (2) students' mastery of human service skills according to this program's curriculum and performance standards as well as the student's self-perception of mastery; (3) the relationship of student mastery to identity formation/vocational development.

The project, modeled after a multimethod training concept, consisted of two distinct but interrelated components: work experience in a human service agency under the supervision of agency personnel and participation in a didactic seminar. The training curriculum and performance standards were the main focus of this project and were developed as the vehicle for defining skill development and mastery. The structure of the curriculum was defined in terms of the conceptual level of a technician's level of practice and in terms of the actual tasks performed at the work site.

Eight of a total of nineteen were studied according to ratings on the performance standard

form, self-reports of mastery and changes on the crystallization of occupational interests index, consisting of five vocational maturity variables. Results indicated that high levels of performance may have furthered growth in vocational development. In addition, students' perceptions of mastery in performance regardless of actual ratings may have been a factor in career choice. A student's ability to conceptualize performance in terms of specific skills did not appear to influence growth on the crystallization variables specific to developing interests in the human services. In this study, a student's identification of skill as defined by this project's framework, may have contributed to student's perceptions of lowered mastery in human service skill. In the area of skill development, students tended to perform on higher levels in adaptive rather than functional skill areas. Results indicated that variables of time, the broad range of content, method and sample may have influenced outcomes.

Conclusions suggest that the results have implications for the design of training programs with goals which focus on developmental growth or change. Although task analysis may have been useful in defining appropriate competencies and curriculum content for entry into agency practice, for the most

part, this analysis did not define the process of applying learning to practice. In fact, an understanding of this process may be more useful in defining content and competencies for programs which emphasize developmental rather than employment related goals. In this training program for high school students with goals of enhancing vocational maturity through mastery of skills in a time-limited period, training which focused on adaptational skills and content would more likely have met stage-specific needs.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In an effort to be brief, I am unable to mention the many people who helped guide and sustain my energies in the process of developing, implementing and analyzing this project. In the space that permits, I would, however, like to identify the very important contribution of a few individuals.

Foremost, I would like to acknowledge the tremendous personal and intellectual support of my project committee. Dr. Charles Guzzetta's contribution to the development of the curriculum, his efforts at helping me overcome a natural tendency toward redundancy and in furthering the project's process toward completion were invaluable. Dr. Jesse Smith's expertise and patient guidance in both the development and analysis of the evaluation component as well as his corrections of the text were an integral part of this completed project. Dr. Irving Weisman, who generously offered to become part of the committee after the project's implementation, was extremely helpful in unifying the text.

My husband, Sam Haffey, whose standard of excellence for his own professional performance has

been a continued example and support over the years of this project.

Lastly, I would like to acknowledge the contribution of the students in groups A and B of the Human Service Training Project. Their ability to risk, their desire to grow, their innate wisdom and sensitivity have enriched and broadened my own life. It is my sincere belief that through the mutual interchange of adolescent students with the community in supportive programs, the community will come to recognize and validate their strengths and the possibilities for their very positive contribution.

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CHAPTER I

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROJECT

Evolution of Program Design and Objectives

The human service training project was developed as a child guidance service in a voluntary psychiatric out-patient clinic. Although the clinic was founded with the objective of providing low cost psychoanalytic treatment to the adult community and psychoanalytic training to the medical community, the social service department's orientation was based on a community-oriented, child guidance approach. During the early 1970s, the child guidance unit of the clinic developed a model for the provision of on-site school mental health services. Among a variety of services at both the elementary and secondary school level, social workers implemented a small group service for senior students at a public girls' vocational high school. Based on the helper-therapy model, the service aimed at improving school performance for marginally functioning students by incorporating the students as tutors into the clinic's elementary school service.

At the program's subsequent expansion, the student population included a wide range of work-study students from a variety of high schools under the auspices of the New York City Bureau of Cooperative Education. Because of the increase to forty-six students at the maximum, students were placed through the clinic in community based services primarily serving children, the elderly, and the developmentally disabled. Students' performances were monitored by the clinic staff. Whereas at its inception, the high school program was defined as a therapeutic service with the goal of improved school functioning, the expansion of the program to include a varied group of students created goal displacement in the program. In effect, the clinic was sponsoring a program with diffuse service objectives.

The design of the program described in this project grew out of a need to re-define the high school service in terms of the clinic's overall focus. The service was re-designed for the purpose of enhancing the students' adjustment to a normative developmental stage. In the process of helping students accomplish developmental tasks, the service aimed at supporting students in their transition.

from the secondary school institution to the work place or to higher education. To this end, the revised design maintained the experiential learning component with the addition of a didactic integrating seminar and performance evaluation. A human service training curriculum based on rules of practice structured the small group seminar for the purpose of supporting students' sense of mastery in the field.

In addition, the revised objectives aimed at meeting the developmental needs of an inner-city population. The characteristics of ethnicity, single-parent families and employment history of the group of students in this project (see Table 1) are reflective of disadvantaged populations who are potentially at risk in obtaining and maintaining employment. In this project, although these factors were thought to have a potential impact on adolescent adjustment and transition to the workplace, they are included here for contextual purposes only and were not included as factors in the final analysis.

The risk factor for this population has been indicated by employment statistics for Blacks and Hispanics in New York State, who in 1979 experienced

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES FOR THE STUDY GROUP

(1) <u>Age at the end of ten weeks in the program:</u>				
<u>Age</u>				
19	18	17	16	
6	5	7	1	
(2) <u>Ethnicity:</u> <u>Black</u> <u>Hispanic</u> <u>White</u> <u>Other</u>				
7 11 0 1				
(3) <u>Family (Past five years):</u> <u>Intact</u> <u>Not Intact</u>				
6 13				
(4) <u>Parents' Employment Status in Past Five Years:</u>				
<u>Both Employed</u> <u>One Employed</u> <u>Neither</u>				
6 6 7				
(5) <u>Students' Employment History:</u>				
<u>Years</u>				
	<u>One</u>	<u>Two</u>	<u>Three or More</u>	
Summer	3	3	7	
Winter				
Both	3		3	
Youth Corps: Thirteen students had been employed through Neighborhood Youth Corps at some point in their working career. Most of the students' employment history is reflective of Youth Corps positions.				

unemployment at the rates of 11.6% and 10.5% respectively, compared with the 7.1% New York State total average unemployment.¹ A recent report by the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education cites a 41.8% unemployment rate for Black recent high school graduates, not attending college, as compared with 13.1% for Whites in the same category.² Since the 1960s, federal efforts have been directed at meeting the employment needs of disadvantaged adults and youth.³ Approximately two-thirds of this project's sample had met the criteria for and had participated in the federally sponsored Neighborhood Youth Corps summer programs designed to meet temporarily the employment needs of in-school disadvantaged youth.

Purpose

The high school training program in the human services described herein was based on the supposition that an experience in adolescence of mastery in an occupational area, in this case human services, will positively influence the adolescent in the process of identity formation. In this project, identity formation refers to the developmental task of adolescence as defined by Erikson. In particular, this project focuses on

the adolescent's vocational identification as a specific aspect of adolescent identity. The purpose of the human service training project was to help students master skills in the human service field at a technician level of performance by learning specific practice rules and by applying these rules to the work component of the program. The three areas of focus for this project are:

- (1) the level of performance for high school students in the human services;
- (2) students' mastery of human service skills according to this program's curriculum and performance standards; and
- (3) the relationship of student mastery to identity formation/vocational development.

The project consisted of two distinct but interrelated components: work experience in a human service agency under the supervision of agency personnel and participation in a didactic seminar. The training curriculum and performance standards developed for the seminar were the main focus of this project as the vehicle for defining skill development and mastery. The curriculum, based on theories of experiential education and training, was designed as a framework to structure the student work experience. The structure was

defined in terms of the conceptual level of a technician's level of practice and skill and in terms of the actual tasks performed at the work site. The purpose of the curriculum which defined skill by rules of practice in the adaptive and functional areas was two-fold: (1) to help students function on the technician level in the work place, and (2) to help students achieve a sense of mastery in human service skills. In this project, mastery was defined in terms of an observer's assessment of students' level of practice and in terms of the students' awareness of performance as related to specific, identifiable skills. By underlining rules of practice related to actual practice examples and by evaluating student performance according to behaviors which defined these same rules of practice, this project aimed at facilitating a student's identification of his/her own practice according to the curriculum framework.

Program Structure (Ten-week Time Span)

(1) Two groups of nine and ten students respectively, alternating with each other between human service training program and school.

(2) Major training components during the work/training program week.

(a) Work-site: four days attendance at a human service agency from approximately 8:30-3:00.

1. Student functions in a specific role in an agency.
2. Student functions as part of a human service team.
3. Student is supervised by agency personnel.
4. Student is evaluated twice during the semester by agency personnel.

(b) Didactic Seminar: students meet in a group led by the program coordinator during one full day of the work week.

1. Program coordinator presents human service curriculum as structure of seminar.
2. Student participation in group discussion.
3. Student hands in and is returned weekly log assignments based on weekly reading, discussion and experience.
4. Student participation in role playing exercises.

Selection Process

Participation in the human service training program was intended to be voluntary. All health careers seniors were required to attend a presentation describing the program during the fall semester of their senior year. Fifteen of these students had volunteered to enter the program. Two additional students were transferred from the practical nursing track because of the faculty's assessment of their inability to adapt to the clinical experience in their fall semester. The remaining two students were selected by the high school faculty. For the most part, students' decisions to enter the program voluntarily were based on the following criteria:

- (1) Interest: in working with children, in direct client contact, and in broadening exposure to different experiences.
- (2) Dissatisfaction: with the hospital program.
- (3) Indecision: about career choice.

Systems Incorporated into the Program Design

The final structure of the human service training program incorporated three different systems, the psychiatric out-patient clinic ...

mentioned above, two components of the New York City Board of Education (a public girls' vocational high school and the Bureau of Cooperative Education), and six community based human service agencies.

School

The high school selected for concentration in this project was chosen on the basis of an identified system's problem which potentially had an impact on the normative developmental process of a certain segment of the school's population. Out of the four vocational areas offered to students for specialization in their sophomore year, the health careers curriculum offered a two-track program. The major focus of both tracks was directed toward practical nursing content. At the end of the sophomore year, approximately one-fourth of all health careers students who were judged as meeting the highest academic and conduct standards were routed into a separate program with the objective of state certification in practical nursing. The remaining students were placed in a less intense nursing program with the addition of clerical and a wider range of academic and non-academic courses. A major difference between the two tracks carried through the practicum in vocational training during

the senior year when practical nursing students were trained in clinical aspects of patient care. The remaining health careers students were placed in the same hospital setting in positions requiring, for the most part, no direct patient contact and some clerical skills.

At the time of this project, at the highest level of this school's administration, the health careers department was experiencing pressure, through accountability, to broaden the focus and vocational goals of the health careers students. Most aspects of the program, in terms of role models, curriculum emphasis, status as represented by uniforms, ceremonies and staff input, were concentrated in the practical nursing tracks differentially according to the assumed difficulty of the two programs. The grading policy ensured that general health careers students' performances were rated in the average or lower range of the grading scale. As it related to the human service program, the problems to be addressed were as follows:

(a) students in the health careers area who had defined themselves as oriented to the nursing and medical careers were placed in a vocational program in which goals of training were not meeting

students' early career objectives; (b) since the grading policy reinforced students' inability to experience mastery of skill, it is assumed that students in the health careers program were not experiencing substantial mastery within the area of early career choice. The study group was selected with the assumption that the particular system's problems within this school may have been creating stress in the students' development of vocational maturity.

Cooperative Education

The actual structure of the program was very much dictated by the work-study program set up by the Bureau of Cooperative Education. This component is the arm of the Board of Education which administers work-study arrangements, including payment of students and coordination between the work-site and each school.

According to the work-study structure, students spent alternate weeks in the work setting and in school. In this particular school, all senior health careers students were programmed on a work-study schedule. A small percentage of this school's health careers students were placed through cooperative education in various programs sponsored

by other systems. However, the majority were placed in a hospital setting in non-clinical positions. A random selection of these students was processed through work-study on the basis of the Bureau's allotment of spaces for the school's program. All work-study students were paid for twenty hours of work during their work week.

At implementation of the human service training project, the Youth Employment and Training Program (Y.E.T.P.) was set up through the Board of Education to sponsor programs for career development. The Youth Employment and Training program administered the evaluation and monitoring of programs as well as bi-weekly payment of student stipends from federal Youth Employment and Training funds. The fact that all of the human service training projects training positions were selected for inclusion in the Y.E.T.P. insured that all students were paid a minimum wage for their participation throughout the semester.

Community Training Sites

As mentioned above, at the expansion of the clinic's high school program, the program coordinator had developed a liaison with a system of community services as work sites for the high school

participants. These services comprised a wide range of headstart facilities, generally sponsored by community agencies, programs for the developmentally disabled, and programs for the elderly. Although headstart and retardation services were primarily focused around educational and cognitive goals, all programs included a broader perspective which focused on clients' total social functioning. Accordingly, staffing included a wide spectrum of professional and paraprofessional roles. The ethnic composition of the population served varied according to the community.

For the redesign and focus of the human service training program, six training sites were selected out of the original twelve on the basis of the following general characteristics:

(a) Administration of the program was based on rational standards and objectives in which program structure and guidelines were maintained and in which both professional and paraprofessional roles were clearly identifiable.

(b) Student's function was related to the general goal of service in which opportunities for general maintenance as well as direct service tasks were provided within the structure of a human service team. The identification of the student

role for providing individualized attention to identified clients was an important consideration in this selection process.

Of the six agencies selected, four were headstart and day care programs and two were programs for the developmentally disabled. All the agencies provided service for children, with the exception of one retardation program with a population of moderately to severely disabled adults residing in the community.

The fact that all six agencies had hosted students in the previous years of the program was somewhat of a disadvantage for the revised focus of the program. In general, the agencies' investment in training students in human service skills had been haphazard. Students performed a wide range of tasks with informal input from staff according to the needs of the service. In some headstart agencies, where on-site training was offered, content was narrowly focused on specific skills related to the educational and cognitive goals of the agencies.

According to the emphasis of this project, agencies were asked to coordinate their focus with the goals of the training program and with the content of the curriculum. Although the tasks

students performed were the same, the skill was perceived in an interactional rather than strictly educational perspective. In order to accommodate the training focus, agencies were asked to provide opportunity for weekly structured supervision in which students would have the opportunity to understand the general and specific planning process, to enlarge their perspective on individual clients and to examine their own interactions with clients.

In effect, the revised program demanded a reworking of the original contract between the agencies and the clinic in terms of their investment in student learning. However, to this end, the agency directors met with the program coordinator only once immediately before the beginning of the semester to introduce the curriculum and performance standards. Because major emphasis for the revised program was focused on the seminar and curriculum rather than on the work site, the program did not include a plan for restructuring the field experience.

Curriculum and Performance Standards

The program was designed to incorporate didactic and modeling teaching approaches in the seminar and work-site, respectively. As previously

stated, the seminar with the human service training curriculum was the main focus for study within the project. The curriculum was developed as the conceptual link to a student's mastery of human service skill and as the framework for a relatively undifferentiated but varied work assignment.⁴ Five of the six units of skill covered in the curriculum were identified as general skills considered relevant to the students' tasks in the human service setting. The sixth unit of skill was included for the eight students working within retardation settings.

Because students were being trained to function at the technician's level of practice, content for each skill area was presented in a format which related directly to this particular level of functioning. For this reason, content was structured around rules of practice which were derived from practice principles. It was the intention of this project to present content in a framework which students could more easily assimilate and directly apply to inform and structure their work. In addition, the purpose of this particular teaching method was to help students identify their interventions as related to particular practice rules and skills. This project

assumed that a student's ability to conceptualize performance in terms of skill would enhance a student's sense of mastery.

The curriculum was presented over ten sessions. Although the actual focus of the seminar was loose, and in general the pace of discussion tended to lag behind the unit presentation, the general breakdown of time allotment was as follows:

Group A:	Unit 1:	1 session
	Unit 2:	1 session
	Unit 3:	3½ sessions
	Unit 4:	2 sessions
	Unit 5:	1½ sessions
	Unit 6:	1 session
Group B:	Unit 1:	2 sessions
	Unit 2:	1 session
	Unit 3:	3 sessions
	Unit 4:	2 sessions
	Unit 5:	1½ sessions
	Unit 5:	½ session

A performance standard evaluation form was presented as an integral part of the curriculum.⁵ Forty-four performance behaviors were identified in various combinations as defining operationally each rule in terms of actual practice. Performance

standards in various combinations also defined performance in terms of learning objectives. Each student was evaluated twice during the semester, at the end of the fifth week and at the eleventh week, after the program had ended. In the following chapters, the high school training program will be discussed in terms of unmet service needs, programs which influenced this program design in meeting specific needs, and in terms of concepts which have informed the design.

FOOTNOTES

¹The New York Times, 19 January 1980, p. 27.

²Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, Giving Youth a Better Chance (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1979), p. 9.

³See Chapters II and III for fuller documentation.

⁴The full curriculum is in Appendix C.

⁵See Appendix B for a full presentation of the performance standard form.

CHAPTER II

NATURE OF UNMET NEED

The problem area which this project addresses concerns the broad category of youth's transition to adulthood. The developmental phase of youth or late adolescence has been designated as a transitional period, a bridge or rite de passage from childhood to adulthood status.¹ Within this developmental phase, a focus on the nexus between education and work has recently captured the attention of educators, social welfare planners and legislators.² For the past fifty years, this country has increasingly tended to rely on the institution of school, distinguished from that of family, church or community and on the development of cognitive skills to effect this transition.³ We have assumed that non-cognitive areas would develop through academic preparation and through other institutions.⁴ The outcome of this trend has been a greater isolation of youth from the adult community. This project, then, is concerned with the need for a balance in the schooling

experience between opportunities for developing cognitive academic skills as well as for focusing on non-cognitive traits such as identity formation and a sense of commitment.

School Reform

Reports and articles on school reform in the 1970s have reflected an increasing concern with the need for a review of policy and further planning to ease the transition period for this age group. Several of these reports have highlighted an interest in school reform to promote areas other than academic preparation. The main theme echoed by recent proposals for school reform is that work is the primary function of independent adult life and that exposure to work settings while in school develops marketable skills, personal growth and furthers integration into the workplace by broadening the students' associations with adults. The Report of the Joint Commission on Mental Health for Children states:

Since the school is the only social institution that universally reaches young people, the Task Force has particularly concentrated on the ways in which education can simultaneously retain the proper emphasis on cognitive development and the facilitation of skills and yet contribute more effectively to the growth of those non-intellective and more personal

traits through which society attempts to prepare people for significant, satisfying and contributory roles in the human community.⁵

More specifically, the Task Force recommended that these significant personal traits in the adolescent years, a sense of usefulness, a commitment to a task, and a need for greater participation in our society, be developed through expanded opportunities in creative work and service.

Out of the thirty-two recommendations in 1973 of the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, four of these were specifically related to youth's transition from school to the working community. The Commission noted that the "emotional trauma" experienced by large numbers of students entering the job market after high school could be helped substantially by a career education curriculum for all secondary school students. To accomplish this end, the Commission suggested that the school extend itself into the community for expanded work-study. Underlying these recommendations was the Commission's suggestion for redefining goals for secondary school education. Two of the recommended process goals included an emphasis on developing knowledge of self and an appreciation for others.⁶

Going one step further, in 1974, the report of the President's Panel on Youth recommended the adoption of various alternative routes for growth to enhance this transition phase. Based on the premise that the current system of education fails to offer students opportunities for maturation, they suggest expanded work-study as one alternative program. The underlying assumption of this suggestion related to work as an activity which encourages responsibility for others as well as for oneself.⁷

Through his chairmanship of the National Manpower Institute, Willard Wirtz, Secretary of Labor from 1963 to 1969, has actively promoted concepts of career education and community collaboration with schools to deal with problems of youth's transitional needs. Writing in 1975, he suggested radical educational system and program changes to incorporate the workplace and community as a place where, in part, youth gets educated.⁸

A recent report by the National Child Labor Committee addresses itself to the goal of enhancing youth's personal growth and developing youth's marketable skills. It states:

Young people need developmental work experience while in school or while they are preparing for more advanced jobs. All children and youth, including those from the white middle class, require a systematic program of developmental education and work experience.⁹

This committee proposes that through exposure to "meaningful" work, young people can acquire experience which this report considers essential for career development. These experiences contribute to a student's ability to take on responsibility and to work with others.

The need for a realignment of educational priorities certainly underlies the concept of career education, one of the main policy directions of the U.S. Office of Education since 1971. Sidney Marland, the Commissioner of Education, 1970-1972, stressed this direction in education in recognition of the fact that "work is still the psychological way that youth come of age in America."¹⁰ One of the many reasons for Marland's interest in work experience was the assumption that work could provide the student with a sense of identity, self and social fulfillment and the development of marketable skills. In the opening address to the Commissioner's National Conference of Career Education in 1976, Marland stated:

It has been an underlying concept of civilized people's self-development since the beginning, that is, growing up to work. But somehow, over the generations education has come to mean schooling--and learning has come to mean something that happened outside schools and colleges, and never the twain shall meet.¹¹

In essence, career education as a policy proposes a restructuring of education based on a progressive work orientation from kindergarten through grade fourteen. Not by any means a proposal to minimize the need for basic academic skill development, career education aims at redressing an imbalance between the seven Cardinal Principles of Education proposed in 1917, by placing an equal emphasis on education to work.

Since Marland's initial orientation, educators have attempted to define an emphasis and direction for career education as a basis for reform. Kenneth Hoyt, Director of the Office of Career Education in the U.S. Department of Education (1974 to present), has assumed a major responsibility for refining, developing and implementing a career education policy. Based on the assumptions that self-worth emanates from achievement and that in this society "we demonstrate achievement, gain in social estimation and confirm our necessary feelings of self-worth to a large extent through our labor market roles and activities," Hoyt suggests that

preparation for personal fulfillment in the world of work should be a major goal of our educational system.¹² A combination of practical work experience for educational purposes of developing social skills and self-discovery along with academic and theoretical background have been perceived by Hoyt as an optimal mix in career education.

Viewed in its concrete form, career education's goal of providing students with marketable vocational skills as an aide in transition to work is perhaps of questionable value. Eli Ginzberg, Chairman of the National Manpower Advisory Committee, cautions educators on confusing career education with job training and career achievement. Of the four major career education models, Ginzberg favors work-study for all adolescent students. He concludes that the major asset of this model is its flexibility in coordinating educational programs with students' changing developmental needs and expectations.¹³ In addition, James O'Toole, while criticizing the goal of marketable skill development as unrealistic for meeting systemic problems of youth unemployment which have contributed to youth's transitional problems,

suggests that career education's broader concept of individual developmental growth is a more valid theme for educational reform.¹⁴

Humanistic educators have been concerned with spelling out more affectively-oriented outcomes provided through work experience. One educator, in a list of personal outcomes which could be achieved through career education includes: decision-making skills, self-management strategies, positive attitudes toward work, motivation to achieve, a sense of responsibility, belief in the self as an agent, interpersonal skills, self-assertiveness without alienation of others, ability to learn from failure and ability to evaluate one's own performance.¹⁵

Congressional recognition of the need for an adjustment in educational goals to aid this transitional period was achieved in the passage of the Career Education Incentive Act in December 1977. At that time, thirty million dollars had been appropriated for the fiscal year beginning 1979 for the purpose of

making education as preparation for work, as a means of relating work values to other life roles and choices (such as family life), a major goal of all who teach and all who learn by increasing the emphasis they place on career awareness, exploration, decision-making

and planning . . .¹⁶

Documentation of the need thus far has been cited primarily from sources concerned with educational reform. These reports have stressed the need for a combination of work-study to facilitate the transition of youth into adulthood. Opinions from these reports and recent legislation have highlighted a present interest in broadening avenues to personal growth through work-study.

Youth Employment

Statistics on youth employment also present an indication of the need for planned assimilation of youth to adulthood. Recent interest in this transition has been generated by an increasing unemployment rate for all youth. Of particular interest in recent decades has been the widening gap between the jobless rates of black and white youth and the eroded labor market situation for minority teenagers. In the second quarter of 1977, the rate according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics was 40.5% for Blacks, compared with 16.1% for Whites.¹⁷ Bernard Anderson, in a paper presented at a conference on National Youth Service in April 1976, stated:

While the labor force experience of youth might normally be different from that of adults, there is reason to believe that joblessness and inadequate employment experiences of youth in

America today fall far short of any reasonable standard of economic efficiency or rational human resource development.¹⁸

Although four out of five sixteen- to seventeen-year-olds and two out of five eighteen- to nineteen-year-olds were enrolled in school in 1975, many students who attend school actively seek part-time employment. Figures in this category of unemployment show high rates for all youth. For graduates of high school the picture represented by statistics is somewhat greater.¹⁹

In general, even in periods of economic recovery, opportunities for youth employment remain more limited than those for adults. While an increase in the overall job demand for all workers might increase opportunities for youth as well, there is some doubt as to whether it would substantially narrow the gap that exists between adult and youth unemployment rates.²⁰

For the most part, then, youth for the remainder of this transition period remains outside the primary job market and unacceptable to the system. Although from statistical evidence it is obvious that youth unemployment is a serious problem, planners have been unable to establish a rationale for the continuing unresponsiveness of these rates

to programming. Neither have they been able to establish specific outcomes of youth employment on subsequent behavior. It is assumed, however, that the effect of unemployment is detrimental to youth's future market participation. A synopsis of the 1977 Employment and Training Report of the President states that

according to a 1977 analysis of the National Longitudinal Surveys, out of school teenagers who experience more than a temporary spell of unemployment may not "make up for lost time as young adult workers." These young people appear to continue being hampered over time in their search for stable employment and adequate wages.²¹

Regardless of the need for system changes to accommodate youth workers, plausible explanations for high youth unemployment rates rest on the labor market behavior of youth. Kalachek and Anderson have identified certain characteristics of youth which in some manner contribute to these relatively high unemployment figures. More than any other group, youth experiences frequent movement into and out of the labor force. They tend to withdraw from the labor market after an unsuccessful search for work. In his analysis of the labor market behavior of youth, Kalachek divides youth workers into two categories. The behavior of youth in these two categories suggests varying needs for each

group. For instance, Kalachek noted that the fourteen- to seventeen-year-old group experiences more unemployment through job re-entry. Summer and vacation employment represents the greatest influx of this age group into the work force. For eighteen- to nineteen-year-olds, unemployment rates suggest their susceptibility to lay-offs and a high rate of quitting. Unemployment rates decline and work experience tends to become more stable for young adults.²² Ginzberg also noted that the process of attachments to either an occupation or an organization is completed between the ages of twenty-five and thirty. The entry age for work has been rising with the result that jobs are limited for youth below the age of eighteen. In actuality, he suggested that few establishments hire primary workers under the age of twenty.²³ The President's Employment and Training Report of 1977 summarizes the opinions of Kalachek, Anderson and Ginzberg on youth employment of both the behavioral and systemic contributions to the problem. A summary of this report concludes:

More plausible explanations include high quitting rates among teenagers, transition between school and work and employer reluctance to hire young workers. The high rate at which teenagers voluntarily quit jobs to

return to school or seek other work is the preponderant reason for the high unemployment rates of both Blacks and Whites.²⁴

Among many interpretations, high youth unemployment rates suggest that youth's movement through the work force represents the process through which youth ". . . gain[s] important knowledge about the world of work and begin[s] to form a preference regarding lifetime career goals and aspirations."²⁵ Kalachek, questioning whether this random search is indeed the most useful means for assimilation, states:

Do they [youths' searches] result in a realistic view of career opportunities or are they an expensive substitute for a good counseling program, or are they simply an aimless experience?²⁶

Ginzberg suggests that "what is needed most . . . is a commitment to make the transition to maturity less hectic, less problematic and less aimless." He suggests that youth work programs should aim at minimizing the dysfunctional aspects of this floundering.²⁷ One assumption from these figures and opinions points to a need for greater planned coordination between schools and the community to guide youth's route into the labor force.

On March 9, 1977, President Carter indicated his intention to propose legislation for the relief

of youth unemployment. At that time, he proposed to expand youth work training programs using the structure of the Job Corps and CETA.²⁸ One of the ten principles of the planning charter for the proposed legislation recognizes the need to promote institutional change by creating programs linking education and work. Congressional passage of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act in August 1977 attested to the recognition of youth and their transition to work as a topical concern. Bringing the legislation right on target in meeting the developmental needs of this age group, President Carter stated, in signing the Bill,

I think all of us realize that as a young person reaches the age of 16, 17, 18, all the way up to 24 years of age and cannot get a job in the formative years of life, there is a feeling of despair, discouragement, a loss of self-esteem, an alienation from the structure of society, a lashing out against the authorities who are responsible, which can shape that life for years to come.²⁹

The Act provided two distinct components: The Young Adult Conservation Corps for youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-three to accomplish conservation work on public lands; and Youth Employment Demonstration Programs consisting of a three-subpart amendment to CETA legislation which provided the structure to encourage innovative,

demonstration programs for sixteen- to nineteen-year-old disadvantaged youth.³⁰

Viewed as an entity in itself, the Career Education Incentive Act and the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act spell out this country's present commitment and concern about youth's transitional needs from school into the world of work. In conjunction with the legislative orientation toward youth work and career planning, the project described in the following pages focuses on providing expanded opportunities to meet the developmental needs of this age group. Seen in the context of recent interest in a revised relationship between school and work, this project incorporates many of the aims of career education as well as the suggestions and recommendations of proposals for educational reform. By involving students in the process of acquiring beginning level human service skills, this project focuses on the development of non-academic skills for aiding youth's healthy adaptation to future roles.

FOOTNOTES

¹Concerning the designation of youth as a transitional period note the title of the James Coleman report, Youth: Transition to Adulthood, The Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee, by James Coleman, Chairman (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974).

In addition, The National Child Labor Committee report on youth titled, Rite of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work, states,

The business of youth is a "rite of passage"--making the transition to adulthood. Expanding current modes of employment would certainly help, but even full employment, if it is based on conventional job structure, will not totally solve the nation's youth employment problem. Young people need developmental work experiences while in school or while they are preparing for more advanced jobs. The National Child Labor Committee, Rite of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work (New York: The National Child Labor Committee, 1976), p. 3.

See also the discussion in this paper in Chapter III on the developmental tasks of youth.

²Illustrating this current interest, note the following studies:

The Final Report of the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education, which states that

. . . the Panel recommends that the U.S. adolescent education system actively integrate youth into the broader community by providing a wide variety of out-of-school or "experience-based" learning opportunities. The Education of Adolescents, The Final Report and Recommendations of the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education, By John Henry Martin, Chairman (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976) p. 52.

For adolescents in the United States to be integrated into, rather than further isolated from, the workings and experiences of the larger

society, the society as a whole must recognize that the school is not the only institution which needs to be actively involved with youth and their education. Ibid., p. 61.

In his book Career Education, Sidney Marland proposes the infusion of career education curriculum into all levels of education in order to increase the relevance of education to the real world. Many of his proposals stress increased interaction between the school and the community. The Educational Amendments of 1972 set up the National Institute of Education (N.I.E.). Marland states, concerning the N.I.E.,

. . . one salient feature of NIE's statute is the expectation by Congress that the agency will perform research and development functions on career education and disseminate the results of such research and development. Sidney Marland, Career Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), p. 274.

²Willard Wirtz, in his book The Boundless Resource, focuses on Education-Work policy. In his introduction he states:

A good deal of the American achievement traces in one way or another to the development of Education and Work as coordinate forces. They have, however, been distinctively separate developments controlled by independent institutional sovereignties--with the consequences that in most people's lives learning and earning pass as totally isolated chapters. . . . The vague public awareness of a decade ago of the human costs in compartmentalizing education and work is today developing into a consensus that the two systems be brought together. Willard Wirtz, The Boundless Resource (Washington, D.C.: The New Republic Book Company, 1975), p. 1.

Elsewhere in his book, Wirtz notes that: More than the development of any "program" approach to the problem is the necessity to start thinking of the workplace and the community as a place where, in part, youth get educated. The education budget must shoulder its appropriate share of the costs. This means, to be sure, that the education budget must go up and down with the business cycle, a prospect not unwelcome from the

standpoint of national economic management.
Ibid., p. 58.

And,
 Educators and employers must, to be sure--both as a matter of advancing their particular interests and discharging their responsibilities, and equally as a matter of institutional development--be the primary architects and builders of a more rational interrelationship between education and work. Ibid., p. 64.

The National Manpower Institute, a non-profit institution concerned with the development and implementation of education-work policy, administers the Work-Education Consortium Project with funds from the Department of Labor. The Work-Education Consortium "was designed to give solid, experiential meaning to the term 'community collaboration,' as applied to the problems associated with youth's transition from school to work." Dennis Gallagher, "The Work-Education Consortium, A Progress Report," The Work-Education Exchange (Spring 1978), p. 1. The Consortium consists of approximately twenty-six Work Education councils whose membership represents a wide variety of community sectors: i.e., labor unions, youth groups, local government, education and business. Dennis Gallagher explains the mission of the councils as "improving local institutional responsiveness to youth transition problems." Ibid., p. 1.

Harry Passow, speaking at the Sachs lectures at Columbia Teachers College in April 1976, summarized some recent proposals for change in the secondary school educational system. The reports he cites have also been cited in this footnote. He states:

An effective education-work policy must be developed. The National Panel [National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education] recommended that youth be provided with real jobs--with real work--through a program which would emphasize job-knowledge, on-the-job training, occupational citizenship, and job placement. The Coleman panel [The Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee] proposed testing several pilot programs, including alternating school and work to provide a mixture of part-time work and part-time schooling in a variety of time cycles; . . . To develop and implement an

effective policy, the National Manpower Institute advocated establishing a broad-based Community Education-Work Council. Vocation, one of the main objectives in the Cardinal Principles, looms large in all of the reports. Henry Passow, Secondary Education Reform: Retrospect and Prospect (New York: Teachers College, Columbia, 1976), pp. 40-41.

³The fact that schools with their emphasis on the development of cognitive skills have increasingly assumed transitional responsibility for youth or that the family and other institutions have failed to assume these responsibilities has been noted in several reports on education.

Kenneth Hoyt, in his book Career Education, What It Is and How to Do It suggests that the recent development of an emphasis for career education reform in the school has resulted from the fact that in the twentieth century, the old system of career education in the home has become inadequate. Kenneth Hoyt, et al., Career Education, What It Is and How to Do It (Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1974), p. 82. Among other reasons for this inadequacy he notes that removal of children from parents' work, a breakdown of family role models, increased specialization, urbanization and suburbanization have contributed to the breakdown in the former mechanisms for educating children about work. Ibid., p. 48.

The Panel on Youth suggests that the burden has been on the schools to incorporate more responsibilities into the educational institution. The Panel notes that schools, however, are not well organized to incorporate other activities which foster non-academic skills since they are set aside from society. Coleman et al., Youth: Transition to Adulthood, p. 142.

Passow notes, concerning the report of the Panel on Youth, that:

The Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee (the Coleman panel) focused on the period of transition from child to adult (the age period 14-24) and the institutions in which the transition takes place--the high school and college, both of which have replaced work settings in which youth was spent in earlier generations. The Coleman panel argued that schooling does not provide a "complete environment giving all the necessary

opportunities for becoming adult. The school provides a particular kind of environment--individualistic, oriented toward cognitive achievement, imposing dependency on and withholding authority and responsibility from those in the role of students. Passow, pp. 31-32, quoting The Panel on Youth, p. xiii. The Martin Report notes that, During the colonial years and the 19th century the assumption was that schools were but one of society's educative institutions, with the family, the church and local agencies that offered involvement in community affairs sharing roles as coordinate instructors and shapers of the young. During this century the schools have been given--and have assumed--an ever-increasing share of the responsibility for education, and thus the redress of society's ills. The Education of Adolescents, Final Report and Recommendations of the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education, by John Henry Martin, Chairman (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), p. 7.

Thus, today, more adolescents are spending more time in school than at any other time in history. Although Americans are justifiably proud of the democratization of education opportunities which the public education system has provided during this century, the school-enrollment process has also resulted in a relatively new phenomenon--the isolation of youth from adults and adult experiences. Being in high school now means not being involved in a variety of experiences, activities, and institutions to which large numbers of previous generations of adolescents were exposed. Formal schooling has come to dominate the "adolescent experience" in the United States. Ibid., p. 47.

The schools, of course, did not assume such an overwhelming responsibility for adolescents all at once or simply on their own initiative. Such factors as the fragmentation of the nuclear family, the separation of residential and business areas, occupational mobility, child labor laws, the decline of the apprentice system, and the working mother have often joined with American faith in formal education to isolate youth from the rest of society by concentrating them for longer periods of time

in schools. Ibid., p. 50.

Willard Wirtz suggests that, Looking back over the American Story, one sees a shifting from time to time about the whole idea of young people working, and consequently about the question of where the responsibility lies for providing whatever institutional help is to be given them--by the family, the schools, or the public employment agencies--in finding jobs when the time for that comes. . . . Almost ironically, however, the changing pattern of this history has contributed to what is today almost a vacuum of institutional responsibility. The family's role in this process . . . has slowly but constantly eroded for a variety of reasons. Today the role of the family seems almost negligible, although this is in some ways and to an extent an illusion. With the development of compulsory education and then the introduction of child labor laws--and a gradual extension of the idea of a public interest in children's staying longer in school and not going to work too early--the concept of public responsibility for job placement also developed. This was never, at least until recently, at all clearly identified with the schools, although there have always been traces in the school-student relationship of a sense of obligation. Wirtz, pp. 41-42.

The Report of Task Force '74 notes that, High schools have become virtually the only institutional setting in which adolescents are socialized to an adult world. They have gained this position by default in a society which does not need and does not want adolescents in the job market. . . . Young persons now spend most of their time in schools in almost total isolation from adults, except for school personnel. The only social role available to them is that of student. The Adolescent, Other Citizens and Their High Schools, a Report of The Task Force '74, by John W. Porter, Chairman (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975), pp. 52-53.

⁴Several of the recent reports on secondary school education have addressed the issue of the lack of attention in high school education to the development of non-academic skills in youth. Several of these reports are cited below:

The National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education suggests that,

The concentration of increasing numbers of youth in the secondary school and the concomitant decline in adolescent exposure to other institutions coincided with a rising American faith in high school education as the cure for society's ills. In response to these trends, the high school gradually became an educational conglomerate, absorbing such tasks as vocational preparation, sex education, driver training, drug counseling, etc., into its academic framework. Although an effective adolescent educational system should offer such varied types of learning, the assumption that the institution of the high school can be expanded to incorporate all educational functions has to be seriously questioned. A truly comprehensive high school has rarely, if ever, been achieved. In addition, the school, when it has tried to teach nonintellective things, does so in the only way it knows how, the way designed to teach intellective capabilities: through a teacher, transmitting cognitive skills and knowledge, in a classroom, to students.

Martin, et al., pp. 51-52, quoting James S. Coleman, "How Do the Young Become Adults?" Phi Delta Kappa LIV (December 1972): 226.

Passow notes that,

Most proposals for evaluation and related programs of accountability are limited to the cognitive and skills areas. Human values, attitudes, social concepts and self-concepts are but a few of the noncognitive areas schools generally include in their goal statements but seldom attend to insofar as evaluation is concerned. The variety of learnings which would presumably result from out-of-school community-based experiences can hardly be evaluated by the traditional instruments and procedures to which schools have been accustomed. Passow, p. 50.

Willard Wirtz comments that, The education and employment establishments are typical bureaucracies, essentially inertial. Between them is a long history of separatism, to the extent that one is considered "public," the other "private." They meet at a comparatively narrow frontier. Their primary orientations rarely connect with the needs that young people coming of age feel the most acutely: gaining insight into one's changing self; observing, experiencing, and evaluating adult roles; obtaining not only the specific skills prerequisite to employment but also those broader social, political, judgmental, and communication skills required for choosing, changing, or advancing within an adult environment. Wirtz, p. 64.

See also footnote 3--the quotation from Passow.

Psychological educators have emphasized the need for affective education in the high schools to supplement the student's cognitive development. Concerning the interest in applying human growth skills to education, Arthur Alschuler suggests that

it is equally obvious that normal schooling systematically neglects the psychological needs of individual students, ultimately to the detriment of a more healthy society . . . schooling can and should consciously promote the psychological growth of students. Arthur Alschuler, Developing Achievement Motivation in Adolescents (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1973), p. vii.

Certain reports and authors have elaborated further on the noncognitive areas which have not been developed through traditional high school education.

Kenneth Hoyt suggests that an emphasis on career education would focus on an exploration of one's self-concept in terms of future roles, attitudes, work values, and human relationship skills. Hoyt et al., p. 84.

The National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education suggests that, Out-of-school learning experiences seem to offer a great potential for individual cognitive and affective development, although empirical data in this area are limited . . . Such

benefits are in no way limited to nonacademically oriented youth. Self-reliance, personal responsibility, confidence in one's own judgement, and effective action skills have to be practiced to be achieved; they cannot be learned adequately from print or from the passive, waiting-to-be-taught nature of the student's role . . . Opportunities to participate actively in, rather than merely observe, activities enable youth to utilize and appraise their developing competencies and encourage them to evaluate themselves, their performance, their skills, and even their sense of the world. By increasing their knowledge of personal strengths and weaknesses, such experiences and evaluations expand adolescents' understanding of themselves. Martin et al., p. 48.

⁵Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children, Mental Health of Children: Services Research and Manpower (New York: Harper & Row, 1973), p. 207.

⁶The Reform of Secondary Education, A Report of the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, by E. Frank Brown, Chairman (New York: McGraw Hill, 1973), pp. 49-61, presentation of career education curriculum, pp. 25-36, presentation of educational goals.

⁷Coleman et al., Youth Transition and Adulthood, p. 138.

⁸Wirtz, p. 58.

⁹National Child Labor Committee, p. 3.

¹⁰Marland, p. 33.

¹¹U.S. Office of Education, Report on Commissioner's National Conference on Career Education, Houston, Texas, November 7-10, 1976, Career Education: A Collaborate Effort (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1977), p. 4.

¹²Hoyt et al., p. 17.

¹³Ginzberg, however, does not view these same assets as a total basis for reform. Eli Ginzberg, The Manpower Connection, Education and Work (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1975), pp. 17-18.

¹⁴James O'Toole, Work, Learning and The American Future (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1977), p. 132.

¹⁵Evan R. Keislar, "Personal Outcomes as Goals of Career Education," in New Directions for Community Colleges, Easing the Transition from Schooling to Work (Winter 1976), eds. Harry F. Silberman and Mark B. Ginsburg (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1976), pp. 17-18.

¹⁶Career Education Incentive Act, PL 95-207, U.S. Code, Vol. 26, Sec. 2602 (1977).

¹⁷Education and Work 4 (June 1978): 10.

¹⁸Bernard Anderson, "Labor Market Experiences of Youth" (Hyde Park, New York: April 9-10, 1976), p. 2 (mimeographed).

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Education and Work 4 (13 June 1978): 8
Quoting an excerpt from Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1977).

²¹Ibid., p. 8.

²²Edward Kalachek, Youth Labor Market (Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1969), pp. 46-48.

²³Eli Ginzberg, Manpower Strategy for the Metropolis (New York: Columbia Press, 1968), p. 139.

²⁴Education and Work 4 (13 June 1978): 8.

²⁵Anderson, p. 9.

²⁶Kalachek, p. 67.

²⁷Eli Ginzberg, Manpower Strategy for the Metropolis, p. 150.

²⁸"Carter Plan on Youth Jobs Viewed as Testing of Ideas and Strategies," New York Times, 20 March 1977, p. 2.

²⁹U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, Youth Initiatives (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 1.

³⁰Youth Employment and Demonstration Act, PL 95-93, Statutes at Large 91 (1977).

CHAPTER III

AN HISTORICAL AND PROGRAMMATIC PERSPECTIVE ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING

Child Labor Legislation

Several historical factors are relevant to this project's emphasis on the present need to aid the transition of youth to adulthood. A broad historical overview highlights two basic policy issues which pertain to this project's current interest: (1) the appropriate environment for training and preparing all youth for productive adult life and for participation in the community (work versus education); and (2) an age definition of youth as a category of individual with special needs which are separate from those of adults. Concerning these issues, two specific trends have influenced this country's struggle to define a youth policy. Of foremost importance have been state and federal legislative reforms in restricting youth from the labor market. Contributing toward this end has been the gradual implementation of compulsory, publicly supported schooling and a rise

in the legal age for leaving school.¹ In general, these trends have culminated in the present effort in delineating institutional responsibility for integration of youth into the world of adult work.²

More specifically, concerning the first policy issues debate, by the late eighteen and early nineteen hundreds, many states had moved to restrict the abuses of child labor and to establish compulsory education laws.³ Since the child labor laws were constitutionally difficult to pass, reformers lobbied for the passage of compulsory education laws as an indirect method for controlling child labor. In his book on the development of child labor restrictions in New York State, Felt notes that

an 1853 Action of the New York State Senate illustrates the ambiguity, hypocrisy and confused thinking behind many of the early education laws. Defeating a bill to prohibit children under ten from working in factories, the legislators immediately passed one regulating truancy because they believed it "the imperative duty of the Senate to enforce, by legal enactment, the proper care, training, and education of its children."⁴

New York State's legislative history in regulating public education and child labor provides an excellent illustration of this process. Although New York State passed a more extensive compulsory

education law in 1874, requiring certification of attendance, a law restricting child labor was not passed until 1886.⁵ In point of fact, the lack of mechanisms for enforcement suggest that these early laws represent a token effort at ameliorating an identified problem area. Subsequent laws, such as the New York State Hill-Finch Act of 1903 furthered these efforts by providing for a tightening up of regulations in the certification of children for leaving school and for entering employment legally.⁶

Nationally, culmination of the trend to restrict child labor was reflected in the passage by Congress of federal child labor laws in 1916 and 1919, both subsequently declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court.⁷ After these apparent setbacks, the movement toward restricting child labor focused in 1924 on regulating and prohibiting labor for those under the age of eighteen through a constitutional amendment.⁸ The effects of a severe economic depression in 1929 delayed action on regulating child labor until 1938 with the passage of the Fair Labor Standards Act. This piece of legislation was effective in finally regulating the labor of

those under the age of sixteen.⁹

The movement to restrict child labor resulted in part from humanitarian interests in protecting youth from the abuses of the labor market. At the same time, impetus for restriction was motivated by a need to protect adult workers from competition for jobs with youth. As far back as the early 1700s, workingmen's associations supported regulations for children working in factories as well as the concept of a universal free education for the development of "enlightened" workers and as a means toward upward mobility.¹⁰

Beyond this, Beatrice Vulcan noted that by 1920,

More efficient patterns of production, labor-saving machinery, improved industrial techniques, and greatly increased output per man-hour diminished industry's dependence on inefficient, unskilled labor. Scientific management and concern about high overhead costs stemming from frequent job turnover made the mobile younger worker less attractive to employers. The employment market for children was also limited in response to pressures by returning veterans for jobs. Americanization drives placed increased stress on schooling to eradicate alien ways and produce "one-hundred-per-cent-Americans." The wider range of skills required by newly-developing occupations induced even larger numbers of young people to aim for a high school diploma and postpone their entry into the labor market.¹¹

Remaining in school took on the value of an economic advantage and investment. The 1974

Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee viewed the function of school from 1920 on as a "certifying agency," replacing older and more informal techniques of introducing people into the labor market.¹² Legislation which enforced more schooling and restricted youth labor has resulted in prolonged isolation of youth in schools and a loss of youth's economic value. Because of the gradual removal of adolescents from the working community, school and college are now identified as the major environments for youth development. Bringing the policy discussion on the appropriate environment of youth into the 1970s, the President's Panel on Youth suggests that the present constitution of schooling offers an incomplete context for youth to accomplish the many facets of adult maturity.¹³

Restriction of child labor and the provision of compulsory education had the additional effect of delineating youth as an age category separate from adulthood. Before legislation in the 1700s, adulthood was established by one's ability to work, in part a function of family income. At that time, a boy of sixteen paid taxes and served in the militia.¹⁴ By 1874, the passage of the New York

State Compulsory Education Law provided for those eight to fourteen a free education of at least fourteen weeks per year. The state law had the effect of recognizing on paper the needs of children, inclusive of all fourteen-year-olds, as different from those of adults. Twelve years later, the New York State Factory Law regulated working hours for women and children under the age of eighteen.¹⁵ In effect, this law extended the limits of a definition of dependency. By 1920, in the census of that year, sixteen- and seventeen-year-old workers were counted separately from children and adult workers.¹⁶ Replacing the market place as a regulator of the resources for children, these laws had the effect, at least officially, of separating young people from adults as a category of worker and of providing a universal free setting which was assumed to be more appropriate to their growth and development into adulthood. Although regulations of child labor in part stemmed from a growing interest in protecting adult employment, the net effect of this movement was to make a distinction in resources available to individuals based on their age levels.

Youth Employment Legislation

Ironically, beginning in the 1930s, emphasis of youth policy in terms of work had changed from a need for restriction of industrial abuses of children to one of integration into the market place.

Because of the program design of the project described in this paper, discussion of past legislation will focus on those efforts which set a nonresidential precedent for future programming. Specifically, in 1935, New Deal legislation initiated the National Youth Administration which was a forerunner for federal intervention into youth employment programming for in-school high school age youth. For the in-school population, age sixteen and above, this program provided part-time work in local projects with the goal of enabling high school students financially to complete their education.¹⁷ Concerning a change in the goal of youth employment programming, the 1938 Report of the President's Advisory Committee on Education suggested that the essential function of youth work programs was to help bridge the gap between school and employment. To this end, the Committee suggested the incorporation of general work

training programs into the high school curriculum.¹⁸ In addition, Lewis Lorin, writing in 1941 on youth policy, suggested a move to coordinate the National Youth Administration programs for in-school youth with the Office of Education in order to integrate vocational and educational planning for youth.¹⁹

A major source of current youth employment and training programs emanates from the 1960s interest in manpower development as a solution to the problem of poverty. Legislative efforts in the early 1960s document this country's concern with the problems of juvenile delinquency and continued high levels of youth unemployment as an outgrowth of poverty. Based on theories of social intervention and expanding social opportunities, the 1961 Youth Offenses Control Act provided funds for demonstration projects addressed to testing remedies for delinquency.²⁰

Two related legislative efforts emphasizing, first, youth employment, and second, paraprofessional job creation and training reflect similar underlying goals of work training as a service for income redistribution and integration into the mainstream. During the 1960s two major pieces of legislation,

the 1962 Manpower Development and Training Act and the 1964 Economic Opportunities Act, provided federal funding for youth employment and paraprofessional training programs. Specifically, the 1963 amendments to MDTA emphasized employment training for disadvantaged youth over the age of seventeen.²¹ A year later, additional provisions for youth employment programs were established through the Economic Opportunities Act (EOA) which created the Neighborhood Youth Corps, a program aimed at maximizing opportunity for disadvantaged youth. This program, administered through the Department of Labor, provided part-time and summer employment in the public sector for youth attending school. In addition, the EOA, with its provision for the participation of indigenous personnel in community programming and service, initiated funds for the development of paraprofessional positions. Furthering this goal, the 1966 Career Opportunities Act funded programs which provided paraprofessional training, job development and job restructure.²²

Youth Employment and Paraprofessional Training Programs

In this section, precedent programs have been selected for discussion based on their

conceptual relationship to the project design and evaluation described in this paper. For the most part, the results of program evaluations and problems in program design have indicated a direction for future programming. The results of these studies have influenced the formulation of goals and the design of this project. In many instances, because the goals of the programs discussed below and the means of achieving these goals are congruent with those of the present project, evaluation results and impressions have been quoted here as a basis of orientation for the high school human service training program.

Mobilization for Youth (MFY), established in 1962 in New York City, was partially funded by the 1961 Youth Offenses and Control Act, the Ford Foundation and New York City. MFY became

the first nonresident training program conducted in an urban ghetto which combined on-the-job training, in-school and out-of-school work training, trade training, apprenticeship training, remedial education, vocational counseling and evaluation, job development and job placement.²³

As a model program in 1963, MFY integrated concepts underlying both youth employment and paraprofessional training into one program by expanding employment training opportunities for youth (both in-school

and out-of-school) in paraprofessional positions in the health, education and community service occupations areas.²⁴ The main thrust of MFY's employment and training program was aimed at high school dropouts and graduates for treatment and prevention of delinquency. Harold Weissman, in an evaluation of MFY's program, suggests an earlier point of intervention. He states that

the poorest results were achieved with the sixteen- and seventeen-year-old trainees. They were, as a group, immature, and not particularly concerned with planning for the future, and prone to quit jobs for frivolous reasons . . . Some form of special program akin to the work-orientation program would seem appropriate for the younger trainees. Another approach to the problem of the younger trainee would be to develop a new form of vocational high school. Clearly there is a need for change in vocational and general secondary-school education in the slum. Instead of designing youth-employment programs for sixteen- and seventeen-year-olds, it might be wiser to redesign the vocational high school. These schools are not adequately educating youth for employment and are producing dropouts. Vocational education in high schools is now geared to the crafts and trades, and these industries are not expanding. One thing that is needed is an increase in training in the vocational high school for the one area that is expanding--the service area.²⁵

The Community Apprentice Program (CAP), an experimental program conducted by the Howard University Institute for Youth Studies in 1964, marked another effort to provide a solution for

juvenile delinquency by training youth in the human services. This program focused on changing certain characteristics of low income youth delineated as

a poor self-image, sense of powerlessness, fatalistic attitude toward life, a lack of future orientation, potential for antisocial behavior and impulsive acting out, and unrealistically high aspirations concurrent with depressed expectations.²⁶

Secondly, the program aimed at

developing pathways for a different kind of existence--alternative ways of behaving and functioning in society which are currently almost non-existent.²⁷

The training program differed from previous work training and retraining in its concentration on the public sector as an area for job development and training. Through job restructuring, the program aimed at defining new career job functions in the human service area. Thirdly, in the program, mechanisms for youth's behavioral change were based on the concept of the helper therapy principle:

. . . the fact that [because] the incidence of mental illness and other forms of personal and social maladjustment are significantly higher among socially and culturally deprived--it would seem apparent that social action projects designed to select, orient, supervise and utilize young people in new career lines would have great relevance to both mental health and employment problems.²⁸

Similar to the project described in this paper,

the goal of behavioral and attitude change in the CAP project was effected through developing youth's capabilities in potential human service careers. Related goals included the learning of basic human service concepts as well as the development of specific human service skills.

In brief, the program consisted of a twelve-week intensive training period for ten high risk, school dropout youths ranging in age from sixteen to twenty. The program was divided into three parts: a core group, on-the-job training, and specialized training in either day care, recreation or social research.

The following conclusions drawn from a preliminary evaluation of the CAP project have direct bearing on the program described in this paper.

Changes in Youth

Although the CAP project dealt with a population which differs from this project's group (among other differences, this project's study group was enrolled in the last semester of high school and were all female), the CAP documents an impression of change in social attitudes which are relevant to this program's interest in adolescent

development. Change was noted in areas of self-concept, attitude towards authority, aspiration for the future, ability to tolerate ambiguous situations and to delay gratification. Commenting on the process of change, Jacob Fishman notes that

it is suggested that by placing the youth in a new and realistic psychosocial context, one which provides the opportunity for supports, and rewards significant behavioral change vis-a-vis other persons and themselves from the start, lasting "intra-psychic" changes can be brought about. The "therapeutic process" essentially focuses around ego issues involving identity, the relationship of the individual and group to meaningful work, a stake in the social system, and that other hallmark of adolescence--"action."²⁹

Program Design

The high school human service training project in form and basic program structure is partially modelled after the CAP design of a core group, running simultaneously with on-the-job training and specialty training. In the high school program, however, time exposure to the program elements was essentially different because of adaptation of the program to school scheduling.

Although one of the main stated goals in the CAP program concerned teaching the student basic and specific human service skills, the program evaluation tended to concentrate on the broader

issue of program structure rather than on questions concerning the development of specific knowledge areas, a definition of skill mastery in terms of performance criteria and the definition of the level of knowledge required for specific jobs. Pointing toward future study, the final report states that

the development of an optimum training model is an area the surface of which has hardly been scratched . . . The problem of individual differences in assimilating knowledge and reaching appropriate levels of performance has also not been explored.³⁰

In addition, the program summary points toward the direction of future programming in a suggested application of the program to an in-school population. The report states that

It [the training experience] also underlies the need to explore with community educational institutions ways of incorporating such training programs in the schools as well as ways of providing youth the realizable opportunity to move on to advanced training beyond high school.³¹

In 1965, Howard University instituted the New Careers Training Project which incorporated the basic goals and suggestions of the 1963 Community Apprentice Program. The Project consisted of eleven human service skills training programs primarily for out-of-school disadvantaged youth. Using the same program design, the Project

introduced a generic curriculum into the core group which functioned as the major vehicle for behavioral change and mutual support.

Generic Skills

Among other objectives, the New Careers program attempted to define curriculum content for generic human service training. Concerning the development of the generic content areas, Eunice Shatz notes that

for all jobs in a particular human service, regardless of how varied they may be, a basic area of knowledge, information, and content generic to that occupational field can be identified and taught. For example the skills of interviewing and information gathering from clients are necessary and common to all human services. In contrast, a basic knowledge of the functions of the human body and of good health practice is necessary in all health occupations.³²

Although more extensive than the curriculum described herein, the choice of generic concepts in the New Careers Generic Curriculum is strikingly similar to those concepts highlighted in this project's seminar. For instance, the New Careers curriculum unit on the Individual and the World of Work coordinates with the following concepts covered in the first unit of this project's curriculum: team relationships, workers' roles, agency function, team communication, relationship

of agency function to workers' roles, the student role and confidentiality. In addition, the New Careers curriculum unit two, the Individual and His Relationship to People, corresponds to the high school project's curriculum, units two and three, in the teaching of concepts concerning the progressive and sequential aspects of human development, the developmental task of dependence-independence, worker's accepting, non-judgmental and objective attitude as well as skills in communication, group process and leadership. Concerning the core curriculum and its function in the group, the final report indicated a need for developing

a series of guidelines that define the core curriculum and the function of the group so that problem-solving becomes not the major focus, but one of several.³³

Specific Skill

Although the New Careers specialty instruction in specific areas of human service was aimed at a particular area of human service rather than at a broad base (which was covered in the core group), the instructional design for training in the specific skill areas was similar to that of the project described in this paper.

In the New Careers project,

the instructional approaches employed in specialty sessions were based on the assumption that the trainees were not yet ready for conceptual material and that unless material was directly relevant to their work, they would question its value.³⁴

These assumptions lead to the presentation of instructional material based on movement from a specific, actual situation to a more abstract discussion.

Several aspects of the total Howard University project lead toward a need for further definition in the area of specific skill training. Firstly, skills curriculum were developed based on job descriptions and experience. Included in the curriculum content were the stress on both interpersonal skills required in all agencies and utilitarian skills relating to the specific service. Regarding these two skills, the final report states that

the relative importance of these two sets of skills remains to be clarified by experimentation, for some balance between them needs to be achieved if the trainee is to be adequately prepared for his role.³⁵

Secondly, although the project highlighted a pioneering effort, the planners were unsuccessful in defining basic skills and level of skill required

for certain tasks. Key variables such as cognitive level, judgment and autonomy in task were undefined and lead to problems in evaluation of trainee's performance based on specific skill. Evaluations of performance by on-the-job-supervisors were based on personal characteristics, performance of tasks, and "acquisition of skill."³⁶ Regarding the delineation of performance criteria, the report states that

personal characteristics included those characteristics which made an individual an acceptable employee. Generally they referred to the trainee's punctuality and regularity at work, his demonstration of initiative and responsibility, his personal appearance and grooming, his speech and language and his ability to relate to his supervisor and accept criticism where necessary. The performance evaluation tended to focus on task areas rather than specific skills that might have been required. In each instance, these were tasks considered to be important for the specific program. For example, in the teacher aide program, the trainee's rapport with and skill in handling children was considered important.³⁷

Because of the uncertainty about specific skills, the lack of a clear standard of expectation, and "the lack of objective techniques for evaluating acquisition of these skills,"³⁸ performance evaluations of on-the-job behavior relied heavily on personal characteristics.³⁹ The report suggests that these evaluations measured, then, a supervisor's

"acceptance of trainee's performance and behavior"⁴⁰ rather than an objective assessment of the trainee's level of skill mastery. Concerning the presence of supervisor's bias, the report suggests further that supervisor's bias in evaluating trainees may have related to the: (1) lack of clarity in standardizing performance; (2) possibility that supervisors may have perceived evaluations as reflective of their abilities; and (3) supervisor's perceptions of unsatisfactory ratings as jeopardizing trainees' future job prospects. Concerning the objectivity issue, the report states that

the vast majority of the trainees in each program, between 90 and 95 percent, were rated in the good to excellent category on most items. Most of the unsatisfactory ratings were in the area of attendance, lateness and appropriateness of behavior, rather than in the area of skill performance.⁴¹

High School Program

The Cardoza High School Program was the only project out of the eleven in the total New Careers Project specifically geared to an in-school youth population. The program represented a pioneering attempt to train thirty educationally and socially disadvantaged students as teachers and health aides by introducing and integrating the

New Careers approach into public education.

The program aimed at a change in students' general attitudes for entering the world of work and at the development of basic skill and career interests in the human services. Of particular interest to the high school project described in this paper was a mid-year preliminary report of the program's impact on the students which states that

in the psycho-social area, mid-year evaluations by supervising teachers indicate that a majority of the students have shown substantial growth in job performance in terms of relationships with pupils or patients, in ability to accept criticism, and in preparation of materials and completion of assigned duties. Some improvement has taken place in regard to work habits such as attendance, punctuality, initiative, and the ability to ask questions related to the work situation. The area of least growth is that of attendance and punctuality . . . While the aspirations of the student group were high at the outset, they tended to be unrealistic. Many indicated their desire to be high-level professionals in law, health or engineering. At present, the students are more realistic about their occupational goals.⁴²

In addition to furthering an interest in the systems relationships between the high school and the community and in the institutionalization of the program in the school system, as noted in this report, the initial results suggested the following for future study on (1) the expectation for level

of students' performances, and on the (2) supports which should be built into the program "to help the student pass through the various transitional phases involved in movement on the educational-occupational ladder."⁴³

During the late 1960s, the Career Options Research and Development Project (CORD) of Chicago concentrated its efforts in the area of paraprofessional training in the human services. Specifically, using the method of detailed task analysis, the project aimed at organizing tasks and skills into career sequences and hierarchies, and at delineating progressions of basic skill for each level. Secondly, the project aimed at the articulation of these levels with educational and service training on a community college level.⁴⁴ The main importance of this project's work to the present curriculum formulation is its abstract definition of entry level human service skill and performance appropriate for high school graduates. Using a modification of scales developed at the Wisconsin Occupational Analysis Field Center (WOAFC),⁴⁵ Robert Soong, in a report of the project, defines the entry level position (trainee--high school or less) as follows:

Functions Relating to People:

- 12 Helping: Attending to the work assignment instruction, or orders of supervisor. Helping applies to "non-learning" helpers. No immediate response required.
- 11 Serving: Attending to the needs or requests of people. Also, to the expressed or implicit wishes of people. Immediate response.
- 10 Persuading: Influencing others in favor of an object, service or point of view.
- 9 Diverting: Amusing others.

Functions Relating to Data:*

- 10 Composing: judging the readily observable functional, structural, or compositional characteristics (whether similar to or divergent from obvious standards) of Data, People or Things.
- 9 Copying: Transcribing, entering or posting data.

Functions Relating to Things:*

- 5 Handling: Using body, members, hand tools to work, move and carry object or materials.⁴⁶

The core curriculum developed for the high school level trainee was aimed at preparing students

*In descending order, lower numbers connote higher level functioning.

for college level education or for entry level employment. Soong suggests that

in addition to career skills and knowledge, graduates should have achieved some basic literacy skills and sense of identity, as well as an appreciation for human dignity and worth . . . While no entry requirements are set for the core course, a minimum age of fifteen years is recommended to assure a certain degree of maturity.⁴⁷

The curriculum content developed for this level includes concepts about community institutions (organization purpose based on definition of a problem area), the internal organizational structure, group dynamics, and self-awareness, as well as communication and interviewing skills. Although teaching method and instructional design have not been defined in this study, Soong points toward the orientation of the design in stating that

in the design of both high school and AA degree courses, we have indicated teaching methods and devices which do not require the prerequisite of literacy . . . The schools and colleges using the CORD curriculum have erred by trying to put a new wine in old bottles, that is, by trying to teach important skills, knowledge and self-development, through old media: lecture methods, reading assigned materials and writing reports. It doesn't work. Teachers who have taken the time and effort to develop new teaching devices have been rewarded by greater learning, maturity, and self-esteem on the part of their students.⁴⁸

Vocational and Career Development Programs

Lastly, another source of programming effort grew out of a need for recruitment of students into the human service field in the early 1960s due to a shortage of human service personnel. Programs which offered background information plus on-the-job experience and training were aimed at providing the student (a majority of college-aged students with a minority of high school-aged students) with a beginning orientation to the field. At the same time, additional emphasis was placed in some programs on the quality of service provision to the clients and on the students' personal growth.

The New York Chapter of the Association for the Help of Retarded Children sponsored the Group Work Aide Project, a high school program developed in 1960 which incorporated these goals. The program aimed at fulfilling the needs of adolescents as well as the needs of the field. Schreiber and Bromfield state concerning these goals,

Responsible participation by the adolescent in the major institutions of society has often been denied him or discouraged at the moment when his interests in the world have been poignantly awakened. However when opportunities have been offered them, these adolescents have shown a no nonsense attitude toward volunteering.⁴⁹

In this program, monthly training sessions were conducted with students covering topics directly related to the developmentally disabled, group leadership, agency function, student role and team relations. In an anecdotal summary of findings, the authors relate that changes in the student population reflected greater awareness of themselves as responsible persons identified with the agency and the staff.

Another early program for high school students was sponsored by the Jewish Foundation for Retarded Children in Washington, D.C. In a report of the program, Cytryn and Vihlein describe the general process of the students' adjustment. They suggest that students initially lacked self-confidence and required detailed instructions. Over an eight month period of training and on-the-job experience, students developed greater competency in relationship skills, more realistic assessments of the children's capabilities, increasing awareness of the dynamics of behavior and more independence in their ability to handle assignments. Although the program's assessment suggested a need for "a more stringent and objective evaluation," according to the criteria of motivation, self-

reliance and ability to handle children, three of the seven students were evaluated as having greatly improved, two moderately improved and two showed no improvement. Five out of the seven students expressed an interest in pursuing careers with the developmentally disabled.⁵⁰

From 1966 through 1972, the HI-SWAT Program, sponsored by the University of Wyoming as a summer residential career development project, introduced a total of 228 students to careers in mental health and mental retardation. This program represented another effort at recruiting youngsters into the helping professions. From the very positive response in applications to the program, the authors conclude that

there is a vast group of high school students who desire career testing opportunities in the helping services. This seems particularly true of college bound seniors and for females.⁵¹

Students were evaluated on changes in attitude, values and vocational interests in a before-after-follow-up study. Reporting on the achieved goal of career development, Pasewark reports that

program participation was significantly associated with an increased expressed commitment to mental health careers. On the post program

testing, participants were more favorably disposed toward mental health careers than on pre-testing and demonstrated greater interest in such careers than did non-participants.⁵²

Although group participants in the study evidenced a greater tendency to have continued their initial interest in the mental health field, the findings of a yearly follow-up study of participants who entered the program between 1966 and 1970 indicated that

a fairly large number who originally had expressed an interest in helping service careers reported themselves as interested or engaged in other vocational pursuits . . . This enthusiasm, it is believed, must be tempered by recognition that a summer's involvement in helping service activities is but a small segment in the life span of even an adolescent. Against it, other diverse and multiple influences operate, including maturity, to alter a youth's vocational interests and plans.

Changes in participants' personality traits during the summer were measured by pre-post test exposure to the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. Participants exhibited a much greater fluctuation in scores than students in the control groups. In addition, the changes which were noted were inconsistent and sporadic. The authors conclude that either the participants as a group were "much more labile in their emotional needs, or that participation in the summer experience

had an effect on the greater alteration in personality traits."⁵⁴

As noted in the above discussion, through a combination of economic factors and social legislation, the secondary school and the university have developed as the main arena for preparing youth for participation in the working community. The 1974 President's Panel on Youth, commenting on the present role of youth in the community, noted that

society no longer depends on young people for anything in particular (unless it be as a soldier) and has been forced to create for them a succession of contrived roles and institutions not tightly woven into the community structure.⁵⁵

The programming described above constitutes in part the community's response to youth's transition needs. The programs noted above, with the exception of the recruitment programs, have either suggested, or as in the case of the Cardoza project, attempted a movement toward coordinating community programming for youth employment with the public secondary school curriculum.

Vocational Education

In addition to youth employment policy issues and programming, related questions concerning

youth's transitional needs have focused on the general relationship between education and work. The development of this relationship has highlighted questions about: (1) the method of educational training most essential for preparation into adult life, and (2) the focus of responsibility for this training. In general, a trend toward publicly financed vocational education has gradually grown to include a focus on career skills training for a larger percentage of the student population as an addition to basic liberal arts academic subjects. At present, career skills training is now becoming an accepted part of the secondary school curriculum.

By the late 1800s, the apprenticeship system as one method of integrating youth into the working community was almost non-existent.

Beatrice Vulcan suggests that

apprenticeships had virtually disappeared in the United States as mobility and mechanization had discouraged employers from investing money and time in the training of young workers from which they would derive no benefit and whose jobs required little or no preliminary preparation. Unions had also opposed the training of competitors, especially when employers perceived the training situation as an opportunity to hire new workers as "learners" and pay them less than prevailing wages. Trade Schools fairly well known in Europe since the latter half of the previous century, had not taken hold in the United States during the long period when industry could count on a flow of both skilled and unskilled labor from abroad.⁵⁶

The fact that the increased state regulations on child labor in the early 1900s changed for some the locus of childhood preparation from the work place to the school contributed to the gap in integrating youth into the world of work. These regulations not only produced a strain on the school system for educating a diverse student body, but also sharply regulated the certification of children for employment. Truancy emerged as a social problem for those students who did not fit into the academic program, and who also did not qualify for a work certificate and for those who were unable to obtain employment.⁵⁷

Sine 1917, with the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, the federal government has recognized the responsibility of the secondary school and federal government for vocational preparation.⁵⁸ This Act was stimulated by the need for training more skilled workers to keep pace with advancing industrial technology. Beyond this fact, Beatrice Vulcan suggests that reduction in immigration as well as the need for more skilled workers in the work effort contributed to the passage of this legislation.⁵⁹ In addition, Hoyt, Evans, Magnum et al., note that vocational education since the

passage of the Smith-Hughes Act has incorporated three basic goals: (1) the meeting of national manpower and economic needs, (2) increasing options for students, and (3) stimulating growth in student comprehension.⁶⁰

This piece of federal legislation in effect provided for a separate system of education to be administered for those students less academically qualified and for those who were terminating their education at high school.⁶¹ Vocational education was conceived as primarily a program of skills training on-site at school for a limited group of occupations. In essence, it provided for two diverse routes as preparation for adulthood: (1) the vocational route for agricultural and blue collar industrial employment, and (2) the liberal arts route for professional and white collar employment.

Other than vocational education, local systems of cooperative education established since 1913 (in 1915 in New York State), provided limited work-study programs for high school youngsters.

Operated in conjunction with the local business community and boards of education, this program offered the only opportunity for work-

study until the 1960s. In 1946, New York State recognized the relationship between education and work in this program by "permitting the consideration of the days spent in related work experience under school supervision as days spent in school."⁶² The 1963 Vocational Education Act and 1968 Amendments legislated for expanded areas of training and, for the first time, federal funds for high school work-study.

Among other objectives, one purpose for increasing funds for work-study programs was to provide a form of incentive and income to the disadvantaged as well as to open up opportunities and advancement to a diverse population. One reason for the promotion of work-study was the assumption that financial insecurity was a prime factor in a student's decision to discontinue his education. Another objective for increasing work-study was to focus on teaching general work skills with the aim of improving students' employability. This goal actually superceded a focus on manpower planning of previous vocational education legislation. Although, by the end of the 1960s, legislation had firmly placed responsibility for some vocational and on-the-job training with the

high schools, vocational skills development was still limited to certain students with limited financial and academic resources. New funding in the 1970s gradually enlarged the focus of vocational education.

In 1974 the federal government supplemented its vocational education programs with funds available for demonstration career education programs which were intended to give all students a better understanding of the work environment. Unlike the specific occupational training typical of past vocational education and appropriate only for some students, career education programs attempt to provide information and experience to all youths for a wide selection of work options so that their choices will be more consistent with personal values, goals and capabilities.⁶³

Current efforts, therefore, are aimed at broadening the concept of vocational education to include a universal population and basic career education as part of the secondary school curriculum.

Current Career Education Models

In his book Career Education in the High Schools, Hoyt outlines three basic types of work programs currently established in the secondary school curriculum.

Work-study

Although these programs exist under a variety of titles, depending on the locale,

the primary purpose is to prevent school dropouts by providing students from low-income families with supplemental income as an incentive to stay in school or as a means of meeting the expenses involved in continuing school.⁶⁴

In work-study programming, work experience is not necessarily coordinated with any educational objectives. Neither the school nor the employer retains any responsibility for training or for skill development.

Cooperative Education

Cooperative Education and career education are closely related at the high school level. This system provides for a correlation between the work place and a student's educational instruction. One advantage of this system, which has direct bearing on the project described in this paper, is that curriculum material has direct relevance to the student's work experience. Hoyt suggests that in this system

classroom instruction, on the job training and youth organization activities are all articulated in the development of clearly identified skills and competencies.⁶⁵

Of particular importance to the study is the student's broadened exposure to instructional staff outside the school system. In this sense education

is truly extended into the community and the work place.⁶⁶

The articulation of instruction between the school and the work place in cooperative education requires definition of the instructional structure concerning the levels of information which belong within the schooling experience and those which remain on the job. Pertaining to the relationship of these systems, Hoyt suggests that material which includes specific skill training, technical information and attitudes particular to the training site would more appropriately be taught on the job. Information of a more global nature in a particular occupational field could be taught more efficiently at the school.⁶⁷ In order to implement an instructional program for cooperative education, Hoyt directs instructors to attend to the following guidelines:

- (1) Definition of a set of learning tasks for each student
- (2) Definition of appropriate education objectives
- (3) Determination of the sequence of instruction
- (4) Employment of suitable methods, media, and materials.⁶⁸

Specifically for the health field (including human service, Hoyt notes that

the need exists for additional programs which will assist students with career exploration activities in which students may begin the first part of a health occupational program in the secondary school and continue to completion of the program at post-secondary institutions. For many careers in the health occupations field, students will be required to invest large amounts of time and energy in preparatory training.⁶⁹

Hoyt perceived the main purpose of cooperative health education on the high school level as one of obtaining competency on an entry-aide level.

Experience-Based Career Education (EBCE)

The National Institute of Education is currently in the process of developing EBCE models for use in all school systems. Essentially, the common objectives of all four model EBCE programs is to

integrate a student's knowledge of a variety of careers with acquisition of cognitive, interpersonal and affective skills through a series of planned experiences with identified learning outcomes.⁷⁰

In general, based on the assumption that programs in each model are planned on an individualized basis with the student implementing his self-directed program of study, the content for learning may be developed through the student's planned activities in the community. According to Owens, the EBCE program puts into practice Dewey's

educational theory by emphasizing the student's learning through his involvement and inquiry into real situations.⁷¹

The similarity between the EBCE and the high school program described in this paper emerges in the structure of the learning environment and in the students' school experiences within the community. In both the EBCE and the high school program, the community's potential for learning is assessed and translated into site-specific learning objectives. For instance, the North West Regional Education Laboratory in which students spend fifty percent of their program time on-site in the community

uses a detailed task analysis procedure to identify the full learning potential of each employer or community site and translates this potential into learning objectives. The objectives then become the basis for individualized projects which students complete in the community.⁷²

In the Research for Better Schools Model in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, students' programs are concentrated more intensively in the school with only twenty percent of the school week spent in the community. The structure of their community piece, however, appears somewhat similar to that of the high school training course. In Philadelphia,

one of the career exploration components involves a

series of minicourses designed around group and individual activities that are planned and conducted at community sites. Each minicourse, planned around a cluster of career areas, is offered either as an elective or as a substitute for required social studies courses.⁷³

New York State and City Career Education
Programming: 1977-1978

On the state level, the New York State Advisory Council on Vocational Education retains the responsibility of administering a state plan and of evaluating vocational and career education programs. The Council is appointed by the New York State Board of Regents for the purpose of studying and proposing changes in vocational education. Since 1972, the Council has used federal money to fund twenty-two projects to develop career education products, has worked out a state plan for developing career education in the state and has funded for evaluation eight model programs in different parts of the state. Other changes which have occurred through recommendations of the Council concern the administrative separation of career education from occupational education. Career education programs are currently administered under the auspices of the Office of General Education.

In 1976, the Council appointed Dr. Vivienne Anderson, the Assistant Commissioner for General Education, as the Commissioner of Career Education. In addition, since 1972, funding for career education has changed from the former system of channeling funds through the New York State Bureau of Cooperative Education Services to the current pattern of distributing funds directly to the local school districts for on-going projects and the development of model plans. Above all, the Council is committed to furthering the development of career education curricula throughout the state. Speaking at a National Conference for Career Education in 1976, Mr. Lewis Harriman, a member of the Council outlined the policy of the Council to assign a high priority to career education.⁷⁴

Locally, in 1975, New York City, through the Board of Education's Center for Career and Occupational Education, Mr. George Quarles, administrator, began introducing a plan for career education into the New York City system. The Systemwide Career Education Cluster-Based Articulated Model Program (SECAMP) is based on establishing three model sites in New York City for the infusion of career education curriculum concepts into existing

programs. Of the fifteen clusters recognized in this model, the public service career cluster pertains to the subject matter covered in the high school human service project described in this paper. In the tenth through the twelfth grades, labeled in the SECAMP model the preparation stage, each academic and comprehensive high school selects and emphasizes five clusters for its program. The goal of this phase is "the development of expertise in delivering career preparation experiences to students and providing intensive community-based resource experience."⁷⁵

The federal Youth Employment and Training Act guidelines basically provided funds for students involved in public sector employment sites. The individual work programs are not necessarily of the cooperative education emphasis. In other words, work experience is not primarily attached to an educational component. In May 1978, New York City received seventeen million dollars for YEPT programs to be used between January 1978 and September 1978. Of this sum, twenty-two percent was allotted to the New York City Board of Education. The Board selected sixteen target schools with about 1,000 students around which a basic

program was built. Seven hundred students in non-target high schools with alternate programs already in process were additionally funded.⁷⁶

Precedent Curriculum Development and Programming in Career Education

The movement toward career education has stimulated the development of curriculum material in occupational areas. Of particular interest to the human service training program of this project has been materials developed both through the traditional vocational education programs, mainly in the home-economic departments, and the development of material for career education in the public service cluster (one of the fifteen cluster areas recognized by the U.S. Office of Education).

In 1972, the California State Department of Education initiated the development of a model curriculum for the public service career cluster from grade seven through adult. According to this model, public service occupations were defined as

those occupations pursued by persons performing the functions necessary to accomplish the missions of local, state and federal government, excluding the military services and trades requiring an apprenticeship. These missions reflect the services desired or needed by individuals and groups . . . and are performed through arrangements of organizations established by society normally on a nonprofit

basis and usually supported by tax revenue.⁷⁷ Based on an analysis of public services, the model identifies eight major occupational groups of public service occupations and arranges the course of study from the general to the specific. In this manner, the curriculum delineates a progressive development of orienting knowledge appropriate for different grade levels. Curriculum for the last two years of high school concentrates on both a common core and curriculum for three individual occupational groups: social and economic services, educational services and public safety and correctional services.

The common core includes competencies common to all eight occupational groups. Nine areas, common to all public service were identified from a matrix of high frequency tasks.⁷⁸ In addition, curriculum for the three specific public service occupations were developed on the basis of the high percentage of entry level positions in these occupations.

The Social Services curriculum was developed as a guide to be adapted to different teaching modalities in both vocational and general education. Because of the emphasis on flexibility, content is

presented in a narrative style without a specific instructional design or learning direction. The importance of this particular curriculum lies in the delination of the level of content appropriate for a high school level and the coordination of this material with an instrument of evaluation which tests the student's ability to learn the content. The curriculum, however, is not specifically designed for application to experiential setting. The guide suggests a need for further clarification, firstly in translating the instructional objectives into skill performance objectives and secondly, in evaluating and standardizing the level of mastery for high school level performance in certain tasks specific to the three designated public service occupations. For example, in unit one, "Social Service Agencies and Programs," of the Social Service Curriculum Guide, one of the five instructional objectives notes "ability to use an understanding of clients' feelings and behavior to form attitudes of empathy and concern for them."⁷⁹ A student is considered to have mastered this objective by answering correctly the following question on a test:

Problems of individuals seeking social agency services are frequently influenced by related factors, such as:

- A. Severe illness resulting in loss of job and financial problems
- B. Availability of employment and racial and ethnic discrimination
- C. Lack of stability in home life and effect on children
- D. All of the above⁸⁰

For use in experiential programs, instruments testing students' learning need to evaluate a student's ability to integrate concepts into his practice. In the above example, although the instructional objectives seem to focus on practice ability, the performance objectives concentrate exclusively on a student's intellectual comprehension of the concept, empathy.

In 1974, the Montgomery County Public Schools in Rockville, Maryland, instituted a course of study for student kindergarten aides. The course, developed and coordinated entirely within the school system, was planned as a year's internship for high school students as an elective credit. Students worked from one and a half to three hours per day in a public kindergarten. From the perspective of the student, the goals of the program were aimed at increasing students' exposure to career exploration, increasing students' self-confidence and at students' learning human relationship skills. The course

outline was built around the idea that

participation in this real life experience doing appealing and worthwhile tasks can increase the adolescent's own personal sense of competency, responsibility, independence and success.⁸¹

Course development assumed that an experience external to the high school system would foster new social behaviors and a new set of skills in relating to adults such as: initiating, conversing, refusing, problem-solving, resolving conflict and decision-making. In addition, the career exploration emphasis of the program was predicated on the assumption that adolescents are particularly concerned with questions of "Who am I, What am I going to do with my life, and How can I participate as a responsible member of the community?"⁸²

The framework for the course was focused on answering the following questions:

- (1) What experiences best prepare for the role and responsibility to be assumed?
- (2) How can they be taught effective helping skills to use in working with kindergarten children?
- (3) What ideas and issues arise out of the students' daily participation?⁸³

The course was structured so that students were introduced to the curriculum before the work experience. Topics covered through in-service training once a month during the school year

related to students' specific needs and interests.

The structure of the curriculum is of central importance to the high school human service training course. Of the five basic learning areas in the Montgomery curriculum, the two units on (a) building a child's positive self-concept and individual strengths, and (b) groupwork with children, relate directly to the content covered in the human service program described in this paper. More pertinent, however, is the similarity in instructional design. Most importantly, the curriculum outlines explicit procedures for each objective which corresponds to students' actual performance. Both curricula have distilled major content from a broader knowledge base, broken down the concepts and translated these concepts into a form which relates to practice and which is directly usable in that form. Where the design diverges from the curriculum in this paper is in its dual emphasis on evaluation criteria both in the training seminar and in the student's on-site performance. Although an evaluation of performance is included in the body of the guide and is related to the skill taught in the seminar, the major emphasis for assessment of student learning is

focused on the students' responses to material presented within the format of the seminar. Unfortunately, neither a rationale for the instructional design, nor as of January 1979, an evaluation of the program had been published.

In 1974-75, the Connecticut State Department of Education developed a curriculum guide in human services under the auspices of occupational home economics. The curriculum was designed for eleventh and twelfth year students enrolled in a vocational course and planning to enter the job market upon graduation. One of the stated purposes of the curriculum was the preparation of students for entry level skills as child care aides, geriatric and convalescent aides. The guide is based on the assumption that

some of the skills for child care, convalescent care and geriatric care can be learned in the secondary schools. The qualities of concern and compassion for the defenseless are extremely difficult to communicate. However, these too can be acquired.⁸⁴

The learning experiences set forth in this guide are based on job analysis to assure correlation between learned skill and actual job requirements. The guide suggests

a related work experience is essential to the program. This may involve varying degrees of observation and participation. Some home

economics programs may establish an early childhood laboratory at the high school. Others may place the students in existing child care centers. It is desirable to cycle the students through several types of job training situations in order to give a breadth to their career orientation. This may take place during or outside of school hours but should not be confused with a job for which the young person receives a salary.⁸⁵

A major difference between this curriculum and the human service training curriculum in this paper lies in the orientation of the instructional design. In the Connecticut guide, the content is presented through structured and simulated performance and written exercises. Furthermore, the evaluation of students' learning is based on a student's performance on school related projects. In this guide, specific tasks are delineated in the appendix, only for the purposes of defining for the field a student's functions as a trainee. The field supervisors' rating form, on a scale from one to five, asks supervisors to evaluate students' interrelationships and personal qualities. The five general areas covered in this evaluation are: personal quality, acceptable appearance, interpersonal relationship, acceptable attitude and understanding of role.⁸⁶

In most of the topic areas, the relationship between content and performance is ambiguous. For

example, in the child care unit on graduating a child to independence, the student is presented with a vague idea of performance expectations and procedures for performance. Although the objective for this topic suggests that students determine ways of assisting children in different activities to grow more independent, neither in content, learning experiences nor in the evaluation materials are procedures for skill performance delineated.⁸⁷ As in the Public Service Occupations guide of California, even though it is not clearly adapted to a student's skilled performance in the field, this curriculum determines appropriate content and knowledge for high school students in human service education.

Conclusions

Since the 1960s, funds have become more available for expanded vocational education and career education. The recent emphasis on career education calls for infusion of career education into all levels of education. Particularly in the high school curriculum, models tend to focus on career exposure for all students and coordination of the curriculum with a programmed integration into the community under the auspices of the

educational institution. Two of the three educational programs described above include provision for credited internship in the community human service areas. All three describe secondary school curricula aimed at entry level skill development in the human services.

Concerning the continuing debate on youth's preparation and integration into the adult community, at this point, the major environment and focus for responsibility for this population remains within the school system. Since the 1960s, secondary school institutions have begun to direct attention to the coordination of their programs with community institutions for the purpose of meeting students' developmental needs. In addition, youth employment programs initiated through community agencies have looked toward coordinating training with public education. The suggestions which grew out of the 1930s experience with youth employment programs have only recently begun to take hold.

Concerning the educational issue of methods for human service training, the programs described above demonstrate a variety of designs and methods for training. Although all rely on job and task analysis to ensure that content is related to the

appropriate level of practice, for the most part, the program designs do not include an emphasis on instructional method which would also facilitate the learning of skill on the aide level of practice and would evaluate learning on the basis of on-site practice. In this respect, both the New Careers and CORD projects have suggested the need for new teaching approaches for human service training. When evaluations of skill mastery are included in the design, ratings have tended to focus on personal characteristic criteria. The New Careers Program points specifically to a need for greater definition of the relationship between interrelationship and job-specific skills and for increased clarity in performance expectations. In school based programs, evaluations of mastery have been defined more specifically in terms of cognitive rather than performance criteria.

All of the programs mentioned have addressed the transitional needs of youth for career exposure and for participation in environments which promote youth's development into adulthood. These programs have recognized some positive developmental outcomes of exposing youth to on-site human service skill training.

FOOTNOTES

¹This discussion on trends has been vastly simplified for the purpose of emphasis. Obviously, there are many historical trends which have impinged on this issue, i.e., migration from rural to urban centers, changes in economic and social policy direction and unionism to name a few. Beatrice Vulcan suggests that the transition from youth being an economic asset to a liability involved variations in birth rate, union policies and technological and social organization. Beatrice Vulcan, "American Social Policy Toward Youth and Youth Employment," in Work, Youth and Unemployment, eds. Herman, Sadofsky and Rosenberg (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1968), p. 90.

²Several authors have commented on the different aspects of the relationship between the restriction of youth from the labor force and compulsory education. Beatrice Vulcan points to the fact that a need for a more literate working force and skilled labor accompanied the rise in minimum age for leaving school. Vulcan, p. 84.

Sadofsky, Herman and Rosenberg note that although schools are supposedly designed to effect direct entry into the job market, education lacks specificity for employment. Melvin Herman, Stanley Sadofsky and Bernard Rosenberg, eds., Work, Youth and Unemployment (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1968), p. 7.

The Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee noted that because of the gradual removal of adolescents from the community, schools and colleges now constitute the major environment for youth. The Panel suggests that as schools are now constituted, they offer an incomplete context for youth's accomplishments of the many facets of maturity. Youth Transition to Adulthood, The Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee, by James Coleman, Chairman (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974), pp. 27-29.

³"All of the New England states passed child labor laws in the 1840s, and by 1880 seven states had established a minimum age for employment and twelve had set maximum hours for child workers." Jeremy Felt, Hostages of Fortune (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1965), p.1.

⁴Ibid., p. 3, footnote 8, p. 225.

⁵The 1874 law required children between the ages of eight and fourteen to attend school fourteen weeks a year, eight of which were to have been consecutive. In addition, the law provided for the issuance of a school certificate demonstrating proof of attendance preceding employment. (Ibid., p. 7) Felt states that "This Act was doomed by both its failure to require proof of age and its ridiculous enforcement provisions." Felt, p. 7.

The Factory Act of 1886 prohibited children under the age of thirteen from working in manufacturing establishments. Ibid., p. 20.

⁶Ibid., p. 97.

⁷Ibid., p. 261, footnote 1.

The 1916 Keating-Owens Act attempted to regulate interstate sale of certain products by children under the age of fourteen and to limit the hours for fourteen- through sixteen-year-olds. This law was declared unconstitutional on the grounds that "the commerce clause did not permit control of the states in their exercise of the police power over local trade and manufacturing." Ibid., p. 262.

The 1919 law provided for a ten percent tax on the net profit of those goods produced in either mining or manufacturing in which children were employed. This law was declared unconstitutional on the grounds that it employed an improper use of the taxing power. Ibid., p. 262.

⁸National Child Labor Committee, Rite of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work (New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1976), p. 12.

⁹The Fair Labor Standards Act regulates the shipment of interstate commerce. It limits the employment of minors in the production of goods for interstate or foreign commerce. The Act sets a sixteen year minimum age for general employment, an eighteen year minimum age for occupations found and declared hazardous by the Secretary of Labor, and a fourteen year minimum age for employment outside school hours in a limited number of occupations under specified hours and conditions. Herman, Sadofsky and Rosenberg, eds., p. 93.

¹⁰Vulcan, p. 78.

¹¹Ibid., p. 81.

¹²Youth Transition to Adulthood, Report of the Panel of the President's Science Advisory Committee, by James Coleman, Chairman (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974), p. 25.

¹³Ibid., p. 2.

¹⁴Vulcan, p. 77.

¹⁵See footnote 5.

¹⁶Vulcan, p. 84.

¹⁷Russel Nixon, "Full Employment as Economic Policy," in Public Service Employment, ed. Alan Gartner, Russel Nixon, and Frank Riessman (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973) pp. 18-21.

¹⁸Lewis Lorin, Social Problems and Social Policy (New York: Arno Press, 1941; reprint ed. New York: The New York Times Co., 1974), p. 12.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 144.

²⁰R. A. Nixon, "Federal Manpower Legislation (1961-66) with Special Reference to Youth," in Work, Youth and Unemployment, eds., Melvin Herman, Stanley Sadofsky and Bernard Rosenberg (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1968), p. 101.

Concerning the 1961 Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Act, Nixon States,
the first significant legislation enacted which

directly affected unemployed youth was the passage in September, 1961, of the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act. With a ten million dollar authorized appropriation, and with only demonstration, evaluation and research projects provided, this measure nonetheless turned out to have pivotal importance. In it Congress related juvenile delinquency to "school dropouts, unemployed youth faced with limited opportunities, and with employment barriers, and youth in deprived family situations," and called for coordinated effort in private and government interests to engage in a comprehensive effort against these sources of youth delinquency . . . youth unemployment was sharply focused as a major national problem. Nixon, "Federal Manpower," p. 100.

²¹Sar Levitan and Garth Mangum, Making Sense of Federal Manpower Policy, Policy Papers in Human Resources and Industrial Relations, No. 2, 2nd Ed. (Detroit, Michigan: Wayne State University, 1973), pp. 9-32.

²²The Careers Opportunities Act of 1966, sponsored by Representative James Scheuer of New York and enacted as amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act (known as the Nelson-Scheuer Amendment), provided for the creation of training and employment programs in community service for the unemployed and for low-income populations. The unique provision of this act was the subsidation of jobs with career ladder advancement of a permanent nature. Alan Gartner, Paraprofessionals and Their Performance (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1971), pp. 5-6, and Sar Levitan and Garth Mangum, eds., Policy Studies in Employment and Welfare (Baltimore, Maryland: John Hopkins Press, 1971), p. 51.

²³Harold Weissman, ed., Employment and Educational Services in the Mobilization for Youth Experience (New York: Association Press, 1969), p. 26.

²⁴Alan Gartner, Paraprofessionals and their Performance, p. 94.

²⁵Weissman, pp. 113-114.

²⁶Jacob Fishman, et al., Training for New Careers (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1965), p. 1.

²⁷Ibid., p. 2.

²⁸Ibid., p. 3.

²⁹Ibid., p. 69.

³⁰Ibid., p. 70.

³¹Ibid., p. 70.

³²Eunice Shata, Jacob Fishman and William Klein, New Careers: Generic Issues in the Human Services (Washington, D.C.: New Careers Institute, 1968), p. 2.

³³Institute for Youth Studies, New Careers for the Disadvantaged in Human Service, MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings, No. 9 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 45.

³⁴Ibid., p. 50.

³⁵Ibid., p. 51.

³⁶Ibid., p. 48.

³⁷Ibid., p. 56.

³⁸Ibid., p. 48.

³⁹Ibid., pp. 48-49.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 47.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 50.

⁴²William Denham, Eunice Shata, Naomi Felsenfeld, and Jacob Fishman, "High School Training for New Careers in Human Services," National Elementary Principal, XLVI (May 1967): 24-25.

⁴³Ibid., p. 28.

⁴⁴A detailed description of the analytic method used and applied to this program is described in George Kich, Phase II Final Report, Theory and Methodology of Human Services Functional Task Analysis Data System (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, Bureau of Research, 1970).

⁴⁵Concerning the WOAFC scales, Kich reports, The following scales are adapted from the publication "Job Restructuring" prepared by the Wisconsin Occupational Analysis Field Center (12-1968). The publication was developed by Mr. Harry Nussberger, Job Analysis Supervisor and Mr. Frank Potts, Research Analyst under the general direction of Mr. William F. Miller. Ibid., p. 31.

Concerning the application of these scales to the CORD project, Kich states

The worker functions are described as they related to Data, People and Things. The scales have been modified chiefly by addition over those indicated in the WOAFC report. The People and Data scales have been lengthened, whereas the Things scale has been shortened. Ibid., p. 38.

⁴⁶Robert K. Soong, et al., Core Curriculum for Human Services (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, Bureau of Research, 1971), pp. 16-18.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 20.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 19.

⁴⁹M. Schreiber and S. H. Bromfield, "Adolescents Who Want to Help: Some Experiences with Teen Volunteers in a Group Work Setting," Mental Retardation (1966): 13.

⁵⁰Leon Cytryn and Audrey Vihlein, "Training of Volunteers in the Field of Mental Retardation--an Experiment," The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 35 (April 1965): 495-496.

⁵¹Richard Pasework, "A Final Report on HI-SWAT" (Laramie, Wyoming: University of Wyoming, 1973), p. 5.

⁵²Ibid., p. 5.

⁵³Ibid., p. 13.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 6.

⁵⁵Youth: Transition to Adulthood, p. 29.

⁵⁶Vulcan, p. 82.

⁵⁷Felt, p. 97. The New York Employment Certification Law (a.k.a. the Hill-Finch Law) required accurate proof of age for employment. Felt suggests concerning this law that this part of the law was opposed by some school officials who knew that it would make it more difficult to get rid of "undesirable" or "uneducable" children--including recent immigrants with language difficulties--by sending them to work. Felt, p. 97.

The 1922 amendment to the New York State Compulsory Education Law was directed at the problem of school dropouts. This amendment "required employers to notify the employment certifying officer within three days whether the child had reported for work." Felt, p. 110. Concerning the truancy and drop-out problem, Felt suggests that the argument of educators and child reformers that it was economically more profitable for children to stay in school might have logic on its side, but the fact remains that many youngsters sought working papers for no other purpose than to avoid school. Felt, p. 111.

⁵⁸Precedent for this act was the passage of the first Morrill Act (Land Grant Colleges Act) in 1862.

The purpose of the Land Grant Colleges Act and associated legislation passed later was to develop a new kind of collegiate institution that would be responsible to the economic and social needs of individual states and communities. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Toward a Federal Policy in Education and Work (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1978), p. xx.

The Smith-Hughes Act provided matching federal funds for states in establishing public school vocational education.

⁵⁹vulcan, p. 82.

⁶⁰Kenneth Hoyt, et al., Career Education: What It Is and How To Do It (Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Co., 1974), p. 83.

⁶¹Sidney P. Marland, Jr., Career Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), p. 22.

⁶²City of New York Cooperative Education Bureau, Manual for Employers (New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, n.d.), p. 2.

⁶³U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Toward a Federal Policy on Education and Work (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1977), p. xv.

⁶⁴Kenneth Hoyt, et al., Career Education in the High Schools (Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1977), p. 317.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 319.

⁶⁶At a conference in New York City sponsored by the New York State Advisory Council for Occupational Education in May 1978, it was reported that a total of 9,500 students were enrolled in Cooperative Education Programs from eighty-five high schools. The drop-out rate is less than one percent. The programs stress, at this point, the development of positive work habits and mature work behaviors.

⁶⁷Hoyt, Career Education in the High Schools, p. 327.

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 327-328.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 307.

⁷⁰Thomas Owens, et al., "Curriculum Definition and Evaluation in Employer Based Career Education" (Washington, D.C., April 1974), p. 2. (mimeographed)

⁷¹Ibid., p. 4.

⁷²Hoyt, Career Education in the High Schools, p. 336.

⁷³Ibid., p. 339.

⁷⁴U.S. Office of Education, Report on Commissioner's National Conference on Career Education, Houston, Texas, November 7-10, 1976, Career Education: A Collaborate Effort (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1977), p. 122.

⁷⁵City of New York, The Center for Career and Occupational Education, A Systemwide Career Education Cluster-Based Articulated Model Program, K-18 (New York: The Board of Education of the City of New York, n.d.), p. 15.

A model site consists of a network of educational settings ranging from kindergarten through graduate education. Hence, the model site consists of one or more elementary schools, junior high schools, high schools (public and non-public), junior colleges and senior colleges. Ibid., p. 9.

⁷⁶Information presented at a conference on May 6, 1978, sponsored by the New York State Advisory Council for Occupational Education at Norman Thomas High School in New York City.

⁷⁷Constance Gepson and James Lynn, Public Service Occupations Curriculum Project Final Report (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1975), p. 12.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 15. The nine common areas were identified as follows: oral communication, written communication, basic report writing, basic record keeping, good grooming, relating to others, interviewing skills, applying for public service jobs, techniques of decision-making.

⁷⁹California State Department of Education, Preparing for Public Service Occupations (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1975), p. 3.

⁸⁰Ibid., p. 125.

⁸¹Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland, Course of Study: Student Aides for Kindergarten Teachers Program (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1977), p. 9.

⁸²Ibid., p. 11.

⁸³Ibid., p. 15.

⁸⁴Grace Harrison and Alyce Shay, Occupational Home Economics Curriculum Guide in Human Services (Hartford, Connecticut: Connecticut State Department of Education, 1975), p. i.

⁸⁵Ibid., pp. viii-ix.

⁸⁶Ibid., pp. 128-129.

⁸⁷Ibid., p. 24.

CHAPTER IV

THEORETICAL FRAMES OF REFERENCE

This project addresses in-school youth's need for marketable skill training and career exposure. in the particular area of the human services. Specifically, the condition to be altered focuses on a deficiency in the high school curriculum in skills training and exposure in the human services with the goal of exploration for future employment or schooling in this field. Broadly speaking, since this project is concerned with two areas of need, the first developmental and the second, educational, theoretical formulations which have informed the construction of the training curriculum have been drawn from propositions in the fields of developmental psychology, learning and instructional design as well as social work skill definition.

Developmental Theory

Erik Erikson's epigenetic principle informs the basic proposition of this program which states that: if an adolescent accomplishes the

developmental task of identity formation, the following developmental phases will build upon this ego strength and the adolescent's transition to young adulthood will be eased. According to Erikson's theory, development is defined as a hierarchical ordering of stages with each developmental stage building on the strengths of the previous time period. Erikson suggests that each phase exhibits a developmental task as well as a developmental crisis which, if not resolved, may inhibit further healthy adaptation and growth. In adolescence, Erikson defined the main developmental task as identity formation. By this, he described adolescence as a process of "ego synthesis and resynthesis of childhood experiences."¹ In part, this process is developed through the interaction of the youngster with the community. Erikson suggested that

in youth, ego strength emerges from a mutual confirmation of individual and community, in the sense that society recognizes the young individual as a bearer of fresh energy and the young individual recognizes society as a living process inspiring loyalty.²

Illustrating further the role of the community's interaction with the individual in this process, Erikson notes that

. . . [when] we speak of the community's response to the young individual's need to be "recognized" by those around him, we mean something beyond a mere recognition of achievement; for it is of great relevance to the young individual's identity formation that he be responded to and be given function and status as a person whose gradual growth and transformation make sense to those who begin to make sense to him.³

Erikson indicates that the development of the ego-strength, fidelity, is of vital importance to youth's resolution of its identity and its transition into the following stages of development. He states, concerning identity, that

the elemental fact is that only when fidelity has found its field of manifestation is the human ready as, say, the nestling in nature when it can rely on its own wing and take its adult place in the ecological order.⁴

This strength is demonstrated in behavioral terms by the "search for something and someone to be true to,"⁵ and evolves through an interchange of the youth with others and with the social forces of the community. In effect, the selection of those significant others may be focused in the practical settings of school or job selection as well as in more ideological circumstances.

In terms of this project, Erikson's theory focuses on the process of identity as one of interaction between the community and the

individual. In this project, the community offers new ideas and models in whose service the youth may develop a sense of fidelity by proving himself to be an individual with future potential and interest. In effect, this project aims to magnify and focus in on that one task in the process of identity formation which pertains to the development of youth's budding occupational identity.

Writing of the importance in adolescence of developing a vocational identity, Erikson notes that

in general it is the inability to settle on an occupational identity which most disturbs young people. To keep themselves together, they temporarily overidentify with the heroes of cliques and crowds to the point of an apparently complete loss of individuality.⁶

Erikson identifies the behavioral manifestations of work paralysis as one symptom of identity confusion. This symptom is due in part to youth's failure to achieve a sense of apprenticeship which is one of the ego-strengths developed through the resolution of the tasks in the preceding latency period. Erikson states that

social institutions support the strength and distinctiveness of the budding work identity by offering those who are still learning and experimenting a certain status of apprenticeship, a moratorium characterized

by defined duties and sanctioned competition as well as by special license.⁷

To enable healthy growth, Erikson suggests that it is society's duty toward this age group to provide "a social structure which grants this age group the place it needs and in which it is needed."⁸

The Report of the Joint Commission of Mental Health for Children also highlights the importance of the community in adolescent development. In this report, the period of late adolescence which corresponds to the age of the study group covered in this project, is marked off from the total stage as a period of development with different needs and aims. They suggest that one issue of major importance in this substage is the question of self-definition in the wider world. In particular, resolution of this self-definition relates to the individual's involvement in the future development of a social role and personal purpose. The Commission's report suggests that a sense of commitment is the ego-strength which is developed in adolescence. Capacity for commitment is congruent with Erikson's ego-strength, fidelity, which is manifest in the adolescent's resolution of his developmental task. The Report

defines this capacity as involving "a commitment to one's self, that is a conviction that one is a self worth being. It also entails a dedication to values worthy of that self."⁹ At this stage then, it is crucial that the adolescent develop a sense of his potential usefulness through his participation in realistic experiences which develop a sense of achievement and self-worth. The Commission notes that

the kind of pathways to adulthood and responsible community membership which our society provides is integrally involved with the process of adolescence. Identity formation is an unconscious mental and moral process which cannot be acquired alone.¹⁰

The community's role in meeting the developmental needs of this age group may be concentrated in that area of providing realistic work opportunities for youth's true participation and interaction in the mainstream of society.

Developmental Theory and Education

As was mentioned in the preceding section of this chapter, the role of the community in the process of identity formation is important for the adolescent's healthy adaptation in this developmental phase. For most adolescents, the educational institution provides the structure and major

segment of the community milieu and contact during most of their day.

In his book, Developmental Tasks and Education, Robert Havighurst linked the process of psychosocial development with implications for educational emphasis. He accepts Erikson's definition of a developmental task as a crisis which arises at a certain period in life, the resolution of which leads toward healthy, successful adaptation to future life tasks. Because he views the task of preparing for an economic career as one of the components in adolescent development, he perceives an inherent problem in modern society's enforced delay between the individual's desire for adult status and society's requirement of the ability to function as an adult.¹¹ He states that

since work was the axis of life, deciding on one's occupation and preparing for it was a sure means of identity formation. Nothing has yet replaced occupational choice and preparation as a safe and sure means of identity formation and consequently many adolescents suffer from aimlessness and uncertainty about themselves.¹²

An adolescent's emerging interest in career planning around the age of sixteen underlies his need to develop some assurance at this point of his economic competence.¹³

Consequently, Havighurst concludes that these developmental tasks have implications for our educational system. Havighurst points out that one of education's major responsibilities should be the preparation of an individual for a choice of an occupation. For this reason as well, he stresses the importance of structuring some form of adult role practice into the high school and college educational systems.

Developmental Theory and Occupational Identity

The process of vocational development in many respects mirrors that of psychosocial development. Donald Super in his book The Psychology of Careers, states that

the choice of an occupation is one of the points in life at which a young person is called upon to state rather explicitly his concepts of himself, to say definitely "I am this or that kind of person." Similarly, holding and adjusting to a job is for the typical beginning worker a process of finding out, first, whether that job permits him to play the kind of role he wants to play; secondly, whether the role the job makes him play is compatible with his self-concept, whether the unforeseen elements in it can be assimilated into the self or modified to suit the self; and finally, it is a process of testing his self-concept against the reality, of finding out whether he can actually live up to his picture of himself.¹⁴

Indeed, as mentioned above, Erikson suggests that on one level, development in adolescence involves a process of clarification of one's self-concept in occupational terms.¹⁵ Super has focused on the process of vocational choice as one facet in an individual's total development. As a result of a series of longitudinal studies, he has broken down the process of vocational development into a continuum of stages exhibiting characteristics related to vocational growth. Super subdivided the exploratory stage (ages 15-24) into three substages: tentative (15-17), transitional (18-21) and trial (22-24).¹⁶ In the first two substages, which cover the ages representative of the students in this study, the adolescent both crystallizes and specifies his vocational preferences in school discussions, in fantasy and even in work. The youngster begins to make tentative occupational choices. Subsequently he begins to test out this burgeoning self-concept through his participation in the reality of training or the labor market.

The two dimensions of vocational maturity and vocational adjustment underlie Super's concept of the process of vocational choice. In the Career Pattern Study, a longitudinal study concerned

with the measurement of vocational maturity of boys starting in the ninth grade during the 1950s and ending in 1973,¹⁷ Super conceptualized vocational maturity as equivalent to an individual's age. He states that

vocational maturity, the place reached on the developmental continuum, may be described not only in terms of the gross units of behavior which constitute the life stages, but also in terms of much smaller and more refined units of behavior manifested in coping with the developmental tasks of a given life stage. It is this latter definition which is most helpful in considering a given individual who functions at certain life stages.¹⁸

According to formulations of the Career Pattern Study, crystallization of preferences is the main task of the tentative substage which covers the ages representative of the group of this study. Super suggests that

during this period the teen-ager is expected by society to begin to formulate ideas as to fields and levels of work which are appropriate for him, self and occupational concepts which will enable him, if necessary, to make tentative choices, that is to commit himself to a type of education or training which will lead him toward some partially specified occupation.¹⁹

In the transition substage, the process of specification focuses on the selection of and commitment toward one occupational choice. Analyses of the twelfth grade responses in the Career Pattern Study series by Heyde and Jordaan confirmed

that "development during the high school years is indeed in the direction of greater crystallization and specification."²⁰

Crystallization of Interests,²¹ one of seven indices in the Career Pattern Study, was used to assess a student's level of vocational maturity.²² Results from this index concerning the direction of vocational development indicate that during the high school years

high school seniors have fewer occupational possibilities and fields of work under consideration than they did in the 9th grade. Their preferences are also more specific and more consistent. While their preferences are still quite tentative, they are not quite as tentative as when they were freshman.²³

In addition, this analysis resulted in a clearer definition of factors which were considered structurally relevant to the process of vocational maturity in the tentative substage. All five of the ten measurements adapted to the present project's study and included in the Career Pattern Study's Crystallization of Interests index were assessed as important factors in the measurement of an adolescent's vocational maturity in the high school years. These factors all identified behaviors and attitudes which were found to increase with age. However, concerning the predictive

validity of these vocational maturity factors,

Heyde and Jordaan suggest that

it must be concluded that traits, attitudes and behaviors that we have identified as possible indicators of vocational maturity develop for the most part in an irregular fashion. In the case of some boys, development seems to accelerate; in the case of others, it slows down or remains stationary.²⁴

Super defined vocational adjustment, the second dimension included in his concept of vocational development, in terms of the outcomes of the behaviors identified in vocational maturity and in terms of the concept of integration.

Concerning integration, Super states that

in general, then, integrative vocational adjustment is defined in terms of the efficiency of the individual's vocational behavior; efficiency is formulated in terms of the extent to which the vocational behavior results in the accomplishment of a task with the greatest degree of long-term satisfaction to the individual. Long-term satisfaction has been seen to depend on meeting socialized objectives.²⁵

In the Career Pattern Study series, Super identified the following four variables on a continuum of vocational adjustment:

- (1) self-control or an individual's capacity to use his abilities
- (2) sense of personal responsibility: defined as an individual's acceptance of the consequences of action

(3) social responsibility or degree of dependability

(4) formation and the use of ideals.²⁶

Results of a later longitudinal study of fifty-seven boys and fifty-one girls in 1961 by Gribbons and Lohnes suggest identified vocational maturity factors similar to those in the Jordaan and Heyde analysis.²⁷ In this study, data collected at four intervals during junior high school, high school and two years post-high school were analyzed according to a Readiness for Vocational Planning Scale. This instrument included the following scaled variables:²⁸

(1) Factors in Curriculum Choice: included a student's awareness of his abilities, interest and values related to curricula choice and the relationship between the curricula and occupational preference.

(2) Factors in Occupational Choice: included student's awareness of educational requirements and accurate description of occupational preference.

(3) Verbalized Strengths and Weaknesses: included a student's awareness of these traits as they related to occupational choice.

(4) Accuracy of Self-appraisal: included student's estimates of ability related to tested academic ability.

(5) Evidence of Self-rating: included the quality of the student's rationale for the appraisal.

(6) Interests: included a student's awareness of interests and their relation to occupational choice.

(7) Values: included student's awareness of values and their relationship to occupational choice.

(8) Independence of Choice: included an assessment of a student's willingness to take responsibility for his choices. Evidence of significant change over a two-year period on these eight variables suggested that these factors were valid measurements of vocational maturity.²⁹

Comparisons of career aspirations over time with the last measured aspiration and employment in this study lead to a refinement of Super's career development theory. Whereas Super's previous study had resulted in the formulation of a single career development process involving life stages and tasks, Gribbons' and Lohnes'

study found evidence for three additional career patterns. Their revised concept of career development is reproduced in Table 2 below.³⁰

In summation then, developmental theory and theory of career development suggest that the exploratory stage of the career development process is an integral part of the developmental task of adolescence. The ego-strengths of fidelity and a capacity for commitment emerge through the interaction of the individual with society and through society's recognition of the individual's potential for vocational mastery. The dimensions of vocational maturity, vocational adjustment, and readiness for vocational planning are acutely bound to the development of a positive self-concept in the process of an adolescent's defining his future roles which will be congruent with the individual's self-image.

Instructional Design

The medium through which this project assumes resolution of developmental tasks in adolescence is a work experience in the human service field accompanied by a structured didactic seminar. The specific objectives of this project

TABLE 2

DIFFERENTIAL CAREER PROCESS (DCP)
AS DEFINED BY GRIBBONS AND LOHNES

Constant Maturity	Consistent, persistent, realistic pursuit of the first stated goal.
Emerging Maturity	Passage through the stages and tasks of Super's developmental model.
Degeneration	Progressive deterioration of aspirations and achievement, accompanied by frustration and loss of status.
Constant Immaturity	Persistent fixation on fantastic, unrealistic goals, with no advances in achieved level.

seminar are the learning and application of human service skills on the technician level. In particular, this project is concerned with defining the most effective method of teaching human service skills to this age group. In attempting to conceptualize this issue, a major task of this project has been the preparation and evaluation of a field curriculum incorporated into a high school human service work-study experience. The total student experience, then, consists of exposure to

both a relatively unstructured work experience as an aide in a human service setting and a field seminar curriculum structured by the commonalities of task in the students' experience. Results of experiments in interpersonal skills training using a model of the multimethod approach combining instruction, modeling and rehearsal (experience)³¹ have proved most relevant to this project in guiding its instructional method and climate. They have provided the basic rationale for using a combined approach with high school students on a beginning skill level.

The multimethod approach of training has been used in human relations helper training sessions (or counselor training) predominantly by Carkhuff and Ivey.³² Carkhuff has programmed a systematic approach to helper training along the two dimensions of discrimination (which translates into diagnostic skill) and communication. These two variables were operationalized into responses which demonstrate levels of empathy, concreteness, respect for the client, genuineness and self-disclosure. Carkhuff's method integrates the didactic, in the form of instruction, the experiential and modeling aspects of learning into

his training program. In his multimethod training program, modeling is effected through the use of skilled trainers as models.³³ Experience is generally not field related but derived from the students' participation in sensitivity groups, role playing and from simulated material.

Besides the content and the basis for structure, this systematic training curriculum and the one developed for use in this project is the nature of the experience. Because of the Carkhuff model's controlled experience which takes place entirely in the training seminar, the trainer has more influence as both a model and in direct observation of students' interactions than the trainer of the curriculum used in this program structure. Noting the necessity for this integrated approach, Carkhuff states that

. . . it is worth noting briefly that experience in helping alone, without adequate training and supervision is not sufficient to effect positive change in either the helper or the helpee.³⁴

Various experiments using college students as subjects under controlled conditions have attempted to determine the relative importance of variables such as instruction, task, structure, modeling and experience on the interpersonal

helping performance.³⁵ The purpose of a study by Stone and Vance was to determine the effect on the trainee of various factors in a multimethod model of training. The results of this study indicated that different methods of instruction may be more effective in certain learning situations. For instance, the authors tentatively conclude that whereas instruction seemed to be particularly effective for students when the task was structured, observation of models plus instruction seemed to facilitate students' performance in more ambiguous situations. Concerning the combined approach, they suggest that "Perhaps performance is facilitated in situations where subjects use inductive reasoning to determine performance rules that guide behavior (i. e., by observing models)."³⁶ They also conclude that extraneous variables such as the student's exposure to increased time and information involved in the multimethod model may have positively affected the students' performance.

In Marlatt's framework, he compares the use and assets of instructions, modeling and verbal reinforcement (feedback) singly and in combination in experiments aimed at eliciting certain verbal responses. According to Marlatt,

an ambiguous task is one in which the subject may choose between more than two responses. Information in the form of instruction, modeling and verbal reinforcement increases the subject's awareness and improves performance in these situations.

In this framework, awareness in verbal conditioning is described as "the degree of congruence between the subject's own perceptions of the purpose of the experiment and the experimenter's purpose."³⁷

Marlatt suggests that the more structured the task, the greater information is available to the subject to increase his awareness of purpose.

In this framework, the functions of verbal instructions were to direct attention to certain stimuli and to specify performance criteria. He states that

. . . the main characteristic of instructions is that they provide the subject with a rule or principle, which can then be used as a response class mediator. During performance, instances of that response class are generated that are consistent with the rule given in the instructions. As such, performance mediated by instructions can be considered as a form of deductive reasoning.³⁸

Contrasting this method with modeling, he states that for modeling,

. . . the subject must derive a general rule, based on his own observation of the model's performance, which would define the criteria of

the response class(es) accounting for the instances demonstrated by the model. Derivation of a rule from observation of discrete examples can be considered as a type of inductive reasoning.³⁹

Although Marlatt suggests that the use of a method may depend on the degree of ambiguity of the desired response, in reviewing the literature, he concluded that instruction in and of itself is less effective than when used in combination with another method.

In addition to studies which have tested the effectiveness of various components in the multimethod approach, several authors have examined the effectiveness of instructional design in relation to the characteristics of the learner. Arthur Chickering's framework of instruction is based on a linkage between the hierarchical ordering of stages of adult ego development and cognitive style with methods of instruction. Chickering suggests that

the basic point . . . is that motives for learning, learning styles and orientations toward knowledge are linked to levels of ego development, oral development and intellectual development. These motives and orientations, backed by the broader reinforcements of developmental levels, in turn define appropriate institutional functions or rules.⁴⁰

On this point, he also suggests that

a key problem for educators is to develop conceptual clarity concerning students'

motives and learning styles, and the major outcomes of various educational programs and teaching activities. When such concepts are clear, learning settings pertinent to particular purposes can be identified or created, activities to foster desired outcomes can be specified, and evidence of progress can be recognized.⁴¹

Based on Loevinger's conception of states of ego development in adult life, this framework fixes the transition between the conformist stage of development and the conscientious stage during the first two years of college. According to this orientation, the students in the high school human service project fall primarily into the conformist stage. Loevinger describes the conformist stage of ego development with the following characteristics.

Here the child identifies himself with authority, his parents at first, later other adults, then his peers. This is the first period of greatest cognitive simplicity. There is a right way and a wrong way and it is the same for everyone all the time, or for broad classes of people . . . What is conventional and socially approved is right . . . Rules are accepted because they are socially accepted.⁴²

According to Chickering's framework relating individual differences to educational practices, the following connections obtain for the conformist stage:⁴³

<u>Intellectual Development:</u>	Comprehension, Application
<u>Motive for Education:</u>	Impress significant others; gain social acceptance, obtain credentials and recognition
<u>What is Knowledge:</u>	General information required for social roles; objective truth given by authority
<u>What Use is Knowledge:</u>	Education to be: social approval, appearance, status used by self to achieve according to expectations and standards of significant others
<u>Where Does Knowledge Come From?</u>	From external authority; from asking what others expect and how to do it
<u>Institutional Function:</u>	Provide predetermined information and training programs; certify skills and knowledge
<u>Teaching Practice:</u>	Teacher led; dialogue or discussion, open 'leaderless' 'learner centered' discussion

Using a framework similar to Chickering's, Nina Rosenthal tested the correlation between instructional design and a learner's conceptual level. In this study, conceptual level was defined as a continuous hierarchical dimension which assessed a student's self-responsibility, independence and ability to generate concepts. Rosenthal defined the three stages of conceptual development as:⁴⁴

- Stage A: immature, unsocialized, unable to generate concepts.
- Stage B: dependent and conforming, concerned with rules, categorical thinking.
- Stage C: independent, self-reliant, cognitively complete, to consider experiences from different viewpoints.

She concludes from the results of the study that different instructional methods are needed for students of varying conceptual ability. In particular, for those students in the low conceptual level category a structured learning environment is necessary.

Uhlemann et al.'s observation that previous experiments with multimethod training approaches demonstrated that the training method lacked consistent impact, hypothesized that the

variability in the level of students' initial communication skill may have some effect on their ultimate performance.⁴⁵ In this study, communication skills were operationally defined as an individual's score on the Communication Index, developed by Carkhuff to measure level of empathy, and student's score on Reflection of Feeling Response Form developed by Ivey. They conclude that

instructions that provide an explicit elaboration of performance rules and that direct the participant to engage in those specified behaviors facilitate performance . . . It would seem that low-skilled trainees profit more from structured learning strategy than from procedures based on incidental learning.⁴⁶

The authors found that the didactic approach in this instance organized students' experiences into a framework of concepts and rules which enhanced their performance.

As a group, these studies have provided the foundation for the instructional design of this project's training program. The project's use of a systematic multimethod training approach appears to be appropriate for students in the conformist stage who rely on external authority and the expectations of others to structure their learning in skills training. In addition, for

students who rate lower in conceptual level and communication skills, a learning situation which is structured by performance rules seems to result in an improved student performance.

In part, the theoretical basis for these propositions derives from John Dewey's approach to experience-based education. Essentially, Dewey's theory of experientially-based instruction underlies most rationale for career education policy as well as for the former New Careers skills training programs.⁴⁷ In his book, Democracy and Education, Dewey defined the process of thinking as

the intentional endeavor to discover specific connections between something which we do and consequences which result so that the two become continuous.⁴⁸

He suggested that the spark which initiates thought must evolve out of an action. Certainly then, the first step in an experiential learning process is the action phase, the observation of cause and effect. James Coleman, in an article on experience-based education, suggested that the second step in this process involves

. . . understanding these effects in a particular instance, so that if exactly the same set of circumstances reappeared, one could anticipate what would follow from the action . . . At this point it can be said

that a person has learned how to act to obtain his goals in this particular circumstance.⁴⁹

The third phase promotes the student's ability to integrate the cause and effect sequences with other like circumstances and to understand the action in terms of broader principles.

The learning experience in this project has been structured around these three phases. The experiential component, the work situation, provides the motive for learning and thinking. The seminar allows an opportunity for students to examine their behavior and its effects in the work environment and to relate their actions to the broader concepts of rules and procedures which standardize their actions. Taken as a whole then, all three components equal the student's total experience.

In his book Experience and Education, Dewey notes that the quality of the experience is crucial for promoting a student's growth. He stresses that the two principles of continuity and interaction are an integral part of the educational experience. Continuity in education refers to the relationship of the present to prior experiences and the effect of the present on modifying subsequent experiences. Interaction in this theoretical context refers to

the interplay of the experience with the internal qualities of the individuals. The principle accords an equal importance to both the externals of the situation and the characteristics of individuals in forming an experience.⁵⁰

Dewey's definition of an educational experience has implications for the educator's role in the educational process. He states that

the immediate and direct concern of an educator is then with the situations in which interaction takes place. The individual who enters as a factor into it, is what he is at a given time. It is the other factor, that of objective conditions which lies to some extent within the possibility of regulation by the educator.⁵¹

The responsibility of defining these objective conditions, then, necessitates the educator's assessment of the individual's educational needs for the purpose of, in this project's case, task performance. According to Dewey's theory, in experiential education problems for study and curiosity evolve from students' actions and participation in an experience. Out of the experience, the educator selects those problems which are within the capacities of the students and which have the potential for stimulating new observations and for expanding a student's experience. The curriculum draws problems for

study from the immediate condition of the experience and relates these problems directly to the capacity of the student.⁵²

The theoretical process of experiential learning has definite implications for this project. It has provided a general rationale for the field seminar as a necessary piece of the learning process, particularly in the last two phases. Coleman noted that "post game discussions" are an excellent means of supplementing and assisting the third phase of the learning process which he characterized as the "weakest link in the experiential process."⁵³ He states that

the statement of these principles, taken together with the experience from the game, seems for most players to be sufficient to bring about learning of the general principle, while play of the game is sufficient only for a much smaller fraction of people.⁵⁴

In this context, the purpose of this project's field seminar in the learning process is to help students form connections in their learning by providing structure to the spontaneous experience through the introduction of generalizing principles.

Skills

As has been stated above, this project assumes that high school students' mastery of a

program in human service training will aid the resolution of developmental tasks. In order to achieve this goal, this project has concerned itself with the development of a human service training course on a level consistent with the student's beginning experience. In the process of developing a human service curriculum which would be congruent with the students' level of functioning, several questions have been raised concerning a framework for defining human service skills and methods of ordering these skills into hierarchical levels. More specifically, it has been the hope of this project that the answers to these questions would result in a tentative identification of certain skills appropriate for the apprentice human service worker.

Ruth Middleman suggests that social work skill may be defined in terms of the product and the process of the interaction. By product she refers to

qualities of the helper that will have constructive impact on the client in the counseling process. Such desirable attributes of the helper in combination are seen to make up skill in this tradition and designated via descriptive nouns, e.g., sensitivity, openness.⁵⁵

Training programs which emphasize the development of empathy, respect and concreteness such as in

Carkhuff's, Ivey's or Egan's model define skill according to this framework. Middleman notes that skill may also be described in process terms. Skills defined in a process framework are derived from what the worker does rather than how he does it.

Sidney Fine's framework for functional task analysis has offered the human service professions a standardized method for developing training curricula related to the workers' tasks. The impetus for the development of this framework grew out of the 1967 amendments to the Economic Opportunities Act which required the employment and integration of indigenous personnel into the human service field.⁵⁶ His initial work was aimed at operationalizing this mandate by developing a system for creating career ladders and training curricula for the new human service worker. The major application of this system's approach to task analysis was an assurance that all job positions were related to agency purpose and that levels of performance could be evaluated, standardized and translated across agency boundaries. According to this framework, a task is defined as

an action or action sequence grouped through time designed to contribute a specified end result to the accomplishment of an objective

and for which functional levels and orientation can be reliably assigned. The task action or action sequence may be primarily physical, such as operating an electric typewriter; or primarily mental, such as analyzing data; and/or primarily interpersonal, such as consulting with another person.⁵⁷

The task, then, being the basic unit of any job, is analyzed in this system according to three factors which have been operationalized on an ordinal scale according to the level of difficulty (People, Data, Things) and according to ordinal scales for level of worker instruction (scaled on the dimension of independence of worker judgement) and level of education (reasoning, mathematic and language ability).⁵⁸ A task focus insures that training content is structured by the task and by the level of workers' functioning within the task. Fine suggests that a training curriculum structured through functional task analysis will answer the basic question: What knowledge does a worker have to learn to be able to perform tasks according to the standard indicated?

The three separate categories for skill definition are described as functional skills, specific content skills and adaptive skills. First, functional skill was defined as those competencies which enable a person to relate to the three functions

of Things, Data and People, appropriate to a specified level. These skills may be acquired in either education or training and reinforced in a specific job. In this particular project, an example of a functional skill would include the knowledge of encouraging small group interaction through the introduction of activities⁵⁹. Secondly, specific content skills refer to those competencies which enable a worker to perform his specific job according to a specified standard. Using the above example, included in this instance is the knowledge of particular group activities such as art or music projects and games. The adaptive skill appears to be the one connection between curriculum designed to enhance mastery of human service skills defined by task and a curriculum which ultimately addresses the developmental needs of the worker.

Fine described the adaptive skill as competencies in managing the demands of conformity and change. Rooted in dimensions of temperament, adaptive skill is defined as including the following variables: the management of oneself with authority, impulse control, moving towards, away and against others, timing (pacing, punctuality), care of property and dress.⁶⁰

In this project, the majority of student tasks centered around the People Function Scale. This scale pertains to tasks involving interactions and communication between people. According to this scale, the complexities of communication are operationalized along the dimensions of a worker's ability to handle increasing amounts of variables in an interaction and the worker's ability to use problem-solving methods and independent judgement in task function. Fine noted that these dimensions dealt with the complexities of communication indirectly and that their assumptions of ordinality were tenuous. In particular, he suggests that the supervisory level may warrant a separate scale.⁶¹

In addition to Functional Job Analysis, which has provided this project with a method for defining the content of skill appropriate to a technician's level of practice, Harold Lewis' conception of social work skill has suggested a theoretical structure for the instructional design of this project's seminar. Lewis' conceptual framework of social work skill provides a method for structuring the "generalizing principles" referred to by Coleman.⁶² According to Lewis' definition, social work skill (derived from process) consists

of four dimensions: knowledge, action, values and style. When broken down into levels, these four dimensions constitute a framework for differentiating degrees of skill in practice. On the preprofessional or technician level, the practitioner

is expected to operate from fairly well established rules, following directives and commands, adhering to agency style and utilizing tested techniques and tools of practice.⁶³

At this level of practice, prescribed actions limit the practitioner's use of personal discretion. Lewis' suggestion that rules derived from theories and propositions, constitute the knowledge base of the technician's level of practice, has been particularly important in structuring the content of the high school training curriculum.

What then is the cognitive level, related to this level of practice, which structures the design of the curriculum? Robert Gagné states that

in whatever domain of subject matter they occur, intellectual skills can be categorized on a dimension of complexity. By this is meant the intricacy of the mental process that may be inferred to account for the human performance.⁶⁴

The preprofessional or technical level of task performance according to Lewis' framework relates

to Gagné's seventh type of skill, rules, which is a prerequisite for the high order skill, problem-solving. Gagné further identifies that rules are learned through verbal communications for the purpose of cuing

the arrangements of concepts in a correct order by the learner. It does not have the purpose of teaching the learner a formal proposition which represents the rule.⁶⁵

For evaluative purposes, the student demonstrates the learning of the rule by showing one or more instances of the relation of component concepts to one another. For instance, in this project the student is given a rule incorporating a concept of her understanding of team structure. The rule states that the team leader should be responsible for all planning and for the ultimate safety of all clients under care. She then follows instructions of team leader without prompting, contributes information to the team, carries out all guidelines and supervisor's directives and acts upon suggestions. The student is considered to have learned this rule with demonstrated application over time.

In summary, the field seminar is envisioned as an integral part of the experiential learning

process. The function of the seminar is to help students form connections between their actions in the experiential setting and the consequences of these actions. Student actions as tasks form the basic unit of human service skills, functional, specific and adaptive. The instructional design provides an organization of this content into rules, derived from principles, which correspond to the knowledge level and the cognitive ability prescribed for the preprofessional level of practice. The introduction of a field seminar with a curriculum structured by the skill level and to the student's task adds an instructional component to the student's total learning experience. The above discussion addresses the issue of the didactic content and the structure of that content as one of the components in a model of learning which incorporates both instructional and experiential modes of learning.

FOOTNOTES

¹Erik H. Erikson, Identity, Youth and Crisis (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1968), p. 163.

²Erik H. Erikson, ed., Youth: Change and Challenge (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1963), p. 8.

³Erikson, Identity, Youth and Crisis, p. 156.

⁴Ibid., p. 248.

⁵Ibid., p. 235.

⁶Ibid., p. 132.

⁷Ibid., p. 185.

⁸Ibid., p. 246.

⁹Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children, The Mental Health of Children: Services, Research, Manpower (New York: Harper & Row, 1973), p. 253.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 253.

¹¹Robert J. Havighurst, Developmental Tasks and Education, 3rd ed. (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1972). On page 62, Havighurst discusses the task of preparing for an economic career. He suggests that the goal of this task is to organize plans and energies to begin an orderly career.

¹²Ibid., p. 44.

¹³Ibid., p. 64.

¹⁴Donald E. Super, The Psychology of Careers (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 191.

¹⁵See footnote 6.

¹⁶Donald Super, Vocational Development, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), p. 40.

¹⁷The Career Pattern Study series has been published and reported in several sources. Of note is the publication noted in footnote 16 and Super and Overstreet, The Vocational Maturity of Ninth-Grade Boys (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1960).

¹⁸Donald E. Super, The Psychology of Careers, p. 186.

¹⁹Donald Super, "Vocational Development in Adolescence and Early Adulthood: Tasks and Behaviors," in Career Development: Self-concept Theory, eds. D. Super, et al. (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963), p. 82.

²⁰Jean Pierre Jordaan and Martha Bennet Heyde, Vocational Maturity During the High School Years (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1979), p. 186.

²¹Ibid., p. 195.

²²See Chapter V for specific measures included in this index.

²³Jordaan and Heyde, p. 185.

²⁴Ibid., p. 131.

²⁵Donald Super, Vocational Development (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1957), p. 67.

²⁶Ibid., p. 65.

²⁷This study was reported in the publication, Warren Gribbons, Paul Lohnes, and Donald Super, ed., Emerging Careers (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1968).

²⁸Ibid., pp. 15-16.

²⁹Ibid., pp. 50-53.

³⁰Ibid., p. 69.

³¹These studies include:

Alan G. Marlatt, "Task Structure and the Experimental Modification of Verbal Behavior," Psychological Bulletin 78 (1972): 335-350.

J. Rappaport, T. Gross and C. Lepper, "Modeling, Sensitivity Training and Instruction," The Journal of Consulting Clinical Psychology 40 (1973): 99-107.

G. Stone and A. Vance, "Instructions, Modeling and Rehearsal: Implications for Training," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (May 1976): 272-280.

M. Uhlemann, G. Lea and G. Stone, "Effect of Instruction of Modeling on Trainees Low in Interpersonal Communication Skills," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (November 1976): 509-513.

³²The following authors' multimethod training approach has been incorporated into this project as a theoretical approach to a structured, systematic method for training. The content has only been adopted for use in this project's curriculum unit on helping communication.

Robert Carkhuff, Helping and Human Relations, 2 vols. (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969).

Gerald Egan, The Skilled Helper (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1975).

A. Ivey, Microcounseling, Innovations in Interviewing Training (Springfield, Illinois: Thomas Company, 1971).

³³Because modeling is not a major emphasis in the instructional design of this project, I have not emphasized this component in the discussion in this chapter. The learning concept of modeling is present in this project in the use of field staff, both professional and paraprofessional, in the human service field site. The seminar trainer and social work students involved in the project were also considered models of human service practitioners.

³⁴Robert Carkhuff, Helping and Human Relations, Vol. I (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969), p. 161.

³⁵See footnote 32.

³⁶Stone and Vance, "Instructions, Modeling and Rehearsal: Implications for Training," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (May, 1976): 278.

³⁷Alan G. Marlatt, "Task Structure and the Experimental Modification of Verbal Behavior," Psychological Bulletin 78 (1972): 337.

³⁸Ibid., p. 340.

³⁹Ibid., p. 340.

⁴⁰Arthur W. Chickering, "Developmental Change as a Major Outcome," in Experiential Learning: Rationale, Characteristics and Assessment, Morris T. Keeton and Associates, eds. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977), p. 89.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 63.

⁴²J. Loevinger and R. Wessler, Measuring Ego Development: Construction and Use of a Sentence Completion, Vol. I (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1970), p. 4.

⁴³Chickering, pp. 90-91, Table 8.

⁴⁴Nina Rosenthal, "Prescriptive Approach for Counselor Training," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 24 (May 1977): 232.

⁴⁵M. Uhlemann, G. Lea and G. Stone, "Effects of Instruction and Modeling on Trainees Low in Interpersonal Communication Skills," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (November 1976): 509.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 512.

⁴⁷Some of the authors who have cited Dewey's philosophy as a theoretical concept underlying career education are:

Sidney Marland, Career Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), pp. 60 and 138.

James O'Toole, Work Learning and the American Future (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977), p. 140.

Willard Wirtz, The Boundless Resource, (Washington, D.C.: The New Republic Book Co., 1975), pp. 45 and 55.

One paper which cited the connection between Dewey's philosophy and the New Careers program was by Robert Soong et al., "Human Service Course Delivery System," Chicago (September 1971), p. 10 (mimeographed).

⁴⁸ John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: MacMillan, 1916, Free Press, 1966), p. 145.

⁴⁹ James S. Coleman, "Differences Between Experiential and Classroom Learning," in Morris T. Keeton and Associates, Experiential Learning (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977), pp. 51-52.

⁵⁰ John Dewey, Experience and Education, 18th ed. (New York: Kappa Delta Pi, 1938, Collier Books, 1975), pp. 21-43.

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 45.

⁵² Ibid., pp. 96-97.

⁵³ Coleman, p. 58.

⁵⁴ Ibid., p. 58.

⁵⁵ Ruth R. Middleman, "The Skill Component of Professional Social Work Education: Semantics, Pragmatics and Instructional Heuristic," Phoenix, Arizona, a paper presented at the Annual Program Meeting Conference of the Council on Social Work Education, 1977, p. 6 (mimeographed).

⁵⁶ Wretha W. Wiley and Sidney A. Fine, A Systems Approach to New Careers (Kalamazoo, Michigan: Upjohn Institute, 1969), p. 1.

⁵⁷ Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis: A Scaling of Selected Tasks from the Social Welfare Field (Kalamazoo, Michigan: Upjohn Institute, 1971), pp. 9-10.

⁵⁸Sidney A. Fine, Functional Job Analysis Scales, A Desk Aid (Kalamazoo, Michigan: Upjohn Institute, 1973).

⁵⁹See Appendix C, Unit V of the curriculum.

⁶⁰S. Fine and W. Wiley, An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis, pp. 24-26, discussion of functional and specific content skills; appendix B, p. 79, discussion of adaptive skill.

⁶¹Fine, Sidney, Functional Job Analysis Scales, A Desk Aid, p. 6.

⁶²Harold Lewis, "The Structure of Professional Skill," in Social Work in Practice, eds. Bernard Ross and S. K. Khinduka (Washington, D.C.: NASW, 1976).

⁶³Lewis, p. 14.

⁶⁴Robert Gagné and Leslie J. Briggs, Principles of Instructional Design (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1974), p. 36.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 44.

CHAPTER V

THE STUDY: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The human service training project for high school seniors was planned as an exploratory level study to assess the relationship between master of specific human service skill areas and adolescent development. Through a multimethod approach to teaching human service skills, using both didactic and modeling methods, the design aimed at delineating the gross effects of this experience on career choice and skill development. The study concentrates on the assessment of two specific areas of study which have been broken down for the purpose of analysis as follows:

A. Students' mastery of human service skill. In this section, mastery includes two aspects of performance.

(1) Students' final level of performance as observed and rated by field supervisors.

(2) Students' perception of mastery according to the curriculum and didactic framework.

B. Analysis of changes in students'

identity over the semester, assessed by changes in responses on vocational maturity variables, and compared with levels of student mastery of human service skills.

Mastery of Human Service Skill
Performance Level

Outline for Discussion

Focus

This section focuses on an analysis of the differentials in student performance after a ten-week field experience and training seminar. The following discussion describes differences in the total group's performance in particular skill areas. The total number for analysis was reduced to seventeen rather than the full nineteen students who participated in the program. Two students were removed from this analysis because of a change in raters from the mid-point to final evaluations.

Instrument

In this study, the performance standard evaluation instrument, which was used by field supervisors to rate student performance, measured levels of student performance¹. This section includes a discussion of the construction and

use of the instrument.

Unit of Analysis

The skills discussed were operationally defined by twenty-five learning objectives which represented components of specific rules of practice.² Each rule, in turn, was related to one of the six curriculum skill units. Learning objectives consisted of performance standards which were grouped into patterns judged to be relevant to the specific practice objective and to define performance for that objective. The forty-four standards translate the rules of practice and learning objectives of the human service curriculum into generalized, observable practice behaviors. For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that the mean score of the standards grouped under each objective measured a student's level of performance for that objective within the practice setting.

Performance Standard Instrument

A performance standard instrument with forty-four standards was constructed as a tool to measure an individual's level of skill in the six defined curriculum areas.³ A mean score of

performance standards grouped under each learning objective was computed for each student both at mid-semester (fifth and sixth weeks of program) and at the end of the semester (after the tenth week). All seventeen students received two sets of mean scores on a total of twenty-five objectives.

The original performance standard form, which consisted of fifty-four items, was field tested during the third and fourth weeks of the semester in two field sites on a total of five supervisors and students. On the basis of feedback from supervisors and an evaluation of their responses on the form, items were deleted, condensed or rephrased to allow for greater generalization across settings and to decrease ambiguity. The scoring scale was lengthened from a one-to-five to a one-to-ten range in order to improve the validity of supervisors' ratings by forcing supervisors' judgements into a finer discrimination of student performance.

Validity of Form

In this study, it was assumed that performance standard ratings assessed the students' skill levels at mid- and end-of-semester. In addition, it was assumed that an analysis of the

difference between the mid-semester and final scores on the performance standard form would provide a rough estimate of the impact of the program elements, the seminar and field experiences, on the process of skill development and student learning. On the basis of a student's continued exposure to experiential learning through modeling in a supervised human service setting and exposure to the didactic human service curriculum, student performance on most items was expected to increase. The expected outcome was based on a further assumption concerning the supervisors' use of the instrument. One assumption was that the supervisors would use the instrument similarly at mid- and end-points. Another was that the full range of ratings would be employed. If the rater was consistent at both rating points and used all gradations to rate performance, an increase in the number of higher ratings per item over the semester could be defined as a tendency for students to have increased their ability on that item. The implications of the comparison of mid-semester and final scores very much relied upon the consistency and validity of the supervisors' judgements for each of the seventeen students on

the forty-four items on both sets of evaluations.

The results of a broad comparison of mid- and final-scoring patterns on all items demonstrated the supervisors' overall tendency, particularly at mid-semester, toward use of the highest terminal rating and "not applicable" categories even after the revision of the scaling range. Contrary to the expected rating pattern, supervisors started to use a wider distribution of numerical evaluations to describe their observations of student performance only at the end of the semester.

The general tendency toward a fuller use of the scale and a decline in the use of "not applicable" category for a majority of the students at the end of the semester suggests constant error in the scoring patterns. Although the median percentage of highest terminal and "not applicable" ratings declined or remained the same for a total of twelve students over the semester, the total raw score decreased for only six students.⁴ This general increase in total raw score was consistent with the general decrease in supervisors' use of the "not applicable" category on the final evaluation.⁵ Errors of leniency on the part of the raters and the lack of normative standards of

behavior as points of reference for both performance items and general expectations for student performance may have accounted for the major sources of error. Similar problems with validity of field supervisors' observation in the New Careers Program⁶ were noted in the evaluations of trainees' performances in job related skills. Results indicated that their ratings were influenced in part by "the lack of objective techniques for evaluating these [specific] skills."⁷ The possibly improved validity of supervisors' ratings at the end of the semester may be attributed to supervisors' greater familiarity with the form through use at mid-semester, mid-semester conferences and informal contacts throughout the semester with the program coordinator, and by increased opportunity to observe students in a wider variety of tasks. The initial ambiguity in the use of performance standard forms may have also related to the fact that changes had been implemented in the program's goals and in the role requirements for supervisors without sufficient training or communication about the major revisions of the program.⁸ Because of problems of validity in the use of the instrument at mid-semester, it was not possible to measure

the process of students' skill development over the semester. Therefore, in this study, students' level of performance represents a level of skill at the end of ten weeks in the program.

Questions concerning the validity of supervisors' judgements lead to a closer examination of the differences among supervisors in their scoring patterns. Assumptions of a supervisor's greater validity of judgement were based on an examination of each supervisor's tendency to use a wider range of scoring categories to assess student performance. Although the majority of supervisors demonstrated a tendency toward decreased use of the "ten" and "not applicable" categories in scoring at the end of the semester, five of the twelve supervisors showed a markedly lower rate of use of these categories both at mid- and end-of-semester for a total of eight students. On the basis of this tendency alone, it can be argued that these supervisors demonstrated less uncertainty about expectations for student performance over time and more ability to make objective, discriminating and consistent judgements of performance on both sets of evaluations. Although these five supervisors' more consistent

use of the range in the instrument scale potentially yielded the best basis for studying changes in the students' performances over the course of the semester, an analysis of change was not possible based on errors (referred to in above discussion) of supervisors' use of the evaluation instrument to rate performance at mid-semester. The eight students rated by these five supervisors were chosen for more thorough analysis on the basis of the assumed greater validity and consistency of final performance ratings. All students evaluated by a supervisor whose ratings for at least one student were consistent were included in the subsample. For this reason, the group of eight students included two students with percentages of "ten" ratings higher than the median at both the mid-point and at the end of the semester and one student with a higher percentage of "ten" ratings at mid-semester only. The range of performances in the subsample includes students with both highest and lowest ratings at both evaluation points.⁹ Therefore, these eight students constitute a subsample representing the larger group in these analyses. The operating assumption was that the subsample is only different by virtue of the

supervisor's rating practice and not in any other systematic way. The possibility was recognized that by using the above standard of consistency in supervisors' ratings, this subsample of eight students could have been partially biased toward a lower performing group. To the extent that this was true, the conclusions would be somewhat askew. However, since the subsample represents forty-seven percent of the total group studied, the conclusions based on this subsample represent a substantial portion of the total in this study.

On the basis of consistency, the inclusion of students with percentages of "ten" and "NA" ratings consistently above the median would certainly point toward a different analysis. For five of the remaining nine students, supervisors used the highest terminal and "NA" rating to assess performance both at the mid-point and at the end of the semester, above the median percentage for the total group. In four of the five student evaluations, the total raw score either declined or remained within a seven point range from mid-to end-of-semester. For these students who were operating at presumably high levels early in the program and whose total score did not substantially

improve, further considerations about intervention in the form of this program may be inadvisable.

Levels of Performance

One of the components of human service skill mastery in this study concerned the overall assessment of high school students' performance in the six human service units of the curriculum. Because of the exploratory nature of this study, the data mainly pointed to general patterns in students' abilities to perform certain skills. For the purpose of analysis, the twenty-five learning objectives have been divided into three broad skill types along the guidelines of Sidney Fine's framework of skill definition.¹⁰

Adaptive Skill (Performance Standards 1-14, 16-19, 35-42)

In this study, adaptive skill refers to behaviors which characterize a student's presentation of self in terms of the agency, team, her role and function. Adaptive skill was operationally defined by all standards, related under the following headings of the performance standard from: Attendance, Punctuality, Reliability, Interpersonal Relations, Interest in the Job,

Ability to Follow Instructions and Initiative.

Standard #15, Uses Appropriate Language, was the only standard listed under the heading "Interpersonal Relations," not included in the adaptive skill category. Learning objectives comprised totally of adaptive standards were concentrated almost exclusively in Unit I of the curriculum.

Functional Skill (Performance Standards 15, 20-34)

In this study, functional skill refers to behaviors which relate to a student's interactional abilities with clients as defined in the rules of practice. Functional skill was operationally defined in this study by standards primarily listed under the "Quality of Work" heading on the performance standard evaluation form. In terms of the curriculum, learning objectives which related to Unit IV and V and five of the seven objectives in Unit III were comprised exclusively of functional standards.

Mixed Skill

Seven of the twenty-five learning objectives included both functional and adaptive standards. All three learning objectives in Unit II were made up exclusively of a combination of

adaptive and functional standards.

For each student, mean scores on the twenty-five learning objectives were rank-ordered. A median was then obtained for each student's range of scores. Learning objectives for each student were categorized as falling either above or below the median.¹¹ For the purpose of this analysis, it was assumed that supervisors demonstrated equal ability in making valid judgements on both adaptive and functional skills. Given this assumption, it was the intention of this method of analysis to give a rough estimate of students' strengths and limitations.

The results indicate that students on the whole tended to perform on a higher level in the adaptive skill as compared with the functional and mixed skill areas.¹² In all of the six learning objectives which comprised the totality of adaptive skills in this curriculum, over half of the eight students' mean scores fell above the median level. In contrast, this pattern occurred in only three of the twelve learning objectives of the functional and in four of the seven learning objectives with mixed standards. All of the students demonstrated strong performances in both

of the objectives with mixed standards relating to the concept of role modeling and consultation. The three learning objectives in the functional skill area with a majority of mean scores above the mid-point related to skills in limit setting, and two of the four communication rules. In all the functional learning objectives in Unit V, consistently less than a majority of students' mean performances fell above the median level.

These results suggest that over a semester's time, students on the whole were able to learn adaptive skills which centered around their ability to relate to various members of the human service team and their general knowledge of role within the team and agency. It is understood that without the base-line measurement of consistent and valid mid-semester scores, the assessment of growth in this area was limited. Students were less able to perform in functional skill areas which focused on concepts related to direct practice with the exception of skills which involved ability to set limits, to communicate support of client's strengths and to communicate at levels within the client's understanding.

The fact that these students in general

demonstrated higher levels of performance in the adaptive area is very much related to the focus of students' general concerns throughout the semester as raised in the seminars. Although a content analysis of seminar sessions was outside the scope of this study, the content of the seminars around this issue is mentioned here to illustrate the process of learning as indicated by the study results. Although curriculum units and rules of practice represented in numbers of seminar sessions placed greater emphasis on the functional skill area, in general, both groups throughout the semester continued to bring into seminar discussion examples of practice which highlighted feelings of ambiguity and discomfort around their function and role as authorities. It is interesting to note that one of the few functional skill areas in which these students in general demonstrated a stronger level of performance pertained to the understanding and ability in setting limits. This specific area, when discussed in the seminar, concerned students' adaptation to their new roles.

The students' high level of performance in the adaptive skill area raised certain questions about the range of skill areas which these high

high school seniors were able to learn and apply in a ten-week training period. For an introductory training and practicum in the human services, the curriculum content covered a range of skills which may have been too broad to meet the actual focus of these students as they entered a human service setting.

Another area of question concerning the students' general tendency to lower level performance in the functional skill area relates to the actual teaching method incorporated into the curriculum. Practice principles were presented as rules of practice and practice procedures to relate to a technician's conceptual level of practice.¹³ It was assumed that the organization of curriculum content in practice rules would increase students' abilities to apply content to practice experience. The results indicate that in general, students' interactions with clients at the end of the semester's training was basically on an intuitive level. An analysis of rank ordering of learning objectives demonstrates that on all learning objectives in Unit V with focus on group concepts and on two of the learning objectives in Unit III which focus on a student's ability to apply

assessment in practice, more than six of the eight students' mean scores fell below the mid-point level.¹⁴ In addition, the same pattern obtained for two learning objectives which required students' understanding of normative behavior and their application of this knowledge to assessment.¹⁵ The fact that in the majority of functional skills students tended to demonstrate a lower performance level may indicate that for these students the rule method of teaching functional skills did not essentially affect practice.

In summary, the general trend for these eight students toward a higher performance level in adaptive skills at the end of ten weeks of training in human service skills suggests further examination of the effect of four variables--time, content, teaching method, and sample--in terms of their motivation and capacity to learn. Concerning the two related variables of time span and content, the results indicate the possibility that within the limit of one semester, content should more appropriately focus on adaptation to agency and to role. For these eight students, content which centered primarily on adaptive skills would have met the pace of the general

process of student learning. In addition, concerning the variable of teaching method, even when practice was presented in terms of rules rather than principles or propositions, at least seven of the eight students' performances in the functional area lagged behind the adaptive skill performance. These results indicate that the performance of the eight students did not essentially reflect the application of the curriculum's conceptual framework to practice in the functional skill area. Students' motivation and capacity to learn, read material, concentrate, listen to and integrate rules into practice may have been an additional factor.

Mastery of Human Service Skill/Student's
Application of the Curriculum

Outline for Discussion

Focus

This aspect of the study focused on the gross effects of the didactic teaching and deductive learning component in this multimethod training program. It was assumed that students' abilities to conceptualize performance in terms of curriculum rules and units would indicate the

effect of this method on practice. In this section on mastery, students' definition of their own skill is examined to assess their use of the curriculum rules and units to structure their conceptualization of their performance. Discussion in this section involves an assessment of the relationship between student's evaluation of performance and their use of the curriculum as well as an assessment of the relationship between students' final level of performance and use of the curriculum.

Instrument

Data for this aspect of the study was drawn from the students' responses on the second set of individual interviews at the end of the semester. The interviews were semi-structured in form and conducted by the program coordinator.

Units of Analysis

Student's responses to three interview questions were analyzed for specific references to use of rules and practice, performance standards and readings. Students' responses were examined to ascertain whether they referred to aspects of the didactic program in their evaluation of practice and whether this application related to their

attitudes about their performance. The following questions were used to gather data about students' use of the curriculum and their attitudes.

1. What did you think were your strong points in the program this semester?
Were these strong points recognized?
How were they recognized?
2. What did you think were the expectations of this program for doing a good job?
Did you meet these expectations?
3. Did you learn anything this semester in this program which would help you in a similar program?

In this section, references to students' actual level of performance as rated by field supervisors are defined by students' rank order in each learning objective according to the mean score of the final performance standards.¹⁶

Application of the Curriculum to Evaluate Performance

In this study, mastery of human service skill has been defined in terms of (a) final level of performance as evaluated by field supervisors and (b) student's reference to a conceptual skills framework to describe performance.

In this study, a definition of mastery included the concept of a skilled performance as a conscious awareness of practice rules in performance. A student's reference to aspects of the curriculum framework to provide structure for his responses in a semi-structured format was interpreted as an indication of student's conscious application of curriculum to practice.

The following is a summary of results:

- (a) none of the eight students referred to aspects of the didactic curriculum to structure responses to questions on strong points or actual learning;
- (b) on the questions concerning program expectation, two of the eight students referred to specific performance standards (students #12, #4); one of the eight students referred to use of the rules (student #16); and one of the eight students referred to use of rules and performance standards in her practice (student #13);
- (c) four of the students did not use aspects of the curriculum in reference to performance (students #3, #15, #10, #14);
- (d) of the four students who referred specifically to the curriculum to describe program expectations, two of these students' responses suggest a dissatisfaction with their own performance (#13,

#16). Although these two students perceived their performance as meeting expectations, in some aspects, they both mentioned that they "could have done better." The remaining two students perceived their performance as meeting program expectations without the same recognition from their supervisors (#4, #12); (e) of the four remaining students, three stated that they met expectations as they perceived them in the program (#2, #15, #10). One of the students was uncertain about agency personnel's perception of her performance as meeting expectations (#14).

These results indicate that only half of the eight students used the rules or performance standards to conceptualize performance expectations and then, for description of only one of the three possible areas. Although students on the whole were able to characterize learning and strengths along general guidelines of certain procedures in the curriculum, as a group, students did not identify learning or strengths in practice according to the structured guidelines in the curriculum. In this respect alone, results appear to indicate that at the end of the semester, students tended not to use rules of practice to conceptualize

performance. As an illustration of the general level of integration of curriculum into practice, student #3, in describing her strong points stated,

Doing what I did. Just like a lot of people tell me that what I'm doing now I do good, but I don't know what I'm doing good. I know I'm doing what I'm suppose to. I just go for working with the kids.

Since only half of this group of students demonstrated some evidence of having used the curriculum framework to evaluate mastery and learning, did students' responses indicate perceptions of mastery according to other criteria? All of the eight students' responses to the three interview questions indicate that students tended to perceive and evaluate their own performance according to adaptive skill criteria. In general, students' comments suggest that they evaluated their adaptation to the helping role, their ability to work within a team structure, and their assumption of role behaviors based on procedures congruent with agency purpose. Five of the eight students (#10, #4, #12, #15, #16) indicated awareness of some difficulties in the process of learning those skills specifically related to concepts incorporated in Unit I, learning objective 1 through 3a. Of

these five, by the end of the semester two students (#10, #15) experienced a level of mastery satisfactory to the student. The student-selected criteria for evaluation appear to be congruent with the final results of student performance as evaluated by field supervisors which indicated that students were more proficient in adaptive rather than functional skills.

The results indicate that students who evaluated performance in terms of the overall expectations laid out in the curriculum framework appeared less satisfied with their level of performance at the final interview than those who evaluated performance along idiosyncratically selected guidelines. In the previous sections, results suggest that the seminar content covering a broad range of both adaptive and functional skills was too inclusive for a ten-week time span. Those students who identified expectations according to the conceptual framework possibly perceived their performance as just meeting expectations because performance expectations in the curriculum which covered both functional and adaptive skill areas did not appear to meet the pace of students' general skill level and practice.

Finally, students' performance levels as defined by rank order on each of the twenty-five learning objectives was compared with students' use of the curriculum framework to evaluate performance.¹⁷ Both student #3 and #15, whose level of mean performance on all but two learning objectives fell above the median level for the total of eight students, did not appear to use guidelines of curriculum components to structure performance. Both of these students' responses suggested that they perceived their performance as meeting program and supervisor's expectations and that their strengths in performance were recognized by their supervisors. The results of this comparison indicated that these students' high level performance was not necessarily influenced by students' identification of skills or perception of performance in terms of the curriculum framework.

In summary, the results of an analysis of responses to three questions concerning students' perceptions of performance suggest the following: (a) The fact that one-half of the student population evaluated only one out of three aspects of performance in terms of the didactic

framework may indicate that within a ten-week span, the experiential, modeling teaching method and inductive learning components were more powerful teaching and learning methods for these students' human service skill development.

(b) In addition to the fact that four of the eight students demonstrated awareness of performance mastery as evaluated by the program's criteria, students' responses may indicate that the majority of students evaluated their own performance based on mastery of adaptive skills. Responses indicate that students tended to evaluate and perceive performance according to general concepts included in Unit I of the curriculum, focusing on agency goals, team relationships and adaptation to the helping role.¹⁸

(c) The responses of those students who characterized program expectations along aspects of the curriculum framework compared with the remaining students indicate that students who applied the framework to structure experience felt more dissatisfaction with their own performance or with the evaluation of their performance from their supervisors. This response pattern suggests that the curriculum guidelines when applied to

expectations, do not necessarily enhance a student's perception of her own mastery in performance.

(d) No relationship was apparent between level of performance as evaluated by the field instructor and a student's use of curriculum to conceptualize performance.

Vocational Maturity and Levels of Mastery

Outline for Discussion

Focus

This section focuses on the relationship between a student's vocational development over the semester and mastery of human service skills. The first part of this section includes a brief description of vocational maturity variables as used in this study. Vocational maturity has been operationally defined as a student's standing on five vocational maturity variables. These variables identify changes in focus, specification and commitment to vocational choice, particularly in the human service area. The second part concentrates on the relationship between changes in the students' vocational maturity over the semester and their final level of performance. The final discussion focuses on the students' vocational

maturity and their perception of mastery of the didactic human service curriculum.

Instrument

(1) Data for the study of students' vocational maturity was drawn from students' responses on two sets of individual interviews, one prior to entering the program and one other at the end of the semester. Although all of the students' responses throughout the interview yielded information specific to vocational development, both interview schedules included questions directed specifically at students' present and future career goals as follows:

How do you see yourself in five years time?

What job do you think you will be involved in?

If you had to choose at this moment a career for yourself, which one would you choose? How would you plan to arrive at this goal?

(2) Supervisors' ratings on the performance standard form measured the level of student performance as in section A, part 3 of this chapter.

(3) Responses on post interview questions concerning strengths, learning and expectations were analyzed to assess students' perceptions of mastery in terms of the curriculum guidelines as in section B, part 2.

Unit of Analysis

(1) Responses on both sets of interviews were analyzed and scored according to the variables in the scoring manual of the Career Pattern Study series, twelfth grade population.¹⁹ For the more limited focus and purpose of this study, students' responses were scored on five of the nine variables included in the Crystallization of Interests index of vocational maturity.²⁰ In this section, individual students are discussed in relation to changes over the semester on the five crystallization variables.

(2) Students' levels of performance are analyzed in terms of their rank order in comparison to the total of eight students on all twenty-five learning objectives.

Vocational Maturity Variables

The following variables were defined as relevant to the Crystallization of Interests

index by Jordaan and Heyde in the Career Pattern Study.²¹ Concerning this index, Super's definition of vocational maturity suggests that the continuum of development during adolescence is partially characterized by an individual's capacity to narrow focus and interests into more consistent and differentiated occupational choices.²² In particular, this project, with focus of curriculum and experience on human service occupations, was primarily interested in the effects of the experience on students' choices as they related to human service occupational areas.

Number of Vocational Possibilities Under Consideration

All occupational choices mentioned by a student were included under this component.

Consistency of Vocational Preferences by Field

As differentiated from the above variable, only students' preferred occupations were considered in this component. Each preference was classified according to the Roe field taxonomy.²³ Consistency was defined as a focus on one occupational field. Of particular interest in this study is students' field of choice in the human services. For the purpose of this study, fields which included both

social services and educational services were classified as one.

Consistency of Vocational Preferences by Levels

Students' occupational preferences included in students' responses to both career questions on the two sets of interviews were also classified according to Roe's ordinal scale of occupational levels.²⁴ Consistency was defined as focus on one occupational level. As in the above variable, students' preferred level of choice as distinct from consistency will be analyzed as a sub-component of this variable.

Specificity of Preferences

The scale for this variable, adapted from the scoring manual in the Jordaan and Heyde study,²⁵ assessed the degree of a student's clarity concerning her vocational preference. A student's ability to define clearly the level and field of choice were included in this scale.

Commitment to Preferences

A student's commitment to a vocational choice was assessed by grouping responses on both sets of interviews according to the Career Pattern

Study scale.²⁶ Four types of responses were included in this component: (1) absence of doubts; (2) indications that a choice was taken seriously; (3) statements showing a determination to adhere to the choice despite obstacles and contingencies; and (4) indications that ways of dealing with possible obstacles and contingencies were being considered.

Vocational Maturity and Level Performance

A general pattern was noted in the relationship between the students with the highest levels of performance and changes on the five vocational maturity variables. The performance levels of students #3 and #15 were rank ordered on twenty-three of the twenty-five learning objectives above the median level in a comparison with the total of eight students.²⁷ As a basis of reference, on the twenty-five objectives students #4 and #13 whose performances were second best were rank ordered above the median level on fifteen of twenty-five objectives and on fourteen of twenty-four objectives respectively. The responses of students #3 and #15 over the semester demonstrated that both students tended to narrow their overall

pool of considerations, increased their consistency to one field and level of occupational preference, and increased, at least to a minimal degree, their level of specification. Both students' preferences had changed over the semester from predominantly medical areas of choice to exclusively human service occupations.²⁸ In addition, both students with high level performance evaluations had raised their preference of occupational level from either semi-professional or skilled support to professional level occupations. For these two students, the general pattern of changes in choice, increases in commitment to careers in the human service areas, consideration of higher occupational levels, and increased ability to specify occupational preferences appeared to be related to high level performance in human service training. No perceptible vocational maturity pattern in relation to rank ordered levels of final performance was exhibited for the remaining six students. For instance, the second place students tended to respond similarly on only two of the five vocational maturity variables. Both last place students, #12 and #14, responded similarly on only one of the five variables.

Vocational Maturity and Perception of Mastery

As noted in the mastery and the student's application of the curriculum, students #3, #10 and #15, out of the total of eight students, not only rated their performance as meeting expectations without reference to curriculum components, but also perceived that their supervisors judged their performance as meeting these same expectations. In terms of rank-ordered final level of performance, student #10 ranked in fourth place (ratings fell above the mid-point level in eleven learning objectives). Although her pattern on the five vocational maturity variables tends to demonstrate an expanding rather than narrowing occupational consistency over the semester with preferences in the medical area at the zero level of commitment, of the remaining six participants this student was the only one to change original preference focus to include human service occupations. In addition, although not consistent in terms of the vocational maturity variable of this study, student #10, along with #3 and #15, was the only student of the remaining population to consider higher levels of occupational choice. These results seem to indicate that the student's

perception of performance in comparison to the actual level of performance as rated by outside observers also may have some effect on vocational maturity in terms of field and level of choice. The actual fields and level of preference rather than the consistency is of particular importance in this pattern.

Student #10's pattern on the consistency of fields variable has raised questions about the general effect of this program on the student's consistency of preference. Concerning this variable, it is important to note that this study's sample represented students who selected a specialized high school curriculum in the vocational area of health careers as early as their second year in high school. The fact that these students had focused their vocational choices in a specific field early in their high school program and had experienced failure in that area (one of the eight students as late as the previous semester) was a prime factor in the selection of these students for the study. As had been anticipated, because of this pre-selection, seven out of the eight students' initial preferences included an occupational choice in the biological and medical areas. Three

of the eight students prior to entering the program had narrowed preferences to a consistency of one field (two of these in the medical area). After exposure to the program, five of the eight students retained at least one preference in the medical area, four in the human service area.

These results raise certain questions concerning the process of vocational maturity on this variable for these students with early, intense exposure to one vocational area. Vocational maturity as defined in this program according to the operational definition of the Career Pattern Study's variables, suggests that in normal, longitudinal growth, increased vocational maturity involves the definition of preferences in one occupational area. However, for these eight students who experienced a continued specific vocational curriculum, introduced early in the high school program, this exposure to one field may have had a retarding effect on the student's development on this variable. To this end, Super has noted spurious consistency as a sign of vocational immaturity.²⁹ In addition, the effect of differential exposure of students to specific occupational curriculum was a variable which was not

considered in the Career Pattern Study. The results of this project and perceived mastery in occupational areas different from the original focus may have an expanding rather than a narrowing effect on students' developing consistency of fields.

None of the four students (#4, #12, #13, #16) who referred to curriculum components in identifying program expectations and in turn who perceived their performance as either not meeting or not being judged as meeting expectations, either added or changed to human service occupations in their final field of choice. In addition, all four students either retained or lowered final levels of occupational choice. Two of these students, #4 and #13, ranked higher than student #10 on final performance of the twenty-five performance learning objectives. Although student #13 maintained as one her initial preferences a choice of career in human service occupations, by the end of the semester, she had lowered her highest level of occupational preference.

These results seem to indicate that for these eight students, a student's perception of performance as compared with the actual level of performance may have an effect on a student's choice

of occupational field and level. All three students with perceptions of mastery indicated preferences in human service occupations at the professional level.

Summary

The goal of the high school human service training program was to further adolescents in the developmental task of identity formation. Through exposure to human service training, this program intended to increase students' mastery of certain human service skills. The project was interested in exploring the effects of mastery in the area of human services on students' identity.

(1) In terms of this study, growth in identity was measured by changes in a student's crystallization of occupational interests according to five vocational maturity variables. The results of this study indicate that the two students with highest performance on twenty-five learning objectives as rated by field supervisors demonstrated changes on all five variables. Both students exhibited movement toward greater specificity, commitment and consistency in occupational choice. In addition, by the end of the semester, both high performing students had concentrated choices

within the human service occupations and had raised aspirations over the semester to higher occupational levels. For these two students, it appears that high level performance furthered growth in vocational development.

(2) Students' perceptions of performance as meeting program expectations and as meeting approval of supervisor, defined as another component of mastery in this study, may have contributed to raising students' levels of aspirations and focusing choices in the human service occupations. Results indicate that the three students who demonstrated positive perceptions of performance (two highest level performers and one with average level) were the only students to have changed to higher levels of occupational aspiration over the semester and to either have narrowed or increased options to include human service occupations. These results may indicate that for this group, not only actual performance, but also perceived mastery of performance may have been a factor in career choice.

(3) (a) Students' ability to conceptualize performance in terms of specific skill did not appear to be an important element in the

relationship between a student's mastery and vocational maturity. The fact that the two highest performing students were unable to identify specific skill in their performance did not appear to influence growth on the crystallization variables of their developing interest in human service occupations.

(b) In fact, in this study, identification of skill as defined by this framework of twenty-five learning objectives and rules of practice may have promoted or at least contributed to a student's perception of failure or lowered mastery in human service skills. Students in this category did not expand or narrow interests to include human service occupations and tended to either lower or retain lower level occupational aspirations.

One of the purposes of the human service training curriculum was to provide structure for the development of students' abilities to perform human service skills at a technician's level in the field component of this training program, by providing a structured conceptual framework for practice. Because of the exploratory level of the design in this study, it was not possible to

study the specific effect of the curriculum on performance. However, the results indicate the students' general trend of performance after exposure to a ten-week program.

(4) (a) Patterns of performance suggest that the eight students tended to perform on a higher level in adaptive skill areas. By the end of ten weeks, students had demonstrated understanding of their own role and function in the agency, in relation to team and clients.

(b) Students demonstrated less ability to perform in functional skill areas. By the end of ten weeks' training, most students' interactions with clients were still on an intuitive level.

(5) The above results raise questions about the curriculum's effectiveness for student learning.

(a) Time: The limited time span of ten weeks may have been a factor in students' inability to learn the skills encompassed in this curriculum. Withn a ten-week time span, the main focus of learning was probably concentrated in adapting to a new environment and new role with different performance and relationship expectations.

(b) Content: The fact that in general, the main achievement of these eight students was in the

adaptive content area raises possible questions about maturity level and functional skill. The adaptive area may have related more to age-specific developmental tasks of identity formation in terms of student's adjustment to different relationships with authority and to their new roles as authorities. Results also indicate that functional practice was not necessarily enhanced by presentation of content organized at students' practice level.

(c) Method: Given the above possibilities, results may also indicate that the majority of students did not structure practice in terms of conceptual framework. A student's functional practice was not apparently affected by the didactic, deductive teaching method. Other aspects of program, essentially modeling, may have provided a greater focus for skill development during the ten-week training. In fact, students' time exposure to models who were not trained or sensitized formally to program framework incorporated proportionally eighty percent of the program time.

(d) Sample: Motivation and capacity to learn skills may constitute an important factor in this particular sample. Although the didactic seminar used a variety of methods of instruction,

i.e., discussion, role-play, leader's comments, written hand-outs and log assignments, content and competencies were primarily drawn from an analysis of job tasks. In an experiential learning framework, it is assumed that the action provided by the experience stimulates students' motivations to learn. Capacity and motivation of this sample to learn adaptational more than functional skills may have related to the needs of the students within this ten-week period.

The fact that high level performance and perceptions of mastery in this group did not directly relate to a student's ability to integrate seminar material into practice raises questions concerning the actual function and purpose of a didactic, integrating seminar in this level of training for promoting human service skill mastery and about the function of deductive teaching methods in a multimethod program.

(6) Finally, the problems experienced in this study around the validity of supervisors' ratings raises certain questions about the design of the study, the need for standardization in the use of performance standard instrument and for the training of raters in the use of the scale. The

evaluation of performance in this project was essentially designed as a before-after study. The design did not account for supervisors' lack of familiarity with the instrument, with student tasks and with student performance in assignments. The supervisors' ratings may have been more valid after a longer period of adjustment and within shorter intervals in the second half of the program. Furthermore, a period of training for supervisors on the program goals, expectations for performance and the use of the evaluation instrument may have added a necessary frame of reference for their evaluation.

FOOTNOTES

¹See Appendix B, the Performance Standard Form.

²See Appendix A for a full presentation of Objectives and Rules of Practice.

³See Appendix B for a full presentation of the Performance Standard Instrument.

⁴The median percentage of highest terminal or "not applicable" ratings refers to the following method of analysis. For each student at both mid- and end-of-semester a percentage of ten and "not applicable" ratings of the total ratings on the forty-four performance standards was computed. A median percentage of ten and "not applicable" ratings was computed for the seventeen students. The median points were sixty-eight percent and fifty-seven percent on mid- and final-evaluations, respectively. These percentages reflect that at the median, sixty-eight percent of all ratings on the performance standard instrument at mid-semester were either ten or "not applicable."

⁵See Appendix D, Table III, for summary data.

⁶Institute for Youth Studies, New Careers for the Disadvantaged in Human Service, MDTA Experimental and Demonstration Findings, No. 9 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, 1970). See Chapter III for a fuller discussion of the program.

⁷Ibid., p. 48.

⁸See Chapter I for a fuller discussion of changes in the program.

⁹The following information on performance standard ratings represents a breakdown of differences between the mid- and final-evaluations for the sub-sample of eight students and the remaining population of nine students.

	<u>Sub</u>	<u>Remaining</u>
Increases in total raw score	6 (75%)	5 (55%)
Decreases or No change in percentage of "10" ratings	6 (75%)	6 (66%)
Decreases in "NA" rating	7 (88%)	6 (66%)

See Appendix D, Table III for summary data.

¹⁰In the two mixed standards in which more than half of the eight students' mean scores fell above the mid-point, fifty percent or more of the standards included were identified in the adaptive skill category.

¹¹The results of this analysis on student #13's mean scores will serve as a more explicit example of this process.

<u>Rank Order</u>	<u>Learning Objective</u>	<u>Final Mean</u>	<u>Skill</u>
1	Unit I, 6	10	Adaptive
2	Unit I, 4/5	9.50	Mixed
3	Unit I, 3b	9.20	Adaptive
4	Unit I, 1	9.20	Adaptive
5	Unit II, 1	9.00	Mixed
6	Unit II, 3	9.00	Mixed
7	Unit III, 3a	9.00	Functional
8	Unit III, 4a	9.00	Adaptive
9	Unit III, 4b	9.00	Functional
10	Unit I, 3a	8.77	Adaptive
11	Unit I, 2	8.75	Adaptive
12	Unit VI, 2	8.67	Mixed
13	Unit IV, 3	8.60	Functional-Median

¹²See Appendix D, Table IV for summary data on skill.

¹³See Appendix C for a full presentation of the curriculum.

¹⁴See Appendix D, Table IV.

¹⁵For these objectives, low ratings were attributed to the inclusion of standard #38 which assessed students' interest in additional readings and resources. All students were rated with the lowest terminal rating on this item.

¹⁶See Appendix D, Table V.

¹⁷See Appendix, D, Table V.

¹⁸See Appendix C.

¹⁹Jean Pierre Jordaan and Martha Bennett Heyde, Vocational Maturity During the High School Years (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1979), pp. 203-215, Appendix C.

²⁰Ibid., pp. 21-26.

²¹Ibid.

²²D. Super, "Vocational Development in Adolescence and Early Adulthood: Tasks and Behaviors," in Career Development: Self-Concept Theory, eds. D. Super, et al. (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963), p. 82.

²³See pages 66-67, W. Gribbons and P. Lohnes, Emerging Careers, Donald Super, ed. (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1968), for modification of Roe Groups and Levels used in this study. These modified listings were based on A. Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: Wiley, 1956).

²⁴See footnote 19.

²⁵Jordaan and Heyde, p. 204.

²⁶Ibid., p. 207.

²⁷See Appendix D, Table V.

²⁸Only two other students, #10 and #13, included human service occupations as preferences in their final responses. Student #13 had included

considerations of human service field in the first set of responses prior to entering the program.

²⁹See Chapter III, footnote 21.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results of this exploratory level study have raised certain questions and implications for further study concerning the relationship between mastery of human service skills and the process of vocational development. It is recognized that the following conclusions about this relationship are based on broad impressions and assumptions formed from the data. It was the intention of this study to stimulate future study and to illustrate the possible importance of particular variables in future program planning with similar goals. This study was essentially descriptive in nature. Results which indicate that students exposed to a multimethod human service training program tended to perform on a high level in adaptive rather than functional skill areas and tended to perceived performance along general criteria for adaptive skill raise questions about the process of skill development in human service education for high school students. In addition, the fact that

students who were aware of performance expectations indicated less satisfaction with performance level may also bear some relationship to this process.

Level of Mastery and the Process of
Human Service Skill Development

Although students in this study were engaged in training to perform on a technician level of skill, it is assumed that learning theory which relates to professional social work education with emphasis on the process of integrating curriculum content into practice may relate to this level of practice as well.

Bertha Reynolds' concept of the learning process in social work involves the development of new automatic responses to replace older patterns which are inadequate to meet new situations.¹ In her formulation, "conscious attention" plays a key role in helping students adapt new automatic responses to meet the onslaught of the unfamiliar. In her conceptualization of the learning process, Reynolds distinguished five stages of conscious awareness of self in achieving mastery of the practice experience. The first three stages appear to have some significance to the results in this study and are briefly

described as follows:

Stage I, Acute consciousness of self--The introduction of the student to a new practice situation may have a temporary immobilizing effect on student performance. In this stage, when students' automatic responses are dysfunctional to the situation, students may react in ways which have been characteristic of their past behavior in periods of stress and insecurity. Conscious awareness at this stage helps students mobilize energies to respond.

Stage II, Sink or swim adaptation--At this stage, while the student is still preoccupied with the self, he is able to focus partially on surroundings and on occasional cues (reinforced by immediate approval from significant others) for performance expectation. At the resolution of this stage, the student may sense a feeling of competence as automatic responses appear to take over the adaptive performance.

Stage III, Stage of understanding the situation without power to control one's own activity in it--At this stage, when a student has begun to adjust to the new situation and responses are in place, he focuses on understanding the

complexities of skill. At this point, when the student now understands what is required, he may experience difficulties in achieving the expected level of performance.²

If students in this study are perceived as engaged in the above learning process, then the students' greater mastery of adaptive rather than functional skill seems appropriate for students in the second stage of the learning process. In addition, Reynolds' suggestion that students are likely to experience a sense of mastery at this point of adaptation to the overall demands of the environment, relates to some of the students' responses in this study. In terms of this process, differences in student responses as indications of levels of learning suggest the following possibilities:

(1) Students who experienced mastery and who perceived performance in terms of general adaptive criteria and procedures may be located at the end of Stage II in the learning process. At this point, their performance may indicate that rules which informed adaptation to role and agency had been integrated into the students' automatic response patterns. The student who did

not experience mastery and who did not demonstrate awareness of rules and performance standards may be engaged in an earlier phase of Stage II. In this instance, a student's uncertainty about the quality of performance may imply the presence of conscious awareness to deal with this stage of adaptation.

(2) Students who demonstrated an awareness of rules and performance standards as a framework for mastery and who experienced less satisfaction with performance may be located in the beginning of Stage III. At this point, a student may experience a new level of comprehension and a concomitant renewed sense of insecurity about skill. Although actual performance ratings may indicate the reverse, these students may in fact be more prepared for beginning to learn functional skill than the remaining students. At any rate, both possibilities suggest that students would require exposure to training for a period longer than ten weeks to develop functional skills.

Mastery and Instructional Design

Although it is recognized that student exposure to didactic material in this program was

limited as compared with opportunities for observation of models, the main focus for learning in this study concentrated on the introduction of curriculum material and competencies structured according to age-specific and employment-specific conceptual levels. It was assumed that rules and standards outlined in the curriculum would provide a response class mediator framework for practice.³

Outcomes of research based on Carkhuff's and Ivey's multimethod approach suggest that instruction and modeling are important components of a curriculum for learning in ambiguous situations.⁴ Marlatt described an ambiguous task as one which involves a choice of more than two responses.⁵ The program described herein and the Carkhuff design differ in that results of these studies were based on responses under controlled conditions. In Carkhuff's design, the models were in actuality instructors specifically trained in the Carkhuff curriculum design. Rosenthal's, Uhlemann's and Stone's research which compared variables of the learner (conceptual level and level of communication skills) with learning environments conclude that students on

the lower levels of the conceptual and communication scales learn more effectively in a highly structured program.⁶ Although the curriculum design of the program described herein was highly structured and used a multimethod approach, the total learning environment involved a large unstructured experiential component. Results of the high school project suggest that this modeling experience in a loosely structured experiential situation may have contributed to high school students' difficulties in learning a wide range of functional skills within the time-frame of this project. As in the high school project, Stone and Vance in their study on the effects of the multimethod approach in learning human service relationship skills, recognize that the extraneous variable of time and increased exposure to material may also have affected students' performances.⁷

In his essay on experiential education, Coleman delineated three essential components in the learning process, i.e., action, derivation of principles and generalization.⁸ Questions remain, however, concerning the adaptation of these components to the process of learning human service skills. In relating these components to

the process of skill development noted in this study, action in Stage II may stimulate students to derive rules and concepts concerning role, setting, attitude and purpose. At Stage III in the human service learning process, students' levels of practice and comprehension may generate more interest in the functional area.

The above discussion suggests that student learning process may be an important variable in the construction of instructional design. For greatest comprehension, pacing as well as structure of content should correspond to the student's phase of learning. In experiential learning, Dewey suggests that problems for study evolve from student needs as assessed by the instructor.⁹ In this study, the curriculum content and design evolved from a task analysis base rather than from an assessment of students' learning needs. In the design of the curriculum, it was assumed that these two components would be congruent. However, results of the study may indicate that the introduction of rules and standards which inform functional practice may have the effect of enhancing students' mastery and comprehension only at the appropriate stage of

learning and pace. This does not completely rule out use of this project's curriculum design for human service training. The rules and procedures may be useful in educational tools in experiential learning if the instructor's introduction of rules is paced and structured according to student needs.

Mastery and Vocational Development

According to Donald Super's theory of vocational development, the process of vocational choice involves a statement of self-definition. Concerning the relationship of self-concept and vocational development, Super states that

in expressing a vocational preference a person puts into occupational terminology his ideas of the kind of person he is; that in entering an occupation, he seeks to implement a concept of himself; that in getting established in an occupation he achieves self-actualization. The occupation thus makes possible the playing of a role appropriate to the self-concept.¹⁰

During the tentative substage of the exploratory stage of vocational development, this process of self-definition in occupational terms requires a focus on the task of crystallization of interests. At this stage of vocational development, it was the assumption of this program that the exploratory process may be enhanced by developing an opportunity

for students' systematic exposure to human service occupational roles. In this project, it was assumed that these experiences during high school would increase students' abilities to make informed choices.

What should be the focus of these experiences in order to offer students opportunities to assess the congruence between self-concept and occupational roles? This program relied on a student's mastery of human service skills at the technician level of practice for the development of crystallization. In this program, mastery of skills relevant to a human service technician's performance was considered an important variable in establishing mutuality between self-definition and a preference for human service occupations.

For the purpose of discussing the differentiation of students' levels of mastery, students have been classified as either in the second or third stage in the human service learning process. Distinctions between these two groups were based on students' awareness of performance rules and standards as indicators of mastery and satisfaction with level of mastery. For purposes of discussion and illustration, all students who perceived

performance in terms of the curriculum framework and who experienced less satisfaction have been categorized in Stage III of the learning process. It is recognized, however, that because of the limited nature of the data, some of these students may in actuality be involved at an earlier point in the process depending on their awareness of expectations in either adaptational or functional skills.

(1) Stage II students--Results of this study suggest that actual mastery represented by performance standard ratings and students' perceptions of meeting program expectations may have been factors in student growth on the five crystallization variables as well as on choice and level of occupational preference. For the three students who evaluated their mastery according to general adaptive criteria rather than the framework in this study, a sense of mastery in the adaptive area may have contributed toward their self-definition in human service fields. In fact, because these students actually may have experienced less understanding and awareness of the range of skill covered in the framework, they may have gained a greater sense of temporary competence.

(2) Stage III students--Results of this study also suggest that regardless of actual performance ratings, the four students who demonstrated some awareness of the framework for evaluation of performance and who evidenced questions about mastery levels neither demonstrated consistent growth on the five crystallization variables, nor changed preferences to include human service occupations nor raised levels of occupational preferences. Their possible awareness of expectations for performance which included a larger proportion of functional skills, beyond students' apparent abilities, may have diminished these students' sense of competence and influenced a sense of incongruity between self-concept and occupational requirements. This analysis does not rule out the influence of other variables such as greater interest, motivation and satisfaction established in other occupational areas.

The above analysis has implications for the development of the design of training programs with goals which focus on developmental growth or change. For the most part, curriculum for human service training of high school students, whether emanating from community-based or educational

programs, has been defined by concepts and skills derived from task analysis. Although task analysis may have been useful for defining appropriate competencies and content for entry into agency practice, for the most part, this analysis has not defined the process of applying learning to practice. An understanding of this process may be more useful in defining content and competencies for programs which emphasize developmental rather than employment related goals. In this training program for high school students with goals of enhancing vocational maturity through mastery of skills in a time-limited period, training which focused on adaptational skills and content would more likely have met stage-specific needs of these high school age students. The fact that the process of achieving mastery of human service skills may at times expose students to greater dependency and insecurity raises questions about the positive effect of this long-term exposure on developmental change. In terms of implications for program planning, some students at the tentative sub-stage of development might benefit from a series of limited exposures to a variety of careers with focus on mastery of adaptational skills required

by that occupation rather than on more in-depth skills training.

Summary

(1) Based on Bertha Reynolds' formulation of the learning process in the practice-based education of social work, student performances as indicated by their perceptions of expectations for mastery and satisfaction with performance were classified along a learning continuum. In this study, mastery has partially been defined as a student's conscious awareness of practice rules in performance. According to Reynolds, conscious awareness may connote a particular level of learning practice skill. At the end of ten weeks of training, students who experienced satisfaction with levels of mastery along general adaptive criteria were located at the end of Stage II. After the same period of time, the four students who tended to refer to rules and standards to structure expectations and who experienced less satisfaction with levels of performance were categorized as at the beginning of Stage III. Although a clear distinction was not possible with the analysis of data in this study, further classifications in the

first three stages would possibly rely on a student's level of awareness of differential skill and level of satisfaction.

(2) Performance ratings and student perceptions suggest the relative time sequence of skill development. Results indicate that in general, these students tended to demonstrate mastery of adaptational skills prior to mastery of functional skills.

(3) Curriculum aimed at meeting the training needs of this population may more appropriately have been structured by content which reflected an assessment of student needs as they relate to the learning process as well as by objectives of task analysis and conceptual level.

(4) In this program which focused on training to develop competence in human service practice as a vehicle for the achievement of age-specific vocational development goals, the learning process appeared to influence students' self-definition in terms of human service occupations. Results for these students indicate that focus on competence in adaptive skills may positively influence growth in meeting the task of crystallization.

(5) For this group, a period of training longer than ten weeks would be required for the development of functional skills. Within a ten-week period, content which focused on students' adaptation to setting would have more appropriately met the pace and process of these student's learning.

The above analysis suggests that if work-study programs for high school students continue in the human service area for the purpose of career education, further study will be needed to document and to evaluate the process of high school students' learning in human service occupations. This documentation may need to focus on an assessment of student learning needs in terms of their comprehension and readiness to understand a fuller range of human service skills. A formative evaluation design may be useful in studying further the relationship between various skills in the time sequence of the learning process. In this regard, the evaluation design, which was developed by the UCLA Office of Experimental Educational Programs through a grant from the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning to assess the process of experiential learning, may

be adapted for the purpose of future study in this area.¹¹ Based on the concept that "experiential learning is process learning, it involves a series of continuous developmental stages,"¹² the design incorporates a content analysis of student logs which document learning experiences and reflections about these experiences according to an assessment matrix. This matrix organizes content according to general learning categories and competencies defined along the continuum of the three levels of experiential learning, i.e., description, application and generalization.

Future studies on the developmental process of vocational maturity may focus on the effect of systematic experiential exposure to occupations on this developmental process. Prior studies such as the HI-SWAT program in Wyoming¹³ with objectives of recruitment into the field found that in general,

both seniors and juniors reported themselves as very comfortable in their institutional setting and with patients at the very start of the program.¹⁴

Over the period of a summer, changes were reported in students' attitudes toward less idealized perceptions of personnel and toward accepting mental retardation and mental illness. Although

not distinguished as such in the study, these areas of change are related to the adaptational skill area. Although participating HI-SWAT students in general were found to be oriented toward careers in the helping occupations both at the start and at the termination of the program, a considerable portion of this population was found to have changed career preferences over several years.¹⁵ The study's conclusion that exposure for recruitment purpose might be ineffectual does not rule out the more beneficial effects of this exposure on vocational development.¹⁶ For this purpose, a future study may focus on comparisons of students' learning processes in designated skill areas with the processes of vocational maturity as indicated by a fuller use of the Career Pattern Study indices or the Readiness for Vocational Planning Scale.¹⁷ From the present program's exploratory level study, students' perceptions and actual rate of mastery in adaptational skills were described as variables which may positively affect the process of vocational maturity.

Recommendations for Future Programming

(1) In this study, major difficulties were experienced in the evaluation of student

practice based on ratings of field staff. Because the focus of the study was directed toward student performance, failure to engage field supervisors' participation in the developmental steps of the program design prior to implementation may have affected their ability to use the performance standard instrument and their comprehension of performance expectations. In addition, because students remained under field personnel's supervision for eighty percent of the program experience, failure to sensitize supervisors to goals and expectations may have created, to some extent, possible incongruities between the informal field teaching and the seminar format. Indeed, these particular difficulties suggest that before the implementation of new or revised programs, revisions of factors in the program design which will affect field instructors' role behaviors and expectations for participation, supervisors should participate in a training program with the goal of increased understanding and motivation to undertake change. Furthermore, a period of training for supervisors on program goals and expectations for student performance would possibly have had the effect of standardizing the ratings of student

performance on the performance evaluation form.

(2) Introductory experiences for high school students in the human services for the duration of one school semester may more appropriately focus on content and skills which inform students' adjustment to role and setting. Training with the objective of mastery to enter employment and training for developmental objectives do not necessarily involve the same skill emphasis or time sequence. If goals of training programs are aimed at influencing developmental tasks, then content should focus on skills which will positively influence the expected results. In terms of this program in which goals of training focused on influencing student growth in the crystallization of vocational choice, training objectives with a narrower focus on the process of adaptation would be more effective. Likewise, goals of training which relate to students' acquisition and mastery of competencies for a technician level of employment may more appropriately include a broader focus and perhaps lengthened exposure to training.

FOOTNOTES

¹Bertha Reynolds, Learning and Teaching in the Practice of Social Work (New York: Farraro and Rinehart, Inc., 1942), pp. 57-85.

²Ibid., 75-81.

³Alan G. Marlatt, "Task Structure and the Experimental Modification of Verbal Behavior," Psychological Bulletin 78 (1972): 337.

⁴Robert Carkhoff, Helping and Human Relations, 2 vols (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969).

⁵Alan G. Marlatt, "Task Structure and the Experimental Modification of Verbal Behavior," Psychological Bulletin 78 (1972): 337.

⁶Nina Rosenthal, "Prescriptive Approach for Counselor Training," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 24 (May 1977), and M. Uhlemann, G. Lea and G. Stone, "Effects of Instruction and Modeling on Trainees Low in Interpersonal Communication Skills," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (November 1976).

⁷Stone and Vance, "Instructions, Modeling and Rehearsal: Implications for Training," The Journal of Counseling Psychology 23 (May 1976).

⁸James S. Coleman, "Differences Between Experiential and Classroom Learning," in Morris T. Keeton and Associates, Experiential Learning (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977).

⁹John Dewey, Experience and Education, 18th ed. (New York: Kappa Delta Pi, 1938, Collier Books, 1975).

¹⁰Donald Super, "Self Concepts in Vocational Development," in Career Development: Self-Concept Theory, eds. Donald Super et al. (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963), p. 1.

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Office of Experimental Education Programs, Documentation and Evaluation of Sponsored Experiential Learning, CAEL Institutional Report No. 3, revised ed. (Princeton, New Jersey: CAEL, 1977).

¹²Ibid., p. 2.

¹³Richard Pasework, "A Final Report on HI-SWAT," Laramie, Wyoming, University of Wyoming, 1973, p. 5.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 8-9.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 13.

¹⁷For the Career Pattern Study Indices, see Jean-Pierre Jordaan and Martha Bennet Heyde, Vocational Maturity During the High School Years (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1979), Appendix C. For the Readiness for Vocational Planning Scale see Warren Gribbons, Paul Lohnes and Donald Super, eds., Emerging Careers (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1968), Appendices C and F.

Appendix A

Rules and Learning Objectives

Unit I: The Function and Role of the Technician in the Agency

Rule 1: The team leader should be responsible for all planning and for the ultimate safety of all clients under care.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an understanding of the team structure.

Performance Standards: #8, #16, #35, #36

Rule 2: A technician's interactions with clients should be consistent with the overall planning for the entire group and for the individual client.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an awareness of function as a member of a human service team.

Performance Standards: #9, #16, #35, #37

Rule 3: A technician should know the plan of the day, lay out the materials and check on commonly used equipment.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an understanding of her role and function in the team.

Performance Standards: #8, #9, #10, #11, #12, #13, #16, #17, #35, #36, #37, #39, #41, #42, #43

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an acceptable level of work habits.

Performance Standards: #1, #2, #3,
#4, #5, #7

Rule 4/5: A technician should use the team leader as a model for actions toward clients.

A technician should act in the same manner as he wants clients to act toward other individuals.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an awareness of appropriate presentation of self in the agency and awareness of the function of the team leader as a role model.

Performance Standards: #11, #12, #13,
#15, #14, #21, #27, #29

Rule 6: A technician should keep all information confidential. Information regarding clients is for the staff's use in planning and in deepening an understanding of the individual.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates in practice the application of concepts of confidentiality.

Performance Standard: #14

Unit II: Observation

Rule 1: Structured observation is used to organize facts about clients.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an understanding of differential concepts of observation used to organize facts.

Performance Standards: #16, #9, #30,

Rule 2: Human service workers should remain nonjudgmental in their interactions with clients.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates a beginning understanding of concepts of nonjudgmental and accepting attitudes in practice.

Performance Standards: #21, #22, #23, #24, #29

Rule 3: Limitations on clients; explorations of certain materials should be set because of personal safety and the physical well being of the group.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to understand rationale for methods of limit setting.

Performance Standards: #27, #28, #29, #31

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to reinforce positive qualities through verbal and non-verbal communication.

Performance Standards: #22, #24, #25, #26

Rule 4: Expectations for clients' activities should coordinate with worker's estimation of client's ability.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to participate in the process of assessment on individualization of client need.

Performance Standards: #9, #16

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to use

assessment in practice to
individualize clients.

Performance Standards: #30, #33

Rule 5: In order to promote a clients' sense of mastery, human service workers should provide maximum opportunities for clients to master new skills, new materials and new behaviors within the bounds of personal and group safety.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to use assessment in practice to develop client's autonomy and mastery.

Performance Standards: #9, #30, #33, #37, #22, #24

Unit IV: Helping Communication

Rule 1: Human service workers should listen attentively to their clients' verbal and non-verbal messages.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates a beginning ability to listen to and respond to clients.

Performance Standards: #24

Rule 2: Human service workers should communicate empathy and respect for clients in order to establish a trusting relationship.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates a beginning ability to communicate empathy and respect for clients.

Performance Standards: #15, #21, #22, #24, #25, #27, #29, #30, #33, #34

Rule 3: Human service workers should support and reinforce client's constructive behavior.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an understanding of goals of helping communication and their application to practice.

Performance Standards: #24, #27, #29, #30

Rule 4: Human service workers should communicate at level of client's understanding to establish a climate of trust.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an ability to communicate at level of client's understanding.

Performance Standards: #15, #25

Unit V: Use of Groups for Socialization

Rule 1: Human service workers should use groups to encourage mutual support and to further each individual's social development.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates ability to use concepts of mutual support in the group.

Performance Standards: #22, #24, #31

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates understanding of the effect of styles of leadership on the group.

Performance Standards: #33, #34

Rule 2: Human service workers should formulate clear goals for task groups.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates understanding that leadership involves goal directed behavior.

Performance Standards: #32

Unit VI: Application of Knowledge of the Developmentally Disabled

Rule 1: Human service workers should accept clients with their limitations and should respond in a nonjudgemental manner.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates an ability to assess individual strengths and limitations in working with the developmentally disabled.

Performance Standards: #9, #16, #37, #38, #21, #22, #24, #30, #33

Rule 2: Human service workers should be aware of their own preconceptions and initial impressions of the developmentally disabled.

Learning Objective: Student demonstrates a recognition of bias through consultation and supervision in work with the developmentally disabled.

Performance Standards: #9, #21, #36

Appendix B

Performance Standards for High School Course
in Human Service Training

I. Attendance:

1. Exceptional (5): perfect attendance
Above Average (4): two days absent per semester
Average (3): three days absent per semester
Below Average (2): four days absent per semester
Failing (1): more than four days absent per semester

II. Punctuality:

2. Exceptional (5): always on time
Above Average (4): late on one occasion
Average (3): late on two occasions
Below Average (2): late on three occasions
Failing (1): late on four or more occasions
3. Exceptional (5): always on time
Above average (4): a total of ten minutes late
Average (3): a total of twenty minutes late
Below Average (2): a total of thirty minutes late
Failing (1): more than thirty minutes late, total

III. Reliability:

4. Telephones placement when sick or late:
(10) always, (9) missed once, (8) missed twice, (7) missed three times, (6) missed four times, (5) missed five times, (4) missed six times, (3) missed seven times, (2) missed eight times, (1) never telephoned
5. Informs placement of all school holidays and special events at school:
6. Hands in attendance sheets to be signed:

7. Signs the agency attendance schedule:

IV. Interpersonal Relations:

8. Follows instructions of team leader with no further prompting:

9. Consults with team leader and assistant:

10. Arranges materials for activities:

11. Dresses in neat, casual attire:

12. Answers all staff when approached:

13. Approaches staff in a calm manner:

14. Discusses clients out of their hearing:

15. Uses appropriate language:

V. Interest in Job:

16. Contributes information about clients and events to team:

17. Sets up for and helps with habitual-routine activities without prompting:

18. Attends optional meetings and trips planned by the agency:

19. Hands in log assignments:

VI. Quality of Work:

20. Engages clients in starting activities:

21. Attends to all clients with equal regard:

22. Consistently reinforces clients' positive activities with verbal and physical approval:

23. Promotes peer interaction:

24. Praises actions which student notices without prompting from client:

25. Explains purpose behind instructions in simple sentences:

- 26. Participates as a model to reinforce instructions:
- 27. Avoids constant threats to set limits:
- 28. Avoids limits based on an arbitrary value system:
- 29. Avoids belittling remarks in limit setting:
- 30. Allows clients the opportunity to try out new skills on their own:
- 31. Uses the group to support individuals either with learning activities or with limits:
- 32. In consultation with team, formulates clear goals for group activities:
- 33. Changes the pacing of activities:
- 34. Gives the group a choice when appropriate:

VII. Ability to Follow Instructions:

- 35. Carries out all guidelines and supervisor's directives in relation to her work:
- 36. Accepts helpful criticism of her work and acts upon suggestions:

VIII. Initiative:

- 37. Asks questions regarding clients or activities:
- 38. Asks for suggestions on reading or outside resources:
- 39. Suggests and carries out extra activities:
- 40. Works during holidays or days she is unscheduled:
- 41. Is self starting:
- 42. Sees a need and meets it:

IX. Observance of Rules and Regulations:

43. Follows all rules which have been
explained either in writing or verbally:

X. Growth on Job:

44. Difference between mid-semester and end-
semester evaluation:

APPENDIX C

Unit One: Function and Role
of the Technician (Assistant) in the Agency

Practice Principle:

In allocating function and roles in a social agency, function and role should relate to the goals of service in the community. The differential allocation of roles should be defined by areas of specialization and by the level of skill required to meet the service objectives.

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Taylor, James and Randolph, Jerry, Community Worker, New York, Jason Aronson, Inc., 1975, p. 26-27 and 71-80.

Siporin, Max, Introduction to Social Work Practice, New York, MacMillian Publishing Co., Inc., 1975, p. 10-11, 185-6.

Brill, Naomi, Team Work, New York, J.B. Lippincott Co., 1976, p. 83-84, xvi, p. 2.

Outline:

- I. Human needs and services
 - A. Human needs defined
 1. Health
 2. Housing
 3. Income services
 4. Employment
 5. Education
 6. Personal services: child care; case services; foster care; elderly, youth and family rehabilitation services

B. Human services defined

1. Discussed in terms of quote from Brill in xeroxed handouts
2. Human service worker is defined as one who helps meet human needs.

C. Evolution of services

D. What human needs their agency's are meeting

1. Discussion of constraints
2. Discussion of the purpose or goals of their agencies
 - a. Example: Headstart is a federal program begun in the 1960's for pre-school education and family life services for low income families. The total family is the client. Parents are also given educational services in order to improve the family's orientation toward learning, family life and the community.
 - b. The purpose of headstart is different from day care. Both, however, provide services in socializing the child into the school system.
 - c. Retardation services: diagnostic, educational, socialization and personal services for clients and their families. Purpose is to help client and their families meet potential within the community.
3. What would be the alternatives if their service were not available?

II. The human service worker in the team

- A. Definition of the human service team
- B. Definition of role

1. Role in terms of required behaviors for a certain position. Expectations of others for the behaviors of that position and the expectations of the holder of that position.
 2. Discussion of an organizational chart in terms of their roles and that of team members.
- C. Discussion of Rule #1: The team leader's role
1. Lines of authority and responsibility
 2. Their behavior in terms of relating to parental and client questions and complaints
 3. Leader's responsibility for their performance
 4. Leader's role in planning for clients
- D. Discussion of their role as the technician: Rule #2 and #3
1. Emphasis on their role as team member
 2. Actions in consultation with the leader
- E. Discussion of Rules #4 and #5
1. Definition of a role model
 2. Discussion of role models for students in the agency
 3. Discussion of their function as role models for clients
 4. Role playing exercise to illustrate their observation of team leader as a role model.

III. Confidentiality

- A. Definition of confidentiality

- B. Discussion of the importance of confidentiality in their agencies.
- c. The direct application of confidentiality to this seminar in terms of their discussing clients in seminars and log assignments. Discussion of first names only.

Rules:

1. The team leader should be responsible for all planning and for the ultimate safety of all clients under his/her care.
2. A technician's interactions with clients should be consistent with the overall planning for the entire group and for the individual clients.
3. A technician should know the plan of the day, lay out the materials and check on commonly used equipment.
4. A technician should use the team leader as a model for actions toward clients.
5. A technician should act in the same manner as he/she wants clients to act toward other individuals.
6. A technician should keep all information confidential. Information regarding clients is for the staff use in planning and in understanding the individual client.

Procedures:

1. Observe the daily routines: Be familiar with the schedule and order of the day as well as with changes in scheduled activity according to the days of the week, materials consistently used and the plan and structure of the space used.
2. Ask your leader about the plan for the day or week and which activities are scheduled.
3. Lay out new materials and check materials usually in use. Plan for the use of materials and the room.
4. Provide information about client's behaviors and mood to the team.
5. Ask your team leader about the educational and social plan for each child.

6. Through consultation with the leader, acquaint yourself with any background information concerning client's health record, home life and previous history.

Log Assignment: Function and Role
of the Technician in the Agency

The agency in the community:

1. What is the purpose/function of your agency in the community?
2. What population does it serve?
3. From what source does your agency obtain its clients?
4. Who funds your agency?
5. Draw an organizational chart of your agency.

Team members' functions and roles:

6. Identify the different organizational positions in your team.
7. Identify four different tasks for each team member.
8. What is the level of education and experience required for each team member's job? Do they need special certification?

Confidentiality:

9. What is confidentiality?
10. Why is it an important rule in your agency?

Rules:

11. Describe one incident at your agency when you applied one of the rules of this unit.
 - a. Write down the rule

- b. Describe the situation and your application of the rule
- c. What happened after you applied the rule?

Unit Two: Observation

Practice Principle:

Observation should be systematized and structured by the use of developmental criteria so that impressions and interpretations are integrated into a framework for assessment and planning.

Bibliography:

Developmental Psychology Today, CRM Books,
Del Mar, California, 1971, p. 5-31.

Psychology for High School Students, New York
City Board of Education, Curriculum
Project Report, Bureau of Curriculum
Development, 1975, p. 26-41.

Outline:

- I. Definition of Human Development
 - A. Changes in individual behavior as a result of maturation and experience.
 - B. Human being viewed as a changing system dependent on biology but constantly subjected to the effects of experience.
 1. These two concepts are interdependent and interactive
 2. Read the Human group story, excerpted from Sociology, 1973 about two girls who lived in extreme isolation from social contacts and to illustrate the interaction of both concepts.
 - a. Anna-illegitimate child whose stern grandfather kept her isolated in an upstairs room. She was virtually isolated from any friendly attention or instruction.

- b. Isabel-she was kept in seclusion for six and a half years during which time she lived in a dark room with her mother who was a deaf mute. (Anna and Isabel, p. 29, Psychology for High School Students).
- c. Both accounts underline the importance of communication and contact in development.
- d. Discuss which of the following the students think are inborn traits and which are not. In other words, which are we born with and which are influenced by our experience.
 - 1. intelligence
 - 2. personality and temperament
 - 3. motor abilities and skills
 - 4. male and female identity
 - 5. special talents such as musical and artistic ability
- C. Human development represents an orderly change throughout life. It is more rapid and more remarkable in the beginning.
 - 1. Progressive: goes through a series of stages
 - 2. Differential: goes from the simple to the complex
 - 3. Cumulative: builds on each step

II. Mechanisms of Development

A. Biological

- 1. Physical: muscles, nervous system, walking, puberty
- 2. Genetic: predisposition to traits which give the potential for intelligence, certain talents, temperament, style

B. Cognitive: learn certain concepts at certain times - mental processes

1. Primary process - concrete thinking
 2. Rational processes
 3. Operational - abstract
- C. Social: the eight stages of man. Social development is interactive. Interrelationship of person's capabilities with society's expectations on the individual.
1. Person's readiness to approach, be aware of and interact with social horizons.
 2. Meeting social expectations.

III. Concept of Normality

- A. Combination of average over time and societal expectations
- B. Cultural acceptability

IV. Purpose of Observation

- A. Rule #1: Observation is used to organize facts re: clients
 1. Definition of observation: one method of collecting facts about behavior in standard form. Everybody looking at the same thing.
 2. Facts: What are they? Observable acts which may be seen and described in the same way by more than one person.
 3. Observation may be likened to a medical examination. It is structured so that doctor looks at certain things and for certain aspects of health.
- B. Rule #2: Facts are organized to gain a clear understanding of a client in relation to the norm.

1. Refer back to the first unit in terms of human needs.
 2. What does this individual need?
 3. Is your service meeting this person's needs?
 4. Should other services be provided?
- C. Rule #3: Structured observation is helpful in reporting observations to the team so that the team may formulate goals for each client.
1. Gathering facts in this manner is objective
 2. Definition of objective
 3. All members of the team can rely on this information as a picture rather than as a painting
- D. Intrepretation for planning
1. Formulating goals: what does a person need to meet the goals of your service?
 2. Planning relates to goals
 3. An intrepretation may include a future prognosis
 4. An intrepretation may include an assessment of areas for intervention.
- E. Discussion of observation form and log assignment

Golden Rules:

1. Structured observation is used to organize facts about clients.
2. Facts are organized to gain a clear understanding of a client in relation to the norm.

3. Structured observation is helpful in reporting observations to the team so that the team may formulate goals for each client.

Procedures for Observation:

1. As often as possible, report only factual material.
2. Separate the factual material from your impressions.
3. Your impressions are the picture or interpretation of a person's behavior which grow out of the factual observation.
4. Your impressions are based on the reported facts.

Log Assignment: Observation

1. Complete the observation form on one of your clients.
2. If you were planning goals for this student, on which area would you concentrate your service and why?

GUIDE FOR OBSERVING, RECORDING AND PLANNING FOR,

NAME _____

DATE _____

TEAM LEADER _____

OTHER TEAM MEMBERS _____

Physical Skills:A. Gross Motor Skills: (Describe)

Coordination/Locomotion: (choose one): awkward,
 stumbling, smooth,
 agile, inhibited

Climbs stairs:

Jumps:

Hops on one foot:

Skips:

Climbs:

Runs:

Throws:

Right _____, left handed, _____,
 uses both _____

B. Fine Motor Skills: (Describe)

Cuts:

Uses hammer, saw:

Paints:

Pours:

Catches:

Builds with blocks:

Type of building:

C. Senses:

Hearing: (Hears different sounds, loud, soft, high, low)

Sight: (Sees things at a distance, sees close details)

D. Toilet trained:

Cognitive Skills: (Describe)

Writes name:

Recognizes: color _____ size _____
 shapes _____ written name _____

Notices: names of other children, in speech
 _____ written _____ details in
 room _____

Counts:

Knows days of the week:

Knows parts of the body:

Completes puzzles:

Dominant language _____ other languages

Speaks clearly:

Uses primarily one word sentences:

Speaks in full sentences:

Asks questions (why it is so):

Uses own imagination in play or activities:

Concentrates on activity (attention span):

Completes tasks:

Follows directions:

Uses: clay _____ sand _____ water
 _____ paints _____ other materials
 _____ in play

Likes to look at books:

Handles books with care:

Reads stories from pictures:

Answers questions concerning stories:

Listens in story telling:

Social and Emotional Development:

Plays mostly with a variety of children _____
 one particular child _____ alone _____

Communicates with other children:

Helps others:

Works independently:

Plays Games:

Good follower in games:

Organizes games _____ starts games _____

Plays in dramatic activities (doll corner):

Ready to experiment:

Shares _____ takes turns _____

Picks up after own work:

Prefers adults to own peers:

Preserves what he/she makes _____ preserves
 what others make _____

Handles teasing from others:

Avoids arguments or fights:

Reactions to a problem:

tries to work it out:

seeks help:

easily frustrated:

leaves activity:

Transitions: willing, eager to help _____

overstimulated _____ runs away _____

Group time:

listens to teachers:

listens to other children:

responds verbally:

inappropriate response:

seeks attention:

quiet:

seeks diversions:

other children:

materials:

stays in own space:

fights:

Comments: (Impressions)

Unit Three: Application of Knowledge
of Developmental Tasks

Practice Principles:

1. Knowledge of normative, age specific developmental tasks should guide the planning of group and individual goals as well as the interactions of technicians with clients for the purpose of helping clients achieve appropriate developmental levels (rule #1).
2. Recognition and awareness of ones own biases and values enhances a technician's acceptance of clients (rule #2).
3. Technician's objectivity in limit setting is increased by the understanding of rational criteria for this intervention (rule #3).
4. Application of limits based on objective criteria promotes a client's socialization skills (rule #3).
5. A technician helps clients develop a positive self concept by enhancing clients' feelings of mastery and autonomy. (rules #5 and #5).

Bilbiography:

- Erikson, Erik, Childhood and Society, New York, WW Norton Co., 2nd edition, 1963.
- Hymes, James, L. Jr., The Child Under Six, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1963.
- Matheney and Toplais, Psychiatric Nursing, Saint Louis, Missouri, The C.V. Mosey Company, 4th edition, 1965, p. 76-93.
- Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification, New York, Hart Publishers,

1972, p. 107, 111.

Beeler, Kent, "Helping Professions Inventory: Projecting Potential Conflicts" in Affective Education, ed. L. Thayer, La Jolla, California, University Associates, Inc., 1976, p. 61-66.

Outline:

I. Developmental Phases:

A. Process of emotional development

1. Development is cumulative, progressive (Erikson)
2. Relationship of physical growth and needs to changing emotional needs

B. Developmental Tasks (Yearbook)

1. Growth and change along a continuum on ten developmental tasks
2. Changing needs according to stage of growth

II. Application to practice:

A. Goals of practice

1. Technician's interventions are purposeful
2. A skilled technician is one who uses self in a planned manner
3. Technician's interventions may be based on goals related to enhancing adjustment to developmental tasks

B. Organization of this unit

1. Student learns about tasks
2. Student learns about rules of practice which further clients' development

III. Rules and Tasks:

A. Task 1: Rule 1 discussion

1. Discussion of behavioral indicators of adjustment to task at different ages
2. Listing of living and social skills for three year olds and eighteen year olds
3. Discussion of their own separation and individuation process
4. Discussion with examples from practice of clients' separation

B. Task 2: Rule 2 discussion

1. Define term nonjudgemental in terms of practice
2. Discussion and role play exercises to examine students values and biases (Simon and Beeler)
3. Define term acceptance as respect of of person as human being with strengths and limitations. In practice, demonstrate acceptance by listening, respect, interest, recognition and reinforcement.
4. Discuss importance of student's self awareness of feelings about people when working with clients

C. Task 3: Rule 2 discussion

1. Discussion of behaviors which demonstrate ability to interact and problems in adjustment to this task. Compare four year old and eighteen year old.
2. Discussion of practice skills for promoting peer relationships with their own clients
3. Discussion of how interventions are carried out in agency program

D. Tasks 4 and 5: Rule 3 discussion

1. Definition and discussion of the concept of a conscience
2. Discussion of the development of a conscience
3. Discussion of limit setting in terms of socialization and social expectations
4. Discussion of student role as an authority in relation to the task of limit setting
5. Discussion of students' practice experience
6. Discussion of role models in limit setting
7. Discussion of procedures

E. Tasks 6 and 7: Rules 4 and 5 discussion

1. Definition of autonomy and mastery
2. Discussion of students' own developmental experiences in adjusting to these tasks - frustrations and challenges
3. Discussion of student's practice experience along the guidelines of procedures

Golden Rule #1:

Human service workers should use knowledge of developmental tasks to guide their actions.

Task #1: Achieving an age appropriate level of independence

Procedures:

- a. Observe client's ability to start the day, to leave parents and to become involved in activities with others.

- b. Identify clients who need special help (are tearful, withdrawn, sad or overly aggressive).
- c. Move clients into starting activity after they have taken off outer clothing.
- d. Consult team leader about your observations of clients who are showing some difficulty starting the day.
- e. Include clients who are having some difficulty in special task with the aide.

Golden Rule #2:

Human service workers should remain nonjudgemental in their interactions with clients.

Task #2: Achieving an ability to feel good toward and about other people

Procedures:

- a. The aide, in the role as model, acts in an accepting manner toward all clients.
- b. The aide reassures clients both verbally and physically of his ability to perform. The aide reinforces any positive activity and initiative by verbal or physical approval.
- c. The aide encourages clients who have mastered tasks to help others by grouping clients in twosomes which reflect this interaction.

Task #3: Achieving an ability to interact with age mates

Procedures:

- a. Observe clients in their programs.

Pay particular attention to clients' choices of activities in free time, their attention spans, degree of interest in others in their group and ability to work or play well with others.

- b. Encourage small groupings of clients.
- c. Encourage verbalization between clients by drawing attention to each other, i.e., by repeating the names of the group members in games or by using examples from the group members.
- d. Encourage verbalization between clients by stressing that clients speak their feelings rather than act them out.
- e. Introduce song games, small group activities to underline awareness of others during free time or outdoor play.

Golden Rule #3:

Limitations on clients' explorations of certain materials are set because of personal safety and the physical well being of the group.

Task #4: Achieving the development of a conscience - the ability to obey and follow instructions

Procedures:

- a. Participate in the team leader's instructions to the group as a role model.
- b. Reinforce the purpose behind the instructions. For example, clean-up so that materials are not lost and so that materials can be used the following day.
- c. Consult with your team leader about his/her philosophy and method in

promoting interaction with others,
with authority and in promoting
self-reliance.

- d. Praise and reinforce the following of instructions immediately after the act has been performed.
- e. Praise actions which you have noticed but which the client himself has not brought to your attention as well as those actions which the client notices.
- f. Stress the rewards in following instructions: such as references to growing up, helping.
- f. Gently remind those who do not participate in instructions. Join them in the action while repeating the instruction.
- h. Be aware of the classroom rules for the clients such as general do's and don'ts in the classroom situation.

Task #5: Learning to control and to understand the physical world - accepting adult expectations for restriction

Procedures:

- a. Aides consult with team leader on method of setting limits within the setting.
- b. Aides teach clients the appropriate use of materials or the appropriate way of behaving. For instance, in using wood working tools, the aide teaches the client the use of the tool and the purpose of the tool. If the client is unable to understand the safety element in using the tool, limitations should be explained to the client on this basis.
- c. Client is separated from activities

or from the group until he/she is able to learn appropriate control.

Golden Rule #4:

Expectations for client's activity should coordinate with worker's estimation of the client's ability.

Golden Rule #5:

In order to promote a client's sense of mastery, human service workers should provide maximum opportunities to master new skills, new materials and new behaviors within the bounds of safety to himself and to others.

Task #6: Adjusting to body changes

Procedures:

- a. Be aware of the general physical and mental capacities of each client.
- b. Present experiences which are challenging but not frustrating.
- c. Respond in a positive manner to client's observation of body.

Task #7: Achieving a sense of autonomy or mastery

Procedures:

- a. Allow each client to proceed at his own pace.
- b. Observe a client's ability to perform skills on his own.
- c. In consultation with the team leader, the aide assesses the client's level of skill development.
- d. In consultation with the team leader, the aide teaches the client the next step in the process.

- e. Aide rewards client for attempting to perform new operations with verbal encouragement or with tangible reward.

Log Assignment: Application of Knowledge
of Developmental Tasks

1. Describe one incident at your agency when you applied golden rule #1 of this unit.
 - a. Describe the situation and your application of the rule.
 - b. What happened after you applied the rule?
2. Describe one incident at your agency when you applied one of the other golden rules of this unit.
 - a. Write down the rule.
 - b. Describe the situation and your application of the rule.
 - c. What happened after you applied the rule?

Task 1:

3. Describe three behaviors which demonstrate in general a three year old's, an eighteen year old's and a thirty-five year old's level of independence.

Hint: You may mention behaviors which have to do with their living skills and their relations with other people.

4. Describe briefly one client in your group who needs special help in meeting the developmental task of independence. In your description mention what behavior demonstrates this need.

Task 2:

5. Describe two things you dislike about one of the clients in your group.
6. Describe two things you like about one of the clients in your group.
7. For one client in your group, identify three strong points and three weak points.

Task 3:

8. Describe one incident for one client which indicates:
 - a. his interest or lack of interest in peers
 - b. his ability to get along with others
9. Describe two games or techniques which would help clients in your group get to know or get along with each other.

Tasks 4 and 5:

10. Describe three methods by which your team leader sets limits for the group.

Tasks 6 and 7:

11. List three general things you may expect all members of your group to be able to do.
12. List three skills for two clients which they are able to do on their own.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF CHILDHOOD

TASK	INFANCY	EARLY CHILDHOOD
I. Achieving appropriate dependence/independence patterns	1. Establishment of one's self as a dependent being 2. Beginning establishment of self-awareness	Adjusting to less personal attention; becoming physically independent; remaining emotionally dependent
II. Achieving an affection pattern of interaction	Developing a feeling for affection	1. Developing ability to give affection 2. Learning to share affection
III. Relating to certain changing social groups (close)	1. Awareness of difference between animate/inanimate and familiar/unfamiliar 2. Developing rudiments of social interaction	1. Developing ability to interact with age-mates 2. Adjusting to family expectations of child as a member of the social unit
IV. Developing a conscience	Beginning to adjust to expectations of others	1. Developing ability to obey and follow directions of parent authority 2. Developing ability to obey absent authority with guide from conscience
V. Learning proper psycho-socio-biological sex role		Learning to identify with adult male and adult female roles

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF CHILDHOOD (Continued)

TASK	INFANCY	EARLY CHILDHOOD
VI. Adjusting to and accepting a changing body	1. Adjusting to adult feeding demands and; 2. Cleanliness demands and; 3. Attitudes toward genital manipulation	1. Adjusting to expectations because of improving muscular abilities 2. Developing sex modesty
VII. Managing changing body; learning new motor patterns	1. Developing physiological equilibrium and; 2. Hand/eye coordination 3. Developing good rhythms of rest and activity	1. Developing large muscle control; 2. Learning large muscle/small muscle coordination
VIII. Learning to control and understand the physical world	Exploring physical world	Accepting adult expectations for restrictive exploration and manipulation
IX. Developing appropriate symbol system and conceptual abilities	1. Developing preverbal communication; 2. Verbal communication 3. Rudimentary concept formation	1. Improving use of one's symbol system 2. Rapid elaboration of concept pattern
X. Relating to the cosmos		Developing a crude, but genuine notion about one's place in the cosmos

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF CHILDHOOD (Continued)

TASK	LATE CHILDHOOD	EARLY ADOLESCENCE	LATE ADOLESCENCE
I.	Attaining freedom from primary identification with adults	Establishing independence from adults in all areas of behavior	Acceptance of and identification with an independent adult role with individuality
II.	Learning to give love as well as receive it; forming peer relationships	Acceptance of self as a worthwhile person	Building strong mutual bonds of affection with possible marriage partner(s)
III.	1. Clarifying adult/child world differences 2. Learning group identification	Behaving according to shifting code of peers (changing sets of values)	Adopting a set of values in a mature form by learning new peer code
IV.	Developing a true morality; learning new rules		Learning to verbalize and recognize moral code contradictions and principal/practice discrepancies; to resolve these responsibly and personally
V.	Learning to identify with social contemporaries of the same sex	1. Strong identification with sex age-mates 2. Learning appropriate role in heterosexual relations	1. Acquiring desirability and exploring mate possibilities 2. Choose occupation 3. Preparing to accept role as responsible adult citizen

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF CHILDHOOD (Continued)

TASK	LATE CHILDHOOD	EARLY ADOLESCENCE	LATE ADOLESCENCE
VI.		1. Reorganizing feelings and thoughts of self in light of body changes and their concomitants 2. Accepting one's own appearance	Learning and acquiring appropriate outlets for sex drives
VII.	Refining and elaborating skill in use of small muscles	Controlling use of changing and changed body	
VIII.	Learning realistic ways of controlling and studying the physical world		
IX.	1. Learning to use language to exchange ideas and to influence 2. Beginning understanding of real casual relations 3. Reflective thinking and finer conceptual distinctions	1. Using language to express and clarify more complex concepts 2. Applying general principles to the particular; moving from the concrete to abstract	Achieving maximum level of reasoning

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF CHILDHOOD (Continued)

TASK	LATE CHILDHOOD	EARLY ADOLESCENCE	LATE ADOLESCENCE
X.	Developing a scientific approach		Formulating workable belief and value systems

Adapted from 1950 Yearbook of Association for
Supervision and Curriculum Development; p. 84 ff.

THE EIGHT AGES OF MAN

Stage	Psychosocial Strength	Psychosocial Danger
1. Oral Sensory	Basic trust	Mistrust
2. Muscular/Anal	Autonomy	Shame/Doubt
3. Locomotor/ Genital	Initiative	Guilt
4. Latency	Industry	Inferiority
5. Puberty/ Adolescence	Identity	Role Confusion
6. Young Adulthood	Intimacy	Isolation
7. Adulthood	Generativity	Stagnation
8. Maturity	Ego Integrity	Despair

from Erik Erikson, Childhood
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Unit Four: Helping Communication

Practice Principle:

The foundation of a helping relationship is based on a technician's communication of empathy and respect for clients.

Mobilization of client's strengths enhances their adaption and adjustment to the environment.

Bibliography:

Egan, Gerard, The Skilled Helper, Belmont, California, Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1975, p. 10-14, 23-57, 60-67.

Pfeiffer and Jones, eds., A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol, IV, La Jolla, California, University Associates Publishers and Consultants, 1973, p. 16.

Outline:

- I. Introduction to helping communication
 - A. Client's position: asking for help
 1. vulnerable
 2. powerless
 3. angry
 4. stigmatized
 5. exposed
 - B. Discussion of students' experiences as clients
- II. Establishing an initial climate of trust
 - A. Technician's responses: rule #1
 1. Helping demands an intensity of presence

2. Attending

- a. A necessary condition for helping process
- b. The lack of attending is common in human relations - discussion
- c. Goals of attending
 - 1. to establish trust
 - 2. to communicate respect
 - 3. to communicate reinforcement
 - 4. to understand client's situation
- d. Posture of physical attending - role playing exercise

3. Listening

- a. nonverbal cues: body movement, gestures, facial expressions, paralinguistics - role playing exercise
- b. verbal cues
 - 1. listening to feelings
 - 2. listening to content
 - 3. role playing exercise

B. Technician's initial verbal responses: rule #2

1. Empathy: discussion of definition

- a. Technician communicates an understanding of client's feelings and experiences.
- b. Technician uses vocabulary of emotions

1. Single words:

I'm depressed
 I feel caught
 I feel angry

2. Phrases - descriptive:

I'm out of sorts
I'm down in the dumps

3. Experience statements:

I feel she loves me
I feel he cares

4. Behavioral statements:

I feel like giving up
I feel like hugging you

2. Questions: discussion of open and closed questions

3. Concreteness and Vagueness

a. specifics of feelings and experiences

b. examples from students' practice

III. Focus of exploration: rule #3

A. Strengths

1. Definition of strengths

2. Role play exercise in students' recognition of strengths in other students of the group

3. Recognition of strengths in clients

B. Helping client to help themselves: rule #4

1. Exploration of client's situation: coping abilities in presenting problem situation and in other situations

a. continuing responses of the technician

b. content responses

c. affective responses

2. Discussion of the difference between solutions which are arrived at through process of decision-making and solutions which are accepted from someone else's decision-making process.
 - a. in relation to developmental task of autonomy and mastery
 - b. in relation to developmental task of independence

Rule #1:

Human service workers should listen attentively to their clients' verbal and non-verbal messages.

Procedures:

1. Human service workers listen to clients in a physically attentive posture.
 - a. face others squarely
 - b. maintain good eye contact
 - c. lean toward other person
 - d. remain relatively relaxed
2. Human service workers note client's non-verbal and paralinguistic behavior.
3. Human service workers listen for client's expressed feeling and the content of their communication.
4. Human service workers use short cues (un-hum, uh-huh, nod) to encourage further communication.

Rule #2:

Human service workers should communicate empathy and respect for clients in order to establish a trusting relationship.

Procedures:

1. When listening to a client, human service workers ask the following questions of themselves:
 - a. What's really bothering this person?
 - b. What's this person trying to communicate to me?
2. Human service workers communicate to their client their understanding of their feelings and their experiences.
3. Human service workers respond to both their client's feeling and situation.
4. Human service workers look for signs of their client's stress and try to judge whether these arise because of the worker's lack of sensitivity to the client's communication.
5. Human service workers show their respect for their client by:
 - a. being attentive
 - b. being nonjudgemental
 - c. being empathetic
 - c. by allowing the client to act and seek out solutions on his own
 - e. by showing warmth
 - f. by reinforcing the positives

Rule #3:

Human service workers should support and reinforce constructive behavior.

Rule #4:

Human service workers should help clients explore their situations for more information and help their clients seek alternate solutions to problems.

Procedures: (rules #3 and #4)

1. Human service workers ask open questions.

2. Human service workers ask questions beginning with "what", "how", and "with what feeling" rather than with "why".
3. Human service workers generally limit client's rambling with some introjections.
4. Human service workers do not act for their client unless it is absolutely necessary and then only as a step toward helping the client act on his own.
5. Human service workers are as concrete as possible in their responses.

Log Assignments: Helping Communication

1. Describe in a paragraph one instance of non-verbal communication from your observation of a student in your group.
2. Define empathy.
3. Describe in a small paragraph one example of your use of empathy in communication with a client.
4. Describe in one paragraph one instance in your placement when you applied one of the rules of practice for helping communication with your group.

Unit Five: Use of Groups for Socialization

Practice Principles:

An individual's social development is enhanced by group support.

Clarity of purpose concerning the group's mission furthers the development of supportive group processes.

Bibliography:

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Pfeiffer, J.W. and Jones, John, A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Vol. V, 1975, La Jolla, California, University Associates Publishers and Consultants, p. 78-81.

Pfeifer and Jones, The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, La Jolla, California, University Associates Publishers and Consultants, 1972, p. 91-106.

Outline:

- I. Definition of a group: discussion of group experiences of group members.

II. Aspects of group interaction

- A. Content: subjects discussed, tasks performed
- B. Process: interaction between group members, group climate - Rule #1
 - 1. Participation: amount of participation from each member changes in participation patterns
 - 2. Influence: differs from participation; refers to quality, influence, rivalries
 - 3. Decision-making procedures
 - 4. Atmosphere: friendly, conflictual, involved, interested, sluggish, supportive
 - 5. Learning climate: trust, helping others reach goals, freedom to take risks
 - 6. Membership: subgroupings, outsiders
 - 7. Norms: standards, rules, acceptable behaviors, acceptable topics, acceptable interaction

III. Roles in the group: maintenance of group purpose

- A. Self orientation: rewards for self
- B. Interaction orientation: maintain harmonious climate
- C. Task orientation: content focused

IV. Leadership: types and their effect on group process - role play

- A. Autocratic: concern for task accomplishment
- B. Laissez-faire: concern for interaction

- C. Democratic: concern for interaction
- V. Phases: clarity of goal, rule 2 - role play
 - A. Polite phase: getting acquainted
 - B. Contracting: mutual goal setting
 - C. Bid for power: struggle for leadership, influence
 - D. Constructive: listening, sharing
 - E. Esprit: close feeling towards others in the group
- VI. Analysis of high school group with group members - role play

Rules:

1. Human service workers should use groups to encourage mutual support and to further each individual's social development.
2. Human service workers should formulate clear goals for task groups.

Procedures for group leadership:

1. Worker observes each child's response to group activities, the role each child assumes in the group and the network of friendships in the group.
2. Worker uses observation of clients' behavior in groups to further group process. For instance, worker might pair quiet member who has difficulty in participation with an active member for an activity.
3. Worker uses groups to structure clients' behavior. Other members often place limits on behavior rather than the group leader's placing the limits.

4. Worker is responsive to group mood.
Worker changes the pacing of the activity itself according to group response.
Worker may explore the mood of the group with the group itself. For instance, the worker might say, "you seem restless today, would you rather play another game?"
5. Worker promotes group interaction by presenting various activities.

Log Assignments:

Use of Groups for Socialization

1. Observe and record observations of one client's response to group activities.
What role does the client play in the group? How does the client maintain his friendship network?
2. What leadership style do you have as a group leader and what effect does it have on the group?

Unit Six: Working with
the Developmentally Disabled

Practice Principle:

Recognition and awareness of one's own biases and values enhances a technician's acceptance of developmentally disabled clients.

Bibliography:

Baumgarte, Bernice, Helping the Trainable Mentally Retarded Child, New York, Teachers College Press.

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CRM Books, Developmental Psychology Today, Del Mar, California, 1971, p. 34, p. 68-69.

Egg, Maria, When A Child Is Different, New York, New York, The John Day Company, 1964, p. 21-61.

Davitz, Joel, Davitz and Lorge, Terminology and Concepts in Mental Retardation, New York, New York, Teachers College Press.

Outline:

- I. Definition of Mental Retardation
 - A. Capacity to learn is markedly below average for child's age group
 - B. Sub-average general intellectual functioning which originates during the developmental period and is associated with impairments in adaptive behavior

- C. Intelligence as tested
Adaptive, maturation, learning and social
 - D. Definition as a combination of etiological and behavioral classification
- II. Difference between mental retardation and mental illness
 - A. Emotional disturbance: no obvious physiological basis. Located in the personality, interrelationships or as a response to crisis.
 - B. Defined by a withdrawal from reality into own fantasy
Disturbance in communication
 - C. Treatment: various forms of psychotherapy and medication
 - D. "Curable" since not based on permanent physiological damage
 - E. Onset of emotional disturbance usually after the developmental period or in adolescence
- III. Classification of Causes and Levels of Functioning
 - A. Genetic Factors: Downes Syndrome (Mongoloidism), one extra chromosome

Gene inheritance pattern: PKU/
metabolic deficiencies
 - B. Prenatal: drug ingestion, maternal infection, chronic illness, radiation, trauma, anoxia, toxoplasmosis
 - 1. Prematurity: cerebral damage, organ immaturity
 - 2. Prenatal Virus: rubella
 - C. Neonatal: birth problema/ loss of oxygen
RH factor

- D. Postnatal: infections of central nervous system - poisons, trauma, convulsive disorders, virus bacteria, lead poison
- E. Environmental deprivation: lack of early stimulation which leads to a possibility of borderline to mild retardation
- F. Levels: borderline, mild, moderate, severe, profound

IV. Community care versus institutionalization: current trends

- A. Community educational facilities: separate and integrated into the public system
- B. Small hostels: residences for semi-independent living
- C. Group homes: for the younger and less able
- D. Foster homes
- E. Increased family involvement: possibly keeping child at home with community supportive facilities
- F. Community education about retardation
- G. For discussion:
 - 1. Where do your field placements fit into this picture?
 - 2. Where are most of the clients living?
 - 3. What is the long range goal for most of your clients' living situations?

V. Assessment of level, cause and diagnosis related to community and individual planning

- A. Long term or life plan: is family able to cope with child? This depends on

severity of retardation, services in the community for support as well as family attitude. Family attitude may be influenced by early diagnosis and understanding of causes.

- B. Long term educational goals: depends on clarification of level of functioning
 - 1. Expectations for training: how far is child reasonably expected to grow intellectually? What level of life skills for some independent functioning? Some academic skills?
 - 2. Expectations for socialization: experience and capacity for relationships depends on speech development, mobility and some capacity for independent functioning
- C. Short-term goals: classroom functioning. How does child respond to instruction? Assess intellectual as well as adaptive level.

VI. Practice issues

- A. Strengths: definition of strengths with illustrations from students' practice
 - 1. Interest in learning or making contact with people. Some children who have not yet developed speech will attempt to make contact in non-verbal manner. Often we interpret these attempts in a negative manner if they are not made in a socially appropriate way, i.e., biting the teacher.
 - 2. Interest in independent functioning: often this may appear as a weakness because the client is more difficult to handle in a group.
 - 3. What are some examples of strengths of their own clients or themselves? How may we help a client use strengths

in a more positive manner?

- B. Supports for worker's acceptance of clients: Rules #1 and #2
 - 1. Increased knowledge and application of knowledge framework to practice
 - 2. Use of consultation and supervision to individualize clients
 - 3. Increased familiarity with population through consultation
- C. Demonstration of acceptance in practice
 - 1. Expression of interest in client
 - 2. Active listening or attending to client
 - 3. Non-punitive understanding of client
 - 4. Opposite of acceptance is expressed through:
 - a. ignoring
 - b. saying unplesant things, "for patient's own good"
 - c. laughing at patient
 - d. exhibiting a superior attitude
 - e. calling attention to weakness

VII. Generalization of rules in practice: using rules from all other units - discuss the following practice situations

- A. Young adult retarded woman at a pre-vocational training program moderately retarded and living at home with elderly mother who does not encourage any independent living skills. Young woman is sexually provocative toward young men in program and toward male staff. She makes very obvious and inappropriate

advances toward men. She has been found on several occasions having relations with fellow clients. This young woman has difficulty in learning grooming, hygiene and self care skills. How would you approach this client to help her in the training program?

- B. Five year old moderately-severely retarded boy in a modified day educational program for the developmentally disabled. The ultimate goal for training is the integration of the child in the public school system in special classes. The boy is not yet toilet trained and is involved in a special program to reach this goal. After breakfast, the child, along with others, is placed on potty for about twenty minutes and then taken off. The student's assignment is to work with him on individual projects after the potty training. This boy has been able to respond to training and is beginning to understand the process. As he has become more involved in his individual sessions with the student, however, he has lost what gains he had originally made and is now going to the bathroom in his pants during their sessions. The boy has some speech and seems to understand what is said to him. How would you approach this child to help him in the toilet training program?

VIII. Emotional impact of the disability on client and family

A. Family attitude

1. Family's non-acceptance of disability may foster dependence and lowered expectations. The family may be unable to allow the child opportunity to grow and to advance.
2. Family may keep child hidden and not allow child to participate in family or neighborhood functions

3. The severity and early diagnosis may affect family's attitude
- B. The experience of the handicapped client
1. Does client have feelings similar to normal people?
 2. Are clients aware of other's attitudes toward them?
 3. What about the experience of having a parent or teacher talk about child as though they were not present?

Rules:

1. Human service workers should accept clients with their limitations and should respond in a nonjudgemental manner.
2. Human service workers should be aware of their own preconceptions and initial impressions of the developmentally disabled.

Procedures:

1. Human service worker's understanding of the general causes of retardation and the difference between retardation and mental illness should help clarify preconceptions.
2. Human service workers discuss goals and objectives for individual clients with their teams.
3. Human service workers should be aware of the impact of the disability on the client's total experience as well as the impact of the disability on the total family experience.
4. Human service workers may apply rules for working with normal children to the task of working with the developmentally disabled.

APPENDIX D

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF DATA ON THE PERFORMANCE STANDARD FORMS FOR SEVENTEEN STUDENTS

Persons	Use of 10 and NA Rating ¹		Raw Scores ²		NA Scores ³	
	Mid	Final	Mid	Final	Mid	Final
1	68%	64%	337	341	6	6
2	68%	52%	330	317	6	6
3	76%	64%	375	389	4	2
4	47%	45%	263	342	5	2
7	82%	64%	358	344	4	3
8	72%	50%	321	319	6	3
9	82%	57%	347	370	6	2
10	63%	32%	318	320	6	2
11	68%	57%	316	347	7	1
12	29%	25%	104	328	9	3
13	61%	43%	354	338	4	4

TABLE 3 (Continued)

SUMMARY OF DATA ON THE PERFORMANCE STANDARD FORMS FOR SEVENTEEN STUDENTS

Persons	Use of 10 and NA Rating ¹		Raw Scores ²		NA Scores ³	
	Mid	Final	Mid	Final	Mid	Final
14	49%	39%	277	253	6	4
15	80%	71%	377	393	3	2
16	50%	32%	281	334	6	3
17	84%	85%	349	356	5	3
18	91%	77%	283	333	15	7
19	59%	62%	369	344	0	2

1. "Use" in this column refers to the percentage of ten and NA (not applicable) ratings on the performance standard form out of a total of forty-four performance standards.
2. Raw score is the total of all forty-four ratings on the performance standard form.
3. NA scores are the total amount of not applicable ratings of the forty-four performance standards.

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ABOVE MEDIAN ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES¹

Adaptive	Number	Mixed	Number	Functional	Number
I, 1 Student demonstrates an understanding of the team structure	7	I,4/5 Student demonstrates an awareness of appropriate presentation of self in the agency and awareness of the function of the team leader as a role model	8	III,1 Student demonstrates beginning understanding that technician's actions with clients are based on developmental tasks	2
I,2 Student demonstrates an awareness of function as a member of a human service team	6	II,1 Student demonstrates an understanding of differential concepts of observation used to organize facts	4	III,2 Student demonstrates a beginning understanding of concepts of non-judgemental and accepting attitudes in practice	3
I,3a Student demonstrates an understanding of her role and function in the team	6	II,2 Student demonstrates ability to seek out information from the team concerning normative behavior	0	III,3a Student demonstrates ability to understand rationale for methods of limit setting	7
I,3b Student demonstrates an acceptable level of work habits	5	II,3 Student demonstrates ability to use assessment in practice to develop client's autonomy and mastery	4	III,3b Student demonstrates ability to reinforce positive qualities through verbal and non verbal communication	3
I,6 Student demonstrates in practice the application of concepts of confidentiality	8			III,4b Student demonstrates ability to use assessment in practice to individualize clients	1

TABLE 4 (Continued)
NUMBER OF STUDENTS ABOVE MEDIAN ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES¹

Adaptive	Number	Mixed	Number	Functional	Number
III,4a Student demonstrates ability to participate in the process of assessment on individualization of client need	5	III,5 Student demonstrates ability to use assessment in practice to develop client's autonomy and mastery	1	IV,1 Student demonstrates a beginning ability to listen to and respond to clients	2
		VI,1 Student demonstrates an ability to assess individual strengths and limitations in working with the developmentally disabled	1	IV,2 Student demonstrates a beginning ability to communicate empathy and respect for clients	2
		VI,2 Student demonstrates a recognition of bias through consultation and supervision in work with the developmentally disabled	8	IV,3 Student demonstrates an understanding of goals of helping communication and their application to practice	6
				IV,4 Student demonstrates an ability to communicate at level of client's understanding	6
				V,1a Student demonstrates ability to use concepts of mutual support in the group	1

TABLE 4 (Continued)

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ABOVE MEDIAN ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES¹

Adaptive	Number	Mixed	Number	Functional	Number
				V,1b Student demonstrates understanding of the effect of styles of leadership on the group	1
				V,2 Student demonstrates understanding that leadership involves goal directed behavior	1

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1. See footnote 5, Chapter V for a fuller description of this measurement.

TABLE 5
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
3	I,1	1	I,4/5	3	III,1	2
	I,2	1	II,1	1	III,2	4
	I,3a	1	II,2	1	III,3a	2
	I,3b	2	II,3	1	III,3b	3
	I,6	1	III,5	2	III,4b	2
	III,4a	1	VI,1	1	IV,1	3
			VI,2	1	IV,2	2
					IV,3	2
					IV,4	2
					V,1a	4
					V,1b	1
					V,2	2

TABLE 5 (Continued)

STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
4	I,1	2	I,4/5	4	II,1	6
	I,2	2	II,1	2	III,2	6
	I,3a	2	II,2	2	III,3a	3
	I,3b	7	II,3	2	III,3b	5
	I,6	1	III,5	3	III,4b	2
			VI,1	3	IV1	3
			VI,2	2	IV,2	4
					IV,3	6
					IV,4	3
					V,1a	6
					V,1b	1
					V,2	2

TABLE 5 (Continued)
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
10	I,1	4	I,4/5	2	III,1	5
	I,2	5	II,1	6	III,2	3
	I,3a	4	II,2	6	III,3a	4
	I,3b	8	II,3	6	III,3b	2
	I,6	1	III,5	5	III,4b	4
	III,4a	5	VI,1	5	IV,1	2
			Vi,2	3	IV,2	3
					IV,3	5
					IV,4	1
					V,1a	2
					V,1b	3
					V,2	3

TABLE 5 (Continued)
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

Person	ADAPTIVE		MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
12	I,1	7	I,4/5	6	III,1	8
	I,2	8	II,1	7	III,2	7
	I,3a	8	II,2	7	III,3a	5
	I,3b	6	II,3	7	III,3b	7
	I,6	1	III,5	6	III,4b	6
	III,4a	6	VI,1	6	IV,1	5
			VI,2	6	IV,2	7
					IV,3	8
					IV,4	1
					V,1a	7
					V,1b	4
					V,2	4

TABLE 5 (Continued)
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
13	I,1	4	I,4/5	5	III,1	4
	I,2	3	II,1	3	III,2	5
	I,3a	5	II,2	3	III,3a	2
	I,3b	3	II,3	3	III,3b	6
	I,6	1	III,5	4	III,4b	1
	III,4a	3	VI,1	4	IV,1	4
			VI,2	4	IV,2	6
					IV,3	3
					IV,4	4
					V,1a	5
					V,1b	2
					V,2	2

TABLE 5 (Continued)

STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
14	I,1	5	I,4/5	5	III,1	7
	I,2	7	II,1	4	III,2	8
	I,3a	7	II,2	5	III,3a	2
	I,3b	5	II,3	4	III,3b	8
	I,6	1	III,5	7	III,4b	5
	III,4a	4	VI,1	7	IV,1	5
			VI,2	5	IV,2	8
					IV,3	7
					IV,4	4
					V,1a	6
					V,1b	6
					V,2	

TABLE 5 (Continued)
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
15	I,1	3	I,4/5	1	III,1	1
	I,2	4	II,1	4	III,2	1
	I,3a	3	II,2	3	III,3a	1
	I,3b	1	II,3	3	III,3b	1
	I,6	1	III,5	1	III,4b	3
	III,4a	4	VI,1	2	IV,1	1
			VI,2	1	IV,2	1
					IV,3	1
					IV,4	1
					V,1a	1
					V,1b	1
					V,2	1

TABLE 5 (Continued)
STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

ADAPTIVE			MIXED		FUNCTIONAL	
Person	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank	Learning Objective	Rank
16	I,1	6	1,4/5	2	III,1	3
	I,2	6	II,1	2	III,2	2
	I,3a	6	II,2	4	III,ea	4
	I,3b	4	II,3	5	III,3b	4
	I,6	1	III,5	4	III,4b	4
	III,4a	4	VI,1	4	IV,1	3
			VI,2	2	IV,2	5
					IV,3	4
					IV,4	3
					V,1a	3
					V,1b	5
					V,2	3

TABLE 5 (Continued)

STUDENT'S RANK ORDER¹ ON LEARNING OBJECTIVES²

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1. On each learning objective, each student's final mean score was ranked in descending order. The rank order measurement refers to the placement of the student's mean in relationship to the other students' mean scores. When mean scores were identical, the students occupied the same rank placement.
 2. In this table, learning objectives have been identified by number only. Refer to Appendix A or Appendix D, Table 4 for the full learning objective.

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