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THE ESTABLISHMENT OF COMPETENCIES PRE-REQUISITE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN UNDERGRADUATE COMPETENCY-BASED JUVENILE JUSTICE CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented

by

JANICE M. GAMACHE

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

MAY 1978

Education

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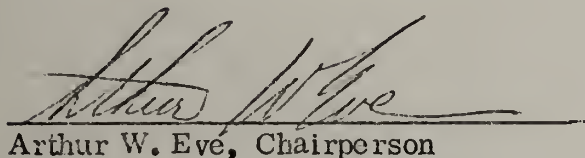

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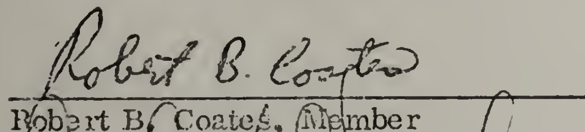

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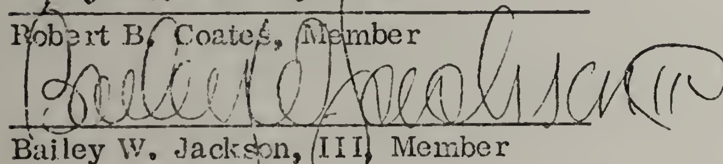

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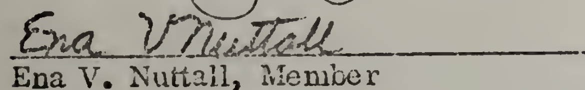

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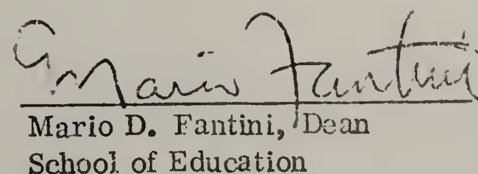

Mario D. Fantini, Dean
School of Education

DEDICATION

To my parents,

whose high value for education

has so greately contributed to

my own educational goals and

achievements.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this document represents more than the writing of a dissertation. It is, in some sense, the culmination of a number of years of study, work and relationships. I would like to take this opportunity to thank the many people who have helped and supported me through my years at the University of Massachusetts. This especially includes the people I have worked with in the Juvenile Justice Programs. I would like to express sincere thanks to Dr. Larry L. Dye, Dr. Bailey Jackson, Dr. Robert Winston, Rita Hardiman and James SanSouci. Each of them, in their own special way, has contributed to my learning and growth over a number of years.

I would also like to extend my gratitude to Dr. Arthur Eve, Dr. Ena Nuttall, Dr. Robert Coates, and again, Dr. Bailey Jackson for their support and guidance throughout the writing of this document. Also, sincere appreciation is extended to Commissioner John A. Calhoun and the staff and Youth of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services. Without their cooperation, this study would not have been possible.

I would like to express my appreciation to my sister Pat and friend Tom Crossley for their kind assistance with the computer aspects of this study, and the encouragement and friendship they offered.

I wish to express sincere thanks to my family for their continual encouragement, love and support. And finally, a very special appreciation to Ron Vogel whose encouragement, love and belief in me has helped make this document a reality.

ABSTRACT

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF COMPETENCIES PRE-REQUISITE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN UNDERGRADUATE COMPETENCY-BASED JUVENILE JUSTICE CURRICULUM

(May 1978)

Janice M. Gamache

B.A. University of Massachusetts/Amherst
M.Ed. University of Massachusetts/Amherst
Ed.D. University of Massachusetts/Amherst

Directed by Dr. Arthur W. Eve

Since 1971 the Massachusetts Juvenile Justice system has undergone a dramatic change in the way services are delivered to youth. The Massachusetts Department of Youth Services (DYS), responsible for the care and custody of the State's delinquent youth, moved from an institution-based to a community-based system of care. Of the implications resulting from this transition, the most important to this dissertation is the resultant need for the training and retraining of youth service personnel.

The purpose of this dissertation was to establish competencies necessary for the superior performance of selected youth service personnel employed in the Massachusetts community-based juvenile justice system. The focus of this study was limited to ascertaining those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability necessary for superior performance as a Massachusetts DYS caseworker. The intent of this study was to establish a set of competencies which can be used as a foundation for the development of a Competency-Based

juvenile justice curriculum.

After reviewing a variety of methodologies potentially useful in establishing areas of necessary competence, the Job Element Analysis (JEA), developed by Ernest S. Primoff, was selected for use in this study. JEA, used in the early stage of this study, was combined with validation techniques developed by David McClelland and his associates from the Institute for Competence Assessment.

The methodology used to determine the knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities necessary for superior performance as a DYS caseworker consisted of five major steps:

1. Generation of tentative elements and subelements related to superior performance as a DYS caseworker. These elements and subelements were generated by a) caseworkers who had been designated as superior performers by the Massachusetts DYS Central office; b) the direct supervisors of these caseworkers; and c) a sample of the consumers of caseworker services, delinquent youth who were placed in a community-based program.
2. Rating of the tentative elements and subelements using Primoff's Job Element Blank and rating procedures.
3. Tabulation of the results of the ratings.
4. Development of questionnaires formulated on the basis of the results of the tabulation in step 3. These questionnaires were distributed to all DYS caseworkers who rated their own performance in all

areas. They were also distributed to each caseworker's supervisor who both rated his/her subordinate's performance in all areas, as well as designated the caseworker's general level of performance as either superior or average.

5. Performance of t-tests on the data generated by questionnaires to determine those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability which are validly related to superior performance.

This study resulted in 48 areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability which are validly related to superior performance as a DYS caseworker. These 48 competencies reflect a significant difference in the mean performance ratings for superior and average workers. Of the 32 questionnaire elements related to ability, 72% were found to be significant. 82% of the attitude-related elements, and 100% of the skill-related elements were significant. Only 25% of the knowledge-related elements were rated significant.

Based on the results of this study the author recommends the establishment of competencies for other service-related roles in juvenile justice. Likely, there are a number of areas of overlap of competencies for various roles. In later curriculum development efforts these would form the generic areas of competence. Those areas unique to each role would become the areas of specialization within the curriculum.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Over the past eight years there have been a series of dramatic changes in the Massachusetts Juvenile Justice system. Under the initial direction of Commissioner Jerome Miller the state has moved from an institution-based system to a community-based system of care. The new community-based system operates on a purchase of service basis, with vendors competing for contracts from the Department of Youth Services (DYS).[1] Concomitant with this change in service delivery modes has been a change in manpower sources. Although the main source of personnel had previously been Civil Service, the new system uses the services of personnel employed in the private sector. And those civil servants who are still employed by DYS now have very different job roles than they did in the custodial system.[2] For both civil service workers and employees of the private sector, the skills and expertise needed to serve youth in a community-based service delivery system are radically different from those employed in a custodial system.[3] Recent

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[1]Edwin Powers, The Basic Structure of the Administration of Criminal Justice in Massachusetts (Boston: Massachusetts Correctional Association, 1973), p. 258.

[2]National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Corrections, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 487.

[3]Ibid., p. 538.

conversations with both John Calhoun, Commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, and Phyllis Tourse, Training Director for DYS, indicated that training is a problem and that they have a commitment to increased educational opportunities for staff. As outlined in these two conversations, creating such opportunities would ideally focus around the following three areas of need:

1. Making available degree-oriented, in-service training for all Department and private vendor staff;
2. Upgrading the minimal educational attainment level for various Department positions, especially entry-level positions such as floor supervisor; and
3. Providing a mechanism for recognizing and accrediting existing competence in qualified staff who do not hold degrees.

To date, there has been no assessment and public declaration of minimal professional competencies appropriate for juvenile justice personnel. Likewise, there is no comprehensive, accredited program of study currently offered in the Commonwealth which provides an opportunity for either pre or in-service juvenile justice workers to obtain the variety of skills and expertise necessary to perform effectively in the new system. There are nineteen post-secondary institutions in Massachusetts, offering at least thirty-one criminal justice related degree programs.[1] Of these, only the University of Massachusetts

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[1]Richard W. Kobetz, Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education Directory 1975-76, International Association of Chiefs of Police, Gaithersburg, Md. pp. 336-58.

Juvenile Justice Program focuses on juvenile justice, with degree programs ranging from baccalaureate through doctoral.

This information seems to indicate a shortage of degree-granting educational opportunities for those students seeking preparation in the area of juvenile justice. Data from the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services reveal that at least six-hundred persons are employed by the Department alone. In addition to this, DYS employs the services of 105 private vendors with an average of approximately ten staff per program, totalling 1,050. This yields a final approximate total of 1,650 persons employed in various aspects of youth service work in the Commonwealth.[1]

The need for providing suitable preparation for personnel of a community-based system may not be unique to Massachusetts. There is currently some evidence that the move toward community-based corrections may be the beginning of a national trend. Massachusetts, New York, Florida, Tenessee, Wisconsin and Vermont are among the leaders in implementing the concept. All but six states have now implemented community-based programs to varying degrees.[2] At the same time, a number of groups and commissions have pointed out the need for training in the juvenile justice system. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards

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[1]Telephone interview of Morrison Bump, Assistant Director of Personnel, Department of Youth Services, Boston, Mass., 14 February 1978.

[2]Robert D. Vinter, et al., Juvenile Corrections in the States: Residential Programs and Deinstitutionalization, National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections, University of Michigan, 1975, p. 51.

and Goals,[1] the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training,[2,3] the International Association of Chiefs of Police,[4] and the Administration of Justice,[5] concur on the paucity of both pre and in-service training. The more broadly the concept of community-based corrections is implemented, the more widespread the need for training in a non-custodial model will become.

Rationale for the Utilization of a Competency-Based Curriculum Model

It seems clear at the outset that the curriculum model chosen for this program must take into account the individual needs of learners. This program will serve a spectrum of students from older, highly skilled persons

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[1] National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Corrections, p. 494.

[2] Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, A Time to Act, (Lebanon, Pa.: Sowers Printing Co., 1969), pp. 21, 24, 25.

[3] Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, The Future of the Juvenile Courts, (Washington, D. C., 1968), pp. 39-41.

[4] Richard W. Kobetz and Betty Bosarge, Juvenile Justice Administration, International Association of Chiefs of Police (Gaithersburg, Md.), 1973, pp. 382-88.

[5] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 162.

with extensive experience, to younger pre-service students with virtually no experience. As such, it is necessary that the curriculum model be able to recognize and validate the differing levels of comptency brought to the learning stituation by each student. That is, the model used should incorporate a system for the assessment of competence and the awarding of appropriate credit based on this assessment. Because the curriculum will be directed toward the preparation of youth service personnel, the model utilized should, as much as possible, insure that program graduates are prepared to meet the demands of a yet emerging and ever changing system of community-based care.

Competency-Based Education (CBE) seems to meet such criteria. First, it is a highly individualized educational program allowing students to proceed at their own pace, and certifying the level of attained competence independent of formal instruction. Second, CBE is ideally suited to a program of professional preparation where specified areas of knowledge, skills, attitude and ability are to be imparted toward the attainment of a specified goal--in this case, presumably, improved service delivery to youth. Third, the Competency- Based approach provides a system of continuous feedback and re-examination of the curriculum, providing the manager of the learning process with ample information regarding modifications which may be needed.

Competency-Based Education emphasizes the importance of connections between professional competence and student learning experiences.[1] Analysis of professional responsibilities is a pre-requisite for curricular decisions. Based on the descriptors of a profession, a rationale is usually written to communicate the program's training purpose and goals. This written rationale and analysis of the competencies required of a profession become the basis of curriculum decisions and programmatic integration. The rationale and statement of the competencies form the foundation of the instructional system. Since the instructional system is oriented toward the development of skills in students, and not toward the providing of standard length courses, the major concern is the development of alternative ways to assist students in accomplishing the stated objectives. The curriculum provides for a range of learning styles, and is continually examined and modified to promote the most efficient assistance to students.

Students are assessed on the basis of measures closely and logically linked to competency statements. Standards of performance are written as part of a competency statement, so that students are aware beforehand of the level of performance expected of them. The assessment process is criterion-

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[1]David H. Keil, "Student Learning Through Community Involvement: A Report on Three Studies of the Service Learning Model," Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, July 1972, p. 1.

[2]AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, _Achieving the Potential of Performance-Based Teacher Education: Recommendations_, AACTE, Washington, D. C., 1974, p. 38.

referenced, not norm referenced. Competency statements describe the setting and conditions for assessment, the content of the performance expected, and the level of performance for acceptable professional practice. Successful achievement, as a result, is based upon a trainee's meeting the prescribed professional criteria, rather than upon competition with fellow trainees to determine those who passed.

The grade system of most competency-based programs is based upon achievement of a student's own goals, and not on competition for grades. Most often, a grade report listing a student's progress toward mastery of competencies is a listing of that student's selected competency goals with notations of "yes" and "not yet."

The competency-based system, as noted before, is not based upon time in the program, but on students' progress toward completing a list of stated competencies. Students proceed at their own pace, with the advice and assistant of an academic counselor who helps the student determine the sequence and area of concentration. Students already in a professional field, or who have considerable related experience, may enter a competency-based program with one or several of the required competencies. The student may arrange to demonstrate those competencies immediately, and be given credit for this prior knowledge and skill. This particular aspect makes CBE a very attractive modality for in-service training, affording experienced in-

service workers an opportunity to engage in a program which is accelerated in accordance with their own ability and mastery levels. Students graduate when they have demonstrated the acquisition of all competencies.

In summary, then, the following definition of CBE is offered as one appropriate to the purposes of this study:

> Competency-Based Education (CBE) is a system of instruction which holds that the learner has completed his preparation only when he effectively does the job he has been learning to do. CBE maintains that the more traditional systems of education are characterized by students accumulating, organizing, and classifying knowledge, or by participating in required learning tasks. CBE maintains that these learning activities are insufficient preparation for actually performing effectively on the job.[1]

Purpose of the Study

This study is directed toward the development of the early stages of a curriculum designed around the perceived needs of youth-serving agencies. The purpose of this study was to establish the areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability necessary for superior performance in a selected position within the Massachusetts community-based system of juvenile justice. The position selected for analysis was that of DYS caseworker. Subsequent analysis of this data resulted in a series of competency statements which will form the foundation of a baccalaureate level, juvenile justice curriculum.

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[1] Charles E. Johnson and Gilbert F. Shearron, "Specifying and Writing Occupational Competencies," (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 115, 768, 1975), p. 2.

The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. Identify target positions in the juvenile justice system appropriate to the mastery and competence level of baccalaureate study;
2. Design a system for the identification of a single position which subsequently became the focus of the study;
3. Adapt the Job Element Analysis procedure as a means of obtaining a data base for the subsequent development of competency statements; and
4. Develop recommendations based on the Job Element Analysis as to those competencies related to the position studied which ought to be included in an undergraduate competency-based juvenile justice curriculum.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are operationally defined for purposes of this study:

Community-Based Care - A system of service-delivery programs located within communities, designed to improve the care and treatment of youthful offenders. This system represents an alternative to an institution-based custodial model of service delivery.

Competency-Based Education - An educational system designed to develop students' intellectual, attitudinal, and/or motor capabilities derived from an analysis of a specific job role and setting.[1,2]

Desinstitutionalization - The process of closing large institutions.

Department of Youth Services - In Massachusetts, the state agency with responsibility for the care and supervision of those youths, age seven to seventeen, who have come into conflict with the law.

Job Analysis - The systematic process of collecting and making certain judgements about all of the perintent information relating to the nature of a specific job.[3]

Job Element - A skill, ability, attitude or area of knowledge which is of importance to successful job performance.

Assumptions in the Study

1. Subjects participating in this study are knowledgeable about the job role addressed in questionnaires.
2. The research methodology employed in this study (Job Element Analysis) is a valid method for establishing competence areas necessary for quality performance in juvenile justice.

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[1]Daniel J. Dobbert, A General Model for Competency-Based Curriculum Development (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Svc, ED 122 386, 1976).

[2]Mildred Turney, et al., Competency Based Education, What is It? (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Svc, ED 114 361, 1974).

[3]U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, Job Analysis: Key to Better Management, 1973, p. 3.

3. Subjects will respond honestly and candidly when completing questionnaires.

Limitations of the Study

Since subjects included in this study are from Massachusetts, the competencies established may not be generalizeable nationwide.

Design of the Study

This study focused on the establishment of competencies necessary for superior performance in a selected position within the Massachusetts community-based system of juvenile justice. The position selected for analysis was that of DYS caseworker. The data collected were subsequently analyzed and organized into competency statements appropriate to the study of juvenile justice on the baccalaureate level. True to the CBE model these competencies will be used as the foundation for future curriculum building.

The design for this study relies heavily upon the work of Ernest S. Primoff as published in his book How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations. The design used for the administration of Self Report Checklists and Caseworker Checklists is based on the work of Dr. David McClelland of Harvard and his associates at the Institute for Competence Assessment.[1] The Job Element Analysis, developed by Primoff, was used to ascertain

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[1] Paul S. Pottinger, Description of Job Element Analysis and Behavioral Event Analysis Techniques, Institute for Competence Assessment, Boston, 1977.

those elements of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability which constitute job success as a Department of Youth Services caseworker.

A brief description of the methodology utilized in this study follows:

1. Developing a system for the selection of the position to be analyzed in this study;
2. Selecting the position to be analyzed;
3. Generating a list of those elements of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability which constitute job success in this position. This data is generated by both superior job incumbents of the designated position as well as supervisors of incumbents;
4. Interviewing the consumers of services provided by the job incumbents to ascertain what elements of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability they believe constitute job success;
5. Rating of elements by job incumbents and supervisors;
6. Analyzing data resulting from ratings;
7. Development of Self Report Checklists based on the analysis of data in step six;
8. Administering checklists;
9. Analyzing data from checklists to determine the competencies related to successful job performance in the position under study; and
10. Describing competencies based on the analysis in step nine.

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter one consists of a statement of the problem and an introduction to the dissertation. The statement of the problem includes a brief history of the community-based care model as it exists in the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services. It also establishes the need for job-relevant educational opportunities for juvenile justice workers, and proposes Competency-Based Education as a vehicle for meeting this need. Chapter two includes a review of selected literature examining the transition of DYS from a custodial philosophy to a philosophy of community-based care. Next it reviews the development of the University of Massachusetts Juvenile Justice Programs' response to the evolving needs of the Department of Youth Services. This is followed by an examination of criminal justice higher education in general and educational opportunities in Massachusetts in particular. The chapter concludes with a discussion of Competency-Based Education and a review of existing job analysis techniques which may be used in the development of a CBE curriculum. Chapter three presents the methodology used in this study, closely examining the Job Element Analysis as it was adapted for purposes of this dissertation. The results of the study are presented and analyzed in Chapter four. The final chapter, Chapter five, summarizes the study, draws conclusions and sets forth recommendations. This section also includes a discussion of this study for curriculum design and program development.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

This chapter begins with an examination of the recent history of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services. The focus is on the deinstitutionalization process which began in 1971 and resulted in the development of a community-based system of care. This section on DYS is followed by a summary of the development of the University of Massachusetts Juvenile Justice Programs. Beginning with an examiniation of the role of the University in the process of deinstitutionalization, this segment then recounts the development of the various Juvenile Justice Program components. This portion of the chapter concludes with an overview of the Juvenile Justice academic component, tracing its origins, development and pedagogical orientation for the reader.

In order to provide a broader context for viewing the Juvenile Justice academic component the reader is next provided with an historical overview of the development of criminal justice higher education, both nationally and here in the Commonwealth. This section examines both existing opportunities as well as curricular gaps in current juvenile justice programming. Based on current needs for the training and re-training of community-based youth

service personnel the author proposes the use of a Competency-Based curriculum model in conjunction with job analysis. Chapter II concludes with an examiniation of Competency-Based Education and a review of existing job analysis techniques.

Brief History of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services

"Since 1969 the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services has been the most visible national symbol of a new philosophy of corrections through its repudiation of the public training school approach and its advocacy of therapeutic communities and alternative community-based services."[1] These changes in philosophy were set in motion with the appointment of Dr. Jerome Miller as the Commissioner of Massachusetts Department of Youth Services in 1969. Dr. Miller was brought to the state amid "pressure for change (in DYS) by the legislature, the public, the media, and professional and civic organizations."[2] At this time the state was operating five large training schools and four detention centers.[3] Programming was virtually

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[1] Lloy E. Ohlin, Robert B. Coates, and Alden D. Miller, "Radical Correctional Reform: A Case Study of the Massachusetts Youth Correctional System" in Juvenile Correctional Reform in Massachusetts, prepared by Ohlin, Coates and Miller, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1977, p. 1.

[2] Yitzhak Bakal, "Closing Massachusetts' Institutions: A Case Study," in Closing Correctional Institutions, ed. Yitzhak Bakal (Lexington, Mass., Lexington Books, 1973), p. 155.

[3] Ibid., pp. 153-154.

non-existent; staff for the most part were untrained Civil Service employees and the products of a flourishing patronage system;[1] ". . . punishment (was) a key organizing principle. . ."[2] relying on "'raps' (slaps across the face), beatings, mass push-ups for two hours with feet raised on benches, standing at meals without talking, being handcuffed hand and foot to beds, five-hour work-outs."[3] Oftentimes, youth were sent to the institutions on status offenses, and because of the indeterminate nature of the sentencing were all but forgotten. During Miller's commissionership much of this was changed.

> The change from institutional to community care for youth in Massachusetts came about because this State, although well intentioned, was failing to effectively rehabilitate the juveniles adjudged legally delinquent and committed to its care by the courts. This failure to care took the form of isolated institutions, apart from the rest of society, wherein antiquated methods of "therapy" and "education" were practiced. Youths who underwent institutional care in the State reform schools showed a predictable and alarming tendency to reappear in the judicial and penal system. . . Recidivism studies in the State that revealed more than a 70 percent return rate for reform school graduates confirmed that the "reform" schools failed to treat the underlying problems created in the child through poverty or family neglect.[4]

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[1] Larry Dye, Juvenile Junkyards: A Descriptive Case Study of the Organization and Philosophy of the County Training Schools in Massachusetts, dissertation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, 1972, p. 269.

[2] Ohlin, Coates and Miller, "Radical Correctional Reform: A Case Study of the Massachusetts' Correctional System,", p. 1.

[3] Larry L. Dye, Juvenile Junkyards: A Descriptive Case Study of the Organization and Philosophy of the County Training Schools in Massachusetts, p. 275.

[4] Yitzhak Bakal, "The Massachusetts Experience," Delinquency Prevention Reporter, (April, 1973), p. 1.

Under Miller's administration the effectiveness of the training schools was closely scrutinized and criticized. At one point Miller even stated that "training schools are so bad that the average kid would be better on the streeet."[1] Whatever seemed probable for effecting the sought-after reforms was likely to be tried. When it was obvious that changing the way youth were treated in institutions was impossible, the institutions were closed.

With the closing of the state facilities there came a need to develop some method of service to youth. Rather than devise a new state-staffed system a state-wide purchase of service system was set up. According to this method, a number of independently operated programs around the state submitted proposals to the Department, competing for youth service contracts. Since there were very few groups involved in child care for delinquent youth previous to this, this period saw a great push from both the community and the Department of Youth Services administration to develop a network of innovative and effective programs. "Massachusetts began replacing its training school system with a network of halfway houses, group homes, foster homes, work programs, counseling programs and community action programs."[2] It was at this point in time that the University of Massachusetts began its relationship with the Department of Youth Services, thus offering a unique example of what is meant by University Public Service.

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[1] "Alternatives to Prison," Time, Vol. 100, No. 4, July 24, 1972, p. 54.

[2] Richard W. Kobetz and Betty B. Bosarge, Juvenile Justice Administration, p. 544.

The University of Massachusetts-Based DYS Programs

At the same time that the Department of Youth Services was undergoing philosophical and programmatic shifts, the University of Massachusetts was also rethinking some of its goals and objectives. In December 1971, the Presidents' Committee on the Future University of Massachusetts published its final report. The substance of this report was a series of recommendations of key importance to the future direction of the University of Massachusetts. Two recommendations, in particular, address the role which the University was to play in the deinstitutionalization efforts of the Department of Youth Services:

> 1) . . . the University must do far more in the area of public service to the Commonwealth and its citizens in the seventies than it has done in the past.
>
> 2) . . . public service administrators should be watchful for new opportunities for appropriate service, for we think the University can serve a community much wider than its traditional clientele.[1]

This report, then, helped to set the climate for the University's participation in deinstitutionalization and its subsequent role in community-based program development. The first University effort at assisting the Department of Youth Services came in the form of a month long conference designed to facilitate the closing of the Lyman Industrial School for Boys, the oldest industrial school in the nation.

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[1] Vernon R. Alden et al, Report of the President's Committee on the Future University of Massachusetts, n. p. Boston, Mass., December 1971, pp. 91, 95.

> The University of Massachusetts Conference was organized to transfer a large number of youths out of the institutions into the community quickly enough to avoid excessive disruption and to get the job done before crippling opposition could develop. Ninety-nine boys and girls from Lyman, Lancaster, and two detention centers were taken to the University of Massachusetts for a month in January-February 1972. College students served as advocates for the DYS youth while placements for them were worked out at the conference. The college students were selected from three colleges and universities in the area by members of the Juvenile Opportunities Extension, a University of Massachusetts student organization that had been participating extensively in the program at the Westfield institution. Arrangements for future placement of youth, e.g., sending them home, were worked out in a collaborative manner between the DYS staff, the advocate, and the youth themselves by considering the range of program alternatives and the needs of specific youth.[1]

The outcomes of the month-long program seemed to indicate that the two objectives of the conference staff were achievable:

> (1) To involve the University in social action, and
> (2) to illustrate that college youth could function as valuable correctional resources by helping to place youthful offenders in the community.[2]

The University had become an integral part of the developing state-wide service network for youth.

Post-conference feedback was positive.

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[1] Ohlin, Coates and Miller, "Radical Correctional Reform: A Case Study of the Massachusetts Youth Correctional System,", pp. 13, 14.

[2] Robert B. Coates, Alden D. Miller, and Lloyd E. Ohlin, "A Strategic Innovation in the Process of Deinstitutionalization: The University of Massachusetts Conference, in Bakal, Closing Correctional Institutions,

> Interviews with several key University personnel (including the campus police, deans, and Campus Center staff) were conducted to obtain their assessment of the conference. These individuals were very positive about the conference and the role which the university had played. One source indicated that he believed it had been a "great learning experience for all of us at the University." The major value was that it exposed the University community to the DYS youth and their problems and focused attention on the entire problem of juvenile corrections.[1]

Many students who had participated as staff and advocates for youth had become very much interested in what was going on in DYS. Enthusiasm was high as was the demand for further development of institutional alternatives.

The Juvenile Opportunities Extension (JOE) Program, which had served as the coordinating body for the University of Massachusetts conference, was operating with more students than ever before. This program alone provided approximately 700 additional man-hours per week during the 1971-1972 academic year,[2] thus making a significant contribution to both the youth and staff of the Westfield Detention Center.

At this point in time the need of the Department of Youth Services for expansion of community-based care programs combined with the energy and

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[1] Coates, Miller and Ohlin, pp. 25 and 26.

[2] Ruth Noymer, Karen Prentice, Ernest Reis, "Juvenile Opportunities Extension Volunteer Program for 1973," proposal submitted to the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, Amherst, Mass., p. 1 (mimeographed).

commitment of involved University staff and students. Negotiations between these two groups spawned what came to be known as the Massachusetts Association for the Reintegration of Youth (M.A.R.Y.).

M.A.R.Y. was designed to serve as a short-term buffer between the institution (usually the detention center) and a more permanent placement (either the youth's own community or an alternative). Twelve students, each assigned a single dormitory room, shared space, time, concern and skills with an equal number of youth. These students served as advocates for the youth, doing everything possible to make their relatively brief stay meaningful and their subsequent placement both appropriate and beneficial.

Although M.A.R.Y. was designed around the involvement of undergraduate students living on campus there were also a significant number of graduate students interested in making similar commitments. For the most part the graduate students were older and had more training in areas such as counseling than did the undergraduates. In many instances it was the students' prior experience with alienated youth which had piqued their interest in these programs.

In an effort to capitalize on this interest and expertise and provide services for the more difficult youth, the Advocates for the Development of Human Potential Program was created. The placements into this program were usually for a minimum of one year although actual time spent in the program varied for each youth. Youth were placed with advocates who acted

as guardians, and offered a supportive home environment. Advocates received support money for the youth, a graduate student stipend, and academic credit, usually toward the Master's Degree.

A few months after the establishment of the M.A.R.Y. and Advocate Programs, work began on the planning and development of an alternative school for the DYS youth in the programs' care. This school was directed by graduate students and staffed by certified teachers, student teachers and undergraduate students doing practicums. The main goal of the school is to get youth motivated to learn. Students' academic programs are individually negotiated, classes are small, and one-to-one tutorials common. Programmatically a major emphasis is placed on preparation for the GED (General Educational Development) test, the Massachusetts high school equivalency examination.

The Undergraduate Academic Program in Juvenile Justice

This account of the development of the University-based Juvenile Justice Programs has spanned a period of approximately three years, from the fall of 1971 through 1974. Course records for this period show that literally hundreds of students participated at various levels of involvement; some for one course, others taking nearly full course loads with the programs for several semesters.

The sheer magnitude of student involvement and interest dictated the development of a program for undergraduates. Up to this point, those

undergraduates who worked almost exclusively with the programs (usually juniors and seniors) most often sought out majors such as BDIC (Bachelor's Degree with Individualized Concentration), UWW (University Without Walls), or a non-teaching major in the School of Education. The programs' faculty director already sponsored several students in their independent, though very similar, academic programs. Although individually each of these options were probably suitable, from an administrative standpoint, the development of an undergraduate academic program in Juvenile Justice was seen as a way of consolidating and facilitating advising, supervision, and course offerings.

Up to this point, the main focus of the programs had been experiential learning supplemented by courses in Juvenile Delinquency, Drug Use and Abuse, and a weekly seminar featuring innovative leaders in juvenile justice from across the state and, on occasion, the nation. However, these offerings still left many curricular gaps to be filled. It was felt that courses in counseling, adolescent psychology, sexuality, racism, sexism, law, and many other areas were needed. Though several of these areas were touched upon in the Juvenile Delinquency class or at the seminars, coverage seemed less than adequate. There was a real need to map out a delinquency curriculum thereby providing a way to communicate to students those areas important to master for competence in the field. Doing so would also provide a structure for those students who find the latitude of self-designed curriculum difficult to manage. Obviously, a major component of this new program would be experiential learning.

In the fall of 1974, planning for the new major began. A student needs assessment was done. This data, along with input from the directors and staff of the J.O.E., M.A.R.Y., Teen Learning Center, and Advocate Programs, was then compiled into a proposal for a new undergraduate program in Juvenile Justice. Upon approval of the School of Education's Teacher Education Council, the Juvenile Justice Program became the School's second undergraduate non-teaching program.

In the spring semester of 1975, the undergraduate academic program admitted its first group of students. At this point, all students in the program had been working with the Juvenile Justice Service Programs right along, as it was for these students that the program had initially been established. The new program had a dual focus of theory and practice. Although it maintained a strong emphasis on the value of practical experience it gave equal attention to imparting the theory through which this experience could be analyzed and conceptualized. That first program semester the following coures (T) and practica (P) were offered:

- (T) Introduction to the Juvenile Justice System and Delinquency
- (T) Methods to Teach Problem Teens in an Alternative School
- (T) Counseling Theory for Troubled Youth
- (P) Practicum in Education: Special Educational Needs of Problem Adolescents

- (P) Practicum in Education: Youth Growth and Development

- (P) State Agencies and Delinquent Youth

Although this was a beginning, there was still much curriculum development left to be done. Some of the gaps in this first semester's offerings can be seen by comparing them to the following section quoted from the original program proposal:

> The basic knowledge and skill areas to be addressed by the program are as follows:
>
> 1) juvenile justice systems and how they work
> 2) administration
> 3) counseling
> 4) racism and sexism
> 5) sexuality and drug abuse
> 6) education as related to delinquency and delinquency prevention[1]

During the ensuing semesters the program underwent a variety of modifications and refinements. New courses were tried, evaluated, and either maintained or dropped. Feedback from the students registered for the courses was the strongest single factor in these decisions. Courses offered included the following:

-Introduction to Counseling
-Adolescent Psychology and the Delinquent
-Program Funding and Management
-Introduction to Criminal Justice
-The Dynamics of Human Sexuality
-In-Service Training for Teachers of Troubled Teens
-Educational Methods: Alternatives for Teacher of Problem Youth
-Achievement Motivation Workshop

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[1] Janice Gamache and Bailey W. Jackson, III, "Proposal for the Development of an Undergraduate Program in Juvenile Justice," University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Fall, 1974.

-Racism Awareness Training
-Introduction to Organizational Dynamics
-Sexism Awareness Training
-Assertiveness Training
-Adolescent Drug Use and Abuse
-Power Workshop
-Social Issues I (Racism and Drug Abuse)
-Social Issues II (Sexism and Sexuality)
-The Ethical and Philosophical Underpinnings of the Criminal Justice System
-The Theory and Practice of Juvenile Justice
-The Female Offender
-Counseling Third World Youth[1]

Since the beginning of the program, students have been required to take forty-five credits with the program, half in practicum work and the other half in coursework. Of the twenty-three required course credits, eighteen of these must be in Juvenile Justice Program courses. The rest of them may be taken in other departments as long as they serve to enhance the students' understanding of some aspect of delinquency.

As of fall semester, 1977, a new policy was implemented requiring that students distribute their practica into four broad areas with a concentration of no more than ten (10) credits in any one area.

The four (4) areas are:

1) prevention programs
2) detention programs
3) residential programs
4) non-residential programs

Also in the fall semester 1977, a mandatory two and one-half hour

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[1] All information included in this section is based on documents in the files of the Juvenile Justice Programs, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

per week practicum support group was added. Utilizing a small group format, groups of about seven or eight undergraduates meet weekly with a supervising graduate student to share experiences and to give and receive suggestions and support. In addition, the graduate student supervisors visit the students' practicum site in order to gain as accurate a picture as possible of the students' work environment, working relationships, and strengths and weaknesses on the job.

Additional feedback to the student is provided through the use of bi-weekly evaluation forms which are completed by each students' practicum site supervisor. These forms are made available to the students who chart their own progress over the course of the semester. The practicum site supervisor's final evaluation comes in the form of a letter of recommendation which is included in the student's file and is available to him/her for future employment references.

In order that students be at least minimally prepared for their initial practicum experience they are required to complete the following courses before undertaking field work:

1) Introduction to Juvenile Delinquency
2) Adolescent Psychology
3) Counseling
4) Juveniles and the Law

Once the student has satisfactorily completed the required forty-five program credits, has satisfied the University's Arts and Sciences requirements, and has accumulated a total of one-hundred twenty (120) credit hours, he/she is deemed eligible for graduation.

In most respects, the current Juvenile Justice curriculum is like many of its counterparts in juvenile justice and criminal justice higher education programs. If a difference does exist between this program and other criminal justice programs, it lies in the amount of and emphasis placed upon the practicum component of the curriculum.[1] Identified by a variety of titles including experiential education, off-campus education, service learning, internships, and apprenticeships, the inclusion of a practicum in the curriculum is not unique, its role having been firmly established for quite some time in a number of disciplines.

> In some fields, for example, medicine, education, and social work to name more obvious instances, it is a pedagogical truism that field experience is an integral part of training.[2]

In his article "A Brief History of Service Learning Internship Programs," John Corey documents this teaching/learning style as a nationwide trend.

> Recent educational conferences. . . indicate not only that community-based experiential learning has grown dramatically in recent years as a curricular feature of higher education but also that this empirical learning style is to be a major trend in the immediate academic future of the nation.[3]

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[1] In 1976 the author and her colleagues made a nation-wide survey of undergraduate and graduate programs in Juvenile Justice, Criminal Justice and Corrections. This survey revealed that less than half of the identified programs offered field work as a required part of their curriculum, and that those curricula which did include field work nearly always treated it as a minor curriculum component. (unpublished report)

[2] John B. Stephenson and Robert F. Sexton, Experiential Education and the Revitalization of the Liberal Arts: A Working Paper (Bethesda, Md: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 096 867, 1974), p. 14.

[3] John F. Corey, Ed., A Brief History of Service-Learning Internship Programs (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Sev. ED 070, 375, 1972)

Corey is not alone in his observation that experiential learning is catching hold in American education. A number of other authors concur, and offer the following reasons for the momentum field-based learning is gaining in curricula:

> 1) The student with a real work situation on their resume . . . is more competitive in a tight job market.[1]
>
> 2) Many of today's students seek to find some authoritative cause, some purpose beyond themselves to which they can commit their energies, which would provide not only a mode for self expression, but would be socially regenerative as well.[2]
>
> 3) Our traditional institutions of higher learning are being criticized for isolating students from the real world rather than preparing them for playing valuable roles as problem solvers in society.[3]

Moreover, educators are becoming increasingly aware of the benefits to be reaped from an educational model which successfully merges theory and its application.

> We have argued that an experience becomes more meaningful when combined with abstraction. In experiential learning situations, the reverse can just as easily be the case. In this case, the abstraction (the theory, the generality) can be tested in a non-theoretical environment, its validity can be assessed in a concrete instance, its extension to this particularity examined, and the practical applications determined. One would hope further that when merged with experience the theory will also be better remembered and used in the future.[4]

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[1] Stephenson and Sexton, Revitalization of the Liberal Arts, p. 15.

[2] Association of American Colleges, Play for Mortal Stakes: Vocation and the Liberal Learning (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 026 019, 1969), p. 5.

[3] David H. Keil, Student Learning Through Community Involvement: A Report on Three Studies of the Service Learning Model, p. 1.

[4] Stephenson and Sexton, Revitalization of the Liberal Arts, p. 18.

Robert L. Sigmon argues that service-learning can not only fill some of the gaps left by traditional education but can also serve to prepare students educated in this mode for lifelong learning:

> Most of the current emphasis in education is on factual information, content delivery and the preparation of specific skills. Research tells us that within five years this kind of education is either forgotten or outdated. This loss to society and the individual is a result of the failure to recognize that learning is a constant factor of human experience from birth to death. I believe that educational relevance occurs when individuals begin to deal competently and compassionately with their experience of the world.[1]

While Sigmon argues that an experiential educational mode can prepare the students for lifelong learning by teaching them to become their own teachers, others argue that the primary implication of service-learning is the sharing of the responsibility for teaching and the joy of learning by both student and teacher who interact as equals in the educational process. Meyer and Petry assert that the concept of equality of learners--teacher/student, supervisor/student is of central import to service learning.[2]

In his book, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Paulo Friere expounds his theory of problem-posing education:

> The problem-posing method does not dichotomize the activity of the teacher-student: he is not "cognitive" at one point and "narrative" at another. He is always

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[1] Robert L. Sigmon, Service-Learning: An Educational Style (Bethesda, Md: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 086 076, 1970), p. 14.

[2] Peter Meyer and Sherry L. Petry, Off-Campus Education: An Inquiry (Bethesda, Md: ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 080 052, 1972).

> "cognitive," whether preparing a project or engaging in dialogue with the students. He does not regard cognizable objects as his private property, but as the object of reflection by himself and the students. In this way the problem-posing educator constantly reforms his reflections in the reflection of the students. The students--no longer docile listeners --are now critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher. The teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers his earlier considerations as the students express their own. The role of the problem posing educator is to create, together with the students, the conditions under which knowledge at the level of the doxa is superceded by true knowledge at the level of the logos. [1]

Thus far the author has presented the reader with a brief history of the deinstitutionalization process in Massachusetts and the role which the University of Massachusetts has played in that same process. We saw how widespread interest and participation in community-based youth service programs led to concomitant demands for an academic program focusing on an examination of Juvenile Justice. We examined the development and history of the Juvenile Justice Academic Program giving particular attention to the undergraduate program. Subsequently, we examined the practicum component, the distinguishing characteristic of the undergraduate curriculum, in light of several authors' findings and theories on the role of experiential learning in the educational process.

Later on in this paper the author will propose yet another curriculum concept, one which she feels more aptly suits the needs of professionals working

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[1] Paulo Friere, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, (New York: Seabury Press, 1970), p. 68.

in a community-based juvenile justice service delivery system. However, before such a proposal it may be useful to make a brief examination of the history of criminal justice education in America as a way of providing a context for the discussion of alternatives.

Criminal Justice Higher Education in America--
A Brief Review

"Probably no part of higher education has increased more substantially in the past few years than criminal justice higher education."[1] Although isolated criminal justice-oriented courses were offered as early as 1914,[2] by the year 1960, ". . . only 26 higher educational institutions offered full-time law enforcement programs."[3] Most of these early offerings seem to have been narrow in focus, dealing primarily with law enforcement, penology and criminology.[4]

During the fifties and early sixties the outlook of criminal justice higher education grew only a bit brighter. Several organizations including the American Correctional Association and the National Probation and Parole

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[1] Joseph J. Senna, "Criminal Justice Higher Education--Its Growth and Directions," Crime and Delinquency 20(October 1974): 389.

[2] Jack L. Kuykendall, "Criminal Justice Programs in Higher Education: Course and Curriculum Orientations," Journal of Criminal Justice, 5:149.

[3] Senna, "Criminal Justice Higher Education," p. 390.

[4] Vincent O'Leary, "Programs of Correctional Study in Higher Education," Crime and Delinquency 22 (January 1976): 53.

Association" were promulgating standards which required college preparation for a significant number of correctional positions."[1] Yet there was still very little dollar commitment to the expanded development of such programs on the part of colleges and universities. The true state of the art as of the middle sixties is perhaps best described by this summary of the survey conducted by the Pilot Study of Correctional Training and Manpower:

> In the 1965-66 academic year, only 96 (16 percent) of a sample of 602 colleges and universities offered courses in corrections or correctional administration. The most usual number of courses offered was one, and it was typically located in the department of sociology-anthropology. More than three quarters of them required no practical field work with the courses. The schools reported that shortages of funds, space, and faculty were responsible for lack of courses in corrections; that enough able and interested students were available, as were opportunities in correctional agencies for field work experience.[2]

Further support of this portrait of the mid-sixties can be found in the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals report on Corrections when the authors state that prior to this time, ". . . large numbers of correctional workers had never taken a college level course."[3] The Commission then goes on to cite some specific problems in criminal

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[1] O'Leary, pp. 53-54.

[2] President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report on Corrections (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 99.

[3] National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Corrections, p. 468.

justice higher education:

1. Criminology and corrections degree programs were developed erratically and frequently were terminated when once-interested faculty left.
2. Social work graduates rarely chose corrections careers although the Master of Social Work degree was a preferred credential for probation and parole as well as some institutional positions.
3. Sparse, if any, financial assistance in the form of loans or scholarships was available to preservice or inservice personnel.
4. Institutions of higher education rarely provided more than token assistance to staff development efforts in nearby correctional programs.[1]

However, 1967 saw the beginning of a rather dramatic shift toward accelerated criminal justice higher education development. Earlier commission recommendations for the establishment of minimal educational requirements for criminal justice personnel were fortified by the "President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice published in 1967. This was followed by

> The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders in 1968, the Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence in 1969, the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training in 1970, the American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice in 1972, and the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals in 1973.[2]

In 1968 some real substance was given these recommendations with the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act. As a result of this piece of legislation the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) was created and "authorized to carry out programs of academic

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Larry T. Hoover and Dennis W. Lund, Guidelines for Criminal Justice Programs in Community and Junior Colleges, Michigan State University Printing for the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges 1977), pp. 7-8.

educational assistance to improve and strengthen law enforcement."[1] A specific branch of LEAA, the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP), was created to both encourage new practitioners to enter the criminal justice field as well as support the ongoing education of existing personnel.[2]

> Probably more than any other endeavor it (LEEP) has brought about the tremendous growth in the number of students seeking higher education in criminal justice, as well as in the number of institutions conducting such programs.[3]

Robert Culbertson reported in 1975 that since LEEP's inception:

> $142,500,000 has been invested in criminal justice education, largely in the form of tuition grants. In addition, $6,750,000 has been expended in the funding of internship programs and $1,750,000 has been expended in funding graduate research fellowships.[4]

Needless to say, the availability of such large amounts of funding motivated many previously uninvolved institutions to develop new programs. However, there is some disagreement as to the relative importance of the role which LEEP played in the stimulation of criminal justice education nationwide. Although recognizing LEEP and the national commissions as two significant moving forces, some feel that the expansion of criminal justice

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[1] Charles W. Tenny, Jr., Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Gov't Printing Office, 1972), p. 44.

[2] Kuykendall, "Criminal Justice Curriculum Orientations," p. 150.

[3] Senna, "Criminal Justice Higher Education," p. 390.

[4] Robert G. Culbertson, "Criminal Justice Education--for What?" paper presented at the 79th Annual Meeting of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts and Letters, Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 4-5, 1975, p. 2.

education to its current stature is primarily due to the emergence of the community college as a viable institution of higher education in the U.S.

> It is not suggested that the initiation of the Law Enforcement Education Program or the recommendations of national crime study commissions had no impact. However, the impact of these two factors has been greatly exaggerated. The primary cause of the expansion of criminal justice education. . . is the emergence of the community college.[1]

Conversely, others feel that LEEP was the stimulus for much of the community college system's growth.[2,3]

Whatever agent may properly claim credit, one thing seems certain--that criminal justice has developed, albeit recently, as a bona fide discipline nationwide. The following chart testifies to this growth during the period 1966-1976:

Criminal Justice Programs in Colleges and Universities in the United States as Reported by the International Association of Chiefs of Police[4]

Directory	Associate	Baccalaureate	Masters	Doctorate	Number of Institutions
1966-1967	152	39	14	4	184
1968-1969	199	44	13	5	234
1970-1971	257	55	21	7	292
1972-1973	505	211	41	9	515
1975-1976	729	376	121	19	664

However, like any new discipline, there are unresolved issues in criminal justice. It can be argued that some of the problems of the discipline

[1] Hoover and Lund, Guidelines for Criminal Justice Programs, p. 9.

[2] Culbertson, "Criminal Justice Education--For What?" p. 5.

[3] O'Leary, "Programs of Correctional Study," p. 56.

[4] Culbertson, "Criminal Justice Education--For What?", p. 1.

are products of the hastened birth of this new field.

To receive LEEP funds many schools hurriedly developed programs which, in fact, were no more than listings of courses in course catalogues. This fact resulted in the emergence of a new problem, the lack of qualified instructional personnel.

> The failure to develop a clearly defined set of goals for criminal justice education has produced, in some areas, a disaster in higher education. At least two major problem areas can be identified, program quality and competency of personnel.[1]

Other authors express concern that the problems of the field are even more basic, resting at the core of the function of criminal justice education in American society. Kenneth Polk, noted sociologist, questions whether or not the current criminal justice curricula can meet the needs and demands of modern U. S. society.[2] One of the more commonly cited reasons for at least some current curricula's lack of relevancy to the needs of the criminal justice field is detailed by Charles Tenney who writes:

> Curriculum development in law enforcement and criminal justice has proceeded almost entirely without benefit of task analyses, that is, studies of what individuals in various work situations in the system actually do. Few such analyses have in fact been made. But even those few which are available seem neither to have been considered nor employed in curriculum development. . . Until we are more certain of exactly what it is we are educating the individual to do, the task of doing so will remain one which for the conscientious educator will be fraught with frustration and futility.[3]

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[1] Culbertson, p. 10.

[2] Ibid., p. 8.

[3] Tenney, p. 4.

Tenney is not the only one who feels that task analysis of positions and roles within the system is a necessary prerequisite to the articulation of a meaningful course of study in criminal justice. The Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training concurs:

> Corrections, like all other human service fields, must re-examine the tasks to be performed and set its educational standards in terms of specific functions.[1]

While these statements were made about criminal justice in general and corrections in particular, it may be argued that the situation in juvenile justice is even more dramatic. According to the 1970 Eastman survey, ". . . by far the most comprehensive and sophisticated undertaking of its kind,"[2] only 2% of the responding criminal justice-related programs prepared students for working with juveniles. This survey was done in 1970, before the trend in deinstitutionalization of juvenile programs was underway.[3] If only 2% of existing criminal justice programs prepared students for work with juveniles in 1970, a time characterized by institution-based programs for youth, one may be caused to wonder about the relevance of currently operating programs to the problems indigenous to the new field of community-based juvenile justice.

In this section we have briefly reviewed the development of the discipline of criminal justice in America, surveying the state of the art from the early 20th century up until the present time. We observed the impact on criminal

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[1] A Time to Act, quoted in O'Leary, Programs of Correctional Study in Higher Education," p. 55.

[2] Tenney, pp. 47, 52.

[3] Robert D. Vinter, et al., Juvenile Corrections in the States: Residential Programs and Deinstitutionalization.

justice higher education of various commission recommendations, the growth of the community college system, and perhaps most importantly, the stimulus offered by LEEP. The problems precipitated by the field's dramatic rate of growth were also duly noted.

In this next section we will shift our focus from the national perspective to the state perspective, that of Massachusetts. Here we will briefly explore the current status of higher education for juvenile justice in the Bay State.

Juvenile Justice Higher Education in Massachusetts

While it is true that a great many Bay State colleges do offer criminal justice-related courses and degrees, a survey of these institutions reveals the following:[1]

	Associates	Bachelors	Masters
Criminal Justice	4	2	2
Law Enforcement	12	2	0
Public Service	0	0	1
Corrections	2	2	0
Security	1	1	0
Juvenile Justice	0	1(UMass)	1(UMass)

1. Combined, these programs offer 321 courses. Of these, only 28 are directly related to the study of juvenile justice. Eleven of these 28 courses are offered through the University of Massachusetts Juvenile Justice Programs.

[1] Richard Kobetz, Criminal Justice Education Director, 1975-1976.

2. Although most programs offer opportunity for practicum experience, it is usually on a limited basis.

3. Few, if any, programs reflect an assessment of the new training needs evolving from the new system.

As previously outlined in this chapter, the Juvenile Justice Academic Program at the University of Massachusetts has attempted to address the needs of the juvenile justice system by combining theoretical knowledge with practical experience. The issues raised by Tenney and the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training further substantiate the Department of Youth Services' need for relevant educational opportunities. For the recommendations of both Tenney and the Commission indicate the need for stronger linkage between the college curriculum and the realities of practicing juvenile justice professionals. If the Juvenile Justice Program is to offer preparation relevant to the job market, then students must be educated in those areas necessary for competent performance in the field. Job analysis cannot be ignored.

In Chapter I we have examined how the Competency-Based approach not only utilizes job analysis in its formative stages, but also meets a number of criteria desireable for a juvenile justice program tailored to the needs of the Massachusetts juvenile justice system.

Let us now turn our attention toward the fuller exploration of the concept of Competency-Based Education.

Competency-Based Education--A Review

"Competency-based education (CBE) is founded on educational justifications derived from the philosophy of education known as Experimentalism."[1] Both CBE and its counterpart Performance-Based Education (PBE) were developed in response to a demand for accountability" by Bestor, Koerner, Richover, the Council for Basic Education, and Conant in the late 50's and early 60's."[2] However, the cry for accountability in education was not left to educational leaders alone, but was shared by concerned citizens as well:[3]

> The apparent failure of traditional programs to demonstrate "results," coupled with increasing taxpayer reluctance to support educational programs without evidence of success, has produced a movement from theory-based to performance and competency-based programs.[4]

A review of the literature in the areas of both Competency and Performance-Based Education reveals that a great many of the programs utilizing this approach come from the field of teacher-preparation.[5] This is particularly

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[1] Joe Lars Klingstedt, "Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education," Educational Technology, November, 1972, p. 10.

[2] Harry S. Broudy, A Critique of Performance-Based Teacher Education, (Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education), 1972, p. 1.

[3] Stanley Elam, ed. Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Art? for the AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, (Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education), 1971, p. 3.

[4] Alexander M. Feldvebel, "A Rationale for Competency-Based Programs in Educational Administration," (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 985 117 1974), p. 3.

[5] Charles E. Johnson and Gilbert F. Shearron, "Specifying and Writing Occupational Competencies," p. 5.

true of the earlier programs.[1] In these instances the terms Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) and Performance-Based Teacher Education (PBTE) are used.

However, more recent applications have focused on the utilization of CBE and PBE in a spectrum of fields outside of the teacher preparation arena. These educational experiments have applied the competency and performance techniques to fields as diverse as gerontology, pharmacy, criminal justice, liberal arts and human services.[2]

Regardless of the field of inquiry, one controversy which remains consistent centers around the distinction made between competency and performance-based education.

> Some educators distinguish between performance-based education and competency-based education, while others use the terms interchangeably. When a distinction is made it usually involves an interpretation of performance, meaning "the presence of behavior," while competence means "the behavior plus some additional standard," which implies performing well.[3]

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[1] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Performance-Based Teacher Education: An Annotated Bibliography, (Washington, D. C.: AACTE), 1972.

[2] A sampling of such programs is described in the following documents: Phyllis G. Robinson, Ed., Curriculum Planning for Undergraduate Training in Gerontology, (Washington, D. C.: Institute of Gerontology), 1973; Charles P. Smith, dir., Role Performance and the Criminal Justice System, 3 vols. (Cincinnati: Anderson David Co., Inc., 1976), vol. 1: Summary, by Smith, Pehlke, and Weller; Competency-Based Pharmacy Curriculum: What Is It? (Minneapolis: College of Pharmacy, Univ. of Minn.), n.d. Nancy Moews, dir., "Competence Assessment Program: Manual for Level I," (Milwaukee: Alverno College) 1973; "Introduction to the Curriculum," (Boston College of Public and Community Service, Univ. of Mass.), 1976.

[3] Richard W. Burns, "Behavioral Objectives for Competency-Based Education," Educational Technology (November, 1972), p. 24.

Stanley Elam, writing for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education states:

> Some authorities prefer competency-based. . . education, suggesting that it is a more comprehensive concept. In determining competency. . . three types of criteria may be used: 1) knowledge criteria;. . . 2) performance criteria;. . . and 3) product criteria. . . The term "performance-based" tends to focus attention on criterion #2, although proponents of PBTE do not mean to so limit the concept.[1]

At this time no real resolution of this issue has been found. Since 1972 the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, a major proponent of PBTE, has adhered to the following position:

> The AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education has chosen to retain the term "performance-based" in the belief that the adjective itself is relatively unimportant if there is consensus on the question of what elements are essential in distinguishing performance on competency-based programs from others.[2]

However, several other authors including Kauchak, Houston and Burns feel that the distinction is necessary if one is to consider the level of performance and not merely the mechanistic exhibition of behavior.[3]

This author concurs with those writers who feel that the distinction between Competency-Based and Performance-Based Education is a necessary and important one to make. Therefore, for purposes of this doscument, the term Competency-Based Education (CBE) will be the one used.

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[1]Stanley Elam, ed., Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Art? p. 6.

[2]Stanley Elam, A Resume of Performance-Based Teacher Education, for the AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education), 1972, p. 3.

[3]Mildred Turney et al. Competency-Based Education, What is It?, pp. 5-6.

Defining Competency-Based Education

A careful survey of the literature reveals relatively few definitions of CBE. Most often CBE is written about in terms of its characteristics and assumptions, or by explicating what CBE is not. When definitions are offered they are usually vague as typified by the following example. A competency-based curriculum is "a system to provide instructional data to interested parties."[1] While this may define CBE, it is so broad as to include most other non-CB pedagogies as well.

A somewhat more definitive statement is offered by Mildred Turney who writes: "...(C)ompetency-based education is a system of education designed to develop competencies in those who are the products of the system."[2]

A more comprehensive explanation of what oconstitutes CBE is put forth by Klingstedt. It is included here to give the reader an overall picture of the CB curriculum process which will subsequently be explored in greater detail.

> Competency-based education is based on the specification or definition of what constitutes competency in a given field. Usually a great deal of research is considered, when available, before competency levels are identified. The way in which the agreed upon level of competency is communicated is through the use of specific behavioral objectives for which criterion levels of performance have been established. Once the required behaviors have been specified, they are placed in a hierarchy leading from simple to complex, and then an instructional sequence is

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[1] Roger A. Place, "The Performance-Based Curriculum," an address before the National Association of Secondary School Principals' Convention, Dallas, Texas, February, 1973.

[2] Turney, "CBE--What Is IT?", p. 4.

> planned that will help the learner achieve the desired behaviors. When the learner is ready a test or check of some sort is administered to determine if the required level of competency has been achieved.[1]

Greater insight into the constitutive elements and parameters of CBE can be gained through an examination of the assumptions on which CBE was founded.

In their article "Assumptions Underlying Competency-Based Education," James E. Eisele and Paul M. Hutchinson survey a spectrum of CBE literature to ascertain those assumptions forming the basis of the competency movement. At one point they state:

> We are unable to specify those assumptions upon which CBE is clearly and universally based. Too much contradiction occurs among the sources of our information to draw such firm conclusions.[2]

However, they were able to determine a number of assumptions which were quite widely ascribed to, even if they cannot be said to be universally held. A listing of these follows:

> 1) CBE is based upon the belief that learning is demonstrated through changes in the behaviors of learners and that teaching is aimed at facilitating these changes.
>
> 2) CBE reflects the principle that individuals attain similar objectives at different rates.
>
> 3) CBE gives credence to the assertion that educators should be accountable for their students' learning.

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[1] Klingstedt, "Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education," p. 10.

[2] James E. Eisele and Paul M. Halverson, "Assumptions Underlying Competency-Based Education," Thrust for Education Leadership 5 (November, 1975), p. 4.

> 4) CBE is based upon the use of continuous evaluation as feedback for making revisions in the institutional program.
>
> 5) CBE is based upon the assumption that a systems approach can be applied to instructional planning.
>
> 6) CBE is based upon the assumption that its objectives should bear a close relationship to some broad educational goals.[1]

Eisele and Halverson also isolated a group of assumptions which they feel to be controversial. Two of these are of particular importance to this study, for they address the "specification or definition of what constitutes competency in a given field."[2] They state as follows:

> 1) Involvement of all people to be affected by the process of planning for change is the key to successful planning. Involving people in the planning process leads to a feeling of ownership towards the resulting plans and decisions. This results in a commitment to the plans, according to this assumption. If so, such involvement could increase the likelihood of success of any educational innovation or plan. CBE programs, or descriptions of their development, give little evidence that involvement of many people in planning for CBE has been an important consideration.
>
> 2) Worthwhile instructional objectives will result only when a combination of people are involved in their creation . . . Individuals working alone to specify objectives or competencies will likely produce statements which meet only with a small fraction of the criteria necessary for "good" objectives. Individuals inevitably approach a task from their own point of view, or bias. Truly worthwhile objectives will result from a combination of collective wisdom. . . CBE has not, to date, acted on this assumption and this failure is evident in the kinds of objectives found in most CBE programs.[3]

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[1] Eisele and Halverson, pp. 4-5.

[2] Klingstedt, "Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education," p. 10.

[3] Eisel and Halverson, p. 5.

The seriousness of their warning should not be underestimated, for an examination of the literature corroborates their finding that many CB programs are not founded on "collective wisdom" but are "armchaired" by the founders. This can result in the identification of competencies which, in fact, bear no resemblance to those actually required for effective job performance.[1]

To avert such problems in the current study the author proposes to incorporate the knowledge and experience of a variety of professionals in the establishment of competencies germaine to their own particular areas of expertise. A description of methodologies potentially useful for such data collection will be presented later in this study.

Characteristics of Competency-Based Education

> Standard dictionaries provide no definition for competency-based. This is a coined word of recent origin. The word competency has been chosen to indicate an emphasis on the "ability to do," in contrast to the more traditional emphasis on the "ability to demonstrate knowledge." The term competency-based has become a special designation for an educational approach, for a movement. The term cannot be defined in a simple phrase; its meaning emerges from the complex of characteristics of this educational mode.[2]

Indeed, an examination of the literature concerning Competency-Based

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[1] Ernest S. Primoff, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations, (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1975), p. 4.

[2] Robert B. Howsam and W. Robert Houston, "Competency-Based Teacher Education: Progress, Problems and Prospects," reprinted from Competency-Based Teacher Education by Howsam/Houston, (Palo Alto, Calif.: Science Research Associates, Inc.), 1972, p. 3.

Education usually yields no definition of CBE, or one so vague that the reader is still left with the question, "What is competency-based education?" Other times CBE is defined in terms of what it is not. In an effort to provide the reader with an understanding of what is typically implied by the term competency-based education, the author has compiled the following listing (with descriptions) of characteristics of competency-based programs. Gleaned from a wide sampling of authors, the listing is intentionally not exhaustive. Rather, the author has endeavored to provide the reader with a comprehensive compilation of characteristics around which there is some consensus:

1. The foundation of the competency-based curriculum are the competencies. "Competencies are a synthesis of many behaviors expressed as a unity--a performance matter (which is) expressed in a job context."[1]

   As mentioned earlier, competencies are best based on a good deal of research which is constantly validated and subsequently modified and updated as appropriate. The techniques for conducting such research and determining the competencies for any given field vary widely in terms of the rigor, expense, time, expertise and resources required. Techniques which have been utilized in the establishment of competencies include literature review, surveys of existing academic programs, and job analysis, to name a few. A variety of specific job analysis methodologies

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[1]Martha Williams, William Meyer, and Ben M. Harris, "Structuring Field Learning in a Competency-Guided Program," Performance Based Teacher Education, 3 (March, 1975), p. 1.

are examined in greater detail later in this paper. The purpose of the research, whatever the technique utilized, is to determine what constitutes competence in a given field. These competencies may then be further broken down and analyzed as to type. Four commonly recognized types of competencies follow:

a. Knowledge is the information and understanding of the information necessary to perform a task.

b. Task is the selection and application of the information to a specific problem. Example: calculation, estimation, selection.[1]

c. Skill (is) the ability to carry out a purposeful activity with facility: the proficient application of knowledge and process to a task.

d. Attitude (is) the set of mind or disposition to react to, and to take action for, a particular value or purpose.[2]

2. Competencies are presented to the student in the form of competency statements--also called behavioral objectives and terminal behavioral objectives. A competency statement may be defined as "a statement of an observable proficiency in which the criteria of acceptable student performance are measureable and appropriate to a well defined task, and the resources important to performing the task as specified."[3]

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[1] Daniel J. Dobbert, A General Model for Competency-Based Curriculum Development, p. 20.

[2] F. Coit Butler, "The Concept of Competence: An Operational Definition," unpublished paper prepared by the Human Growth and Development Center of the College of Public and Community Service, University of Mass., Boston, 1977.

[3] Grant E. Barton, Writing Competency Statements, for the Instructional Research and Development Department, (Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Printing Service), 1972, p. 4.

Because of their importance in the CB curriculum, the way in which behavioral objectives are written is also crucial. Leonard and Utz list the following four elements as essential to a behavioral objective:

1. A behavioral objective should be stated in terms of desired student behavior.

2. The objective should state the behavior we want the student to perform.

3. The objective should state the conditions under which the student will perform the behavior.

4. The objective should list the criteria that will be used to judge whether the student has successfully completed the behavior.[1]

Once stated, the behavioral objectives are ordered in a hierarchy that makes sense in terms of student learning and skill development. Thus sequenced they form the basis for further curriculum decisions and planning. The role of behavioral objectives is pivotal in CBE. Richard Burns tells us they:

(1) are a written, public record of what is to be learned,

(2) serve to communicate to the learner what he is to be able to do at the end of the instructional period,

(3) serve to help select appropriate instructional activities and

(4) serve to help select valid evaluation activities.[2]

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[1] Leo D. Leonard and Robert T. Utz, Building Skills for Competency-Based Teaching, (New York: Harper and Row), 1974, p. 89.

[2] Richard W. Burns, "Behavioral Objectives for CBE," p. 23.

3. The competencies which the students are expected to master, as well as the criteria for assessment, are made public in advance.[1] In this way students are not put in a position where they are required to guess what the instructor wants them to know. All expectations are explicit.

4. CBE places emphasis on exit rather than entrance requirements. "The student's rate of progress through the program is determined by demonstrated competency rather than by time or course completion."[2] As such, students may progress at their own rate. Slow learners are not penalized by being graded failures; brighter students are not held back by the artificial boundaries set by semesters and school years. Furthermore, if a student can demonstrate the requisite competency, he/she may move on without engaging in any formal learning activity for that objective. This aspect of

> CBE is particularly suited to adult education programs because adults have often acquired a wealth of practical experience which may enable them to demonstrate attainment of specific competencies without taking formal coursework.[3]

This same feature makes CBE a natural for in-service training.

5. Testing in a Competency-Based system of instruction is criterion-

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[1] Howsam and Houston, "CBTE, Progress, Problems and Prospects," p. 4.

[2] Elam, p. 71.

[3] James E. Hertling, "Competency-Based Education: Is It Applicable to Adult Education Programs?" Adult Leadership, (June, 1974), p. 50.

referenced rather than norm-referenced. Norm-referenced testing (NRT) establishes the students' performance relative to their peers and irrespective of any absolute standard of performance.

> In NRT, scores are generally reported as ranks, percentile ranks, age levels, grade levels, curved scores, deciles, etc. In criterion-referenced testing, scores are generally reported as attainment or non-attainment of a prescribed level of behavior.[1]

The measurement is of the student's performance in relation to the pre-established criteria for assessment, irrespective of the performance of other students.

6. CBE places an emphasis on accountability. Teachers are responsible for clearly articulating what it is that students are expected to learn and how they will be evaluated on the learning which has taken place. Conversely, "(T)he learner knows that he is expected to demonstrate the specified competencies to the required level and in the agreed upon manner. He accepts responsibility and expects to be held accountable for meeting the established ceriteria."[2]

7. CBE is an individualized method of instruction. Not only is the CB curriculum tailored to the rate and achievement level of the individual

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[1] Richard W. Burns, "Achievement Testing and Competency-Based Education," Educational Technology, (November, 1972), p. 40.

[2] Howsam and Houston, "CBTE, Progress, Problems and Prospects," p. 4.

learner, it also offers a spectrum of learning activities, thereby allowing individual students the opportunity to choose their own preferred learning mode. Typically, the individualization process entails the following five steps:

a) Behavioral objectives are grouped and logically sequenced. Learning modules are designed around sets of related objectives.

b) A diagnosis is made to determine if the learners have the necessary prerequisite competencies to undertake the work in question.

c) If the learners do have the prerequisite competencies they are administered a pre-test to determine if they possess any of the competencies addressed in the learning module. Based on the results of this pre-test they begin work on the appropriate portion of the module. Or, if they have proven competent in all facets of the module, move on to the next.

d) The students choose learning activities most suited to their own unique learning style. When they and their instructor feel that they can meet the objectives of the module they move on to the fifth step.

e) This final step determines whether or not the students have mastered the module's objectives. If so, they move on to the next module; it not, they choose learning activities to remediate

deficient areas of expertise.[1,2]

8. CBE relies on technology in the individualization of instruction.

> By varying time, it no longer becomes realistic to assume that a large number of individuals will all be ready at the same time to listen to an instructor or discuss a topic, look at a tape. . . or read a book. Home study courses will multiply as well as instruction utilizing audio and video tape.[3]

9. CBE utilizes a systems approach.

> The systems approach is designed to deal with complex realities. It has been employed in development of both the delivery systems for learning opportunities and the management systems for records and accountability. The concept of feedback loops is particularly useful in designing instructional modules. The graphic device of flowcharting has proven invaluable in presenting the options available in an individualized instructional system.[4]

10. CBE places emphasis on development of the student's ability to apply learning to concrete situations. Given a problem, the student can not only utilize knowledge, but also appropriately select and apply abstractions toward solution of the problem. The practice of such applications can be accomplished through the use of classroom simulations as well as super-

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[1] J. Michael Palardy and James E. Eisele, "Competency-Based Education," The Clearing House, (May 1972), pp. 546-547.

[2] Claudia A. Byram, "Competency-Based Education: How Competent?" Educational Technology, (October, 1973), pp. 38-39.

[3] Paul T. Richman and Thomas S. Nagel," Impact of Competency-Based Instruction on Continuing Education." Continuing Education, (October 1972), p. 60.

[4] Howsam and Houston, "CBTE, Progress, Problems and Prospects," p. 4.

vised field work.[1] "A competency, as defined here, represents the capacity to perform and presumes the application of appropriate knowledge and skills to a specific problem."[2]

In the previous section the author has endeavored to provide the reader with a basic understanding of the nature and composition of Competency-Based Education through an examination of some of the more widely agreed upon characteristics of this educational mode. A summarization of the CBE traits discussed follows:

1. Competencies form the foundation of the CB curriculum, and there are four major competency types: a) knowledge, b) task, c) skill, and d) attitude.

2. Competencies are presented in the form of competency statements also called behavioral objectives and terminal behavioral objectives.

3. The competencies and their criteria for assessment are made public in advance.

4. CBE places emphasis on exit rather than entrance requirements.

5. Comptency-based curricula utilize criterion-referenced rather than norm-reference tests.

6. CBE places an emphasis on accountability.

7. CBE is an individualized method of instruction

8. CBE relies on technology in the process of individualizing instruction

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[1] Feldvebel, "A Rationale for CB Programs in Educational Administration," p. 6.

[2] Ibid., p. 6.

9. CBE utilizes a systems approach

10. CBE places emphasis on development of the student's ability to apply learning to concrete situations.

A Discussion of CBE--Mixed Reviews

Less than a decade ago Competency-Based Education made its debut in the educational community. Beginning with the training of teachers in about 1970,[1] this approach has since been modified and applied to a spectrum of other fields. Like most new movements, CBE has been the focus of praise as well as the target of criticism. At least part of the controversy over CBE seems to stem from a misunderstanding of what the movement is about.

> Not all educators have embraced the competency movement, with its objectified structure. A variety of objections have been put forward against the use of objectives including the fact that they are too specific, dehumanizing, they over-emphasize trivia, they are too time-consuming to construct and just plain not descriptive of what education is really all about. Experience with both objectives and their critics tends to make one believe that some mis-understanding of what objectives are, what they can be like when properly expressed is the cause of criticism rather than any inherent deficiency in or with objectives per se.[2]

Concern for the potential dehumanizing effects of CBE is also expressed by Adams and Shuman who write:

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[1] Johnson and Shearron, "Specifying and Writing Occupational Competencies," p. 2.

[2] Richard W. Burns, "Behavorial Objectives for CBE," p. 22.

> Is competency-based instruction restrictive in nature? The very real danger exists that competency-based instruction may degenerate into a mechanistic, low-level performance of demonstrable actions and/or motions.[1]

A review of the literature shows that the preponderance of authors writing on the subject of CB favor its adoption. However, it could here be argued that people more often write about that which they endorse rather than oppose. Nonetheless, examination of the publications in question reveals that those authors who find fault with CBE usually focus their concerns on the potential for abuse. Like behavior modification, CBE has great potential for positive results in the educational system, but if misused there surely is potential for inhuman and mechanistic applications of CB techniques.[2]

At the very least the notion of Competency-Based Education raises a series of questions:

> Will educators resist introducing ideas into the curriculum because no one has found a way to behaviorally measure the student's understanding?
>
> Will a prescribed minimal level of performance destroy the student's desire to excel?
>
> Does Competency-Based Education encourage and support performance to the exclusion of its educational counterpart, reflection?

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[1] Anne H. Adams and R. Baird Shuman, "Reflections on Competency-Based Instruction," Contemporary Education, 46:4 Summer, 1975, p. 266.

[2] Frederick C. Neff, "Competency-Based Teaching and Trained Fleas," Phi Delta Kappan, April 1972, pp. 480-482.

Does Competency-Based Education change the role of schools from transmitters of culture to brokers of information?[1]

It is difficult to ignore the seriousness of these questions. But it is perhaps more difficult to ascertain the answers. Because of the relative newness of the movement there are undoubtedly questions which must be asked. As our collective experience with competency-based education grows, hopefully our ability to formulate both questions and answers will expand accordingly.

In the previous section we have briefly explored some of the major criticism leveled at CBE. Now let us examine a sampling of what its supporters have to say:

> CBE is a potentially powerful tool for improving learning. Education may be realizing a major breakthrough in delivering instruction to all people, something which has been long predicted but slow in coming. . . If we proceed with utmost caution and intelligence, we might be successful in implementing, through CBE, some of the most creative, thoughtful and worthwhile ideas in education.[2]

Recognizing the newness of the movement, Klingstedt is nonetheless optimistic about its future.

> In view of the evidence available, it should be obvious that CBE is a trend that is definitely catching on in educational circles.[3]

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[1] Neff, "Competency-Based Teaching and Trained Fleas,", ibid.

[2] Eisele and Halverson, "Assumptions Underlying Competency-Based Education," p. 6.

[3] Klingstedt, "Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education," p. 14.

Addressing some of the criticisms of the current educational system, Howsam and Houston place great hope in the promise of CBE for meeting the educational needs of a changing society:

> In changing times, unchanging schools are anomalous. Competency-based education promises the thrust necessary for adaptation to meet the challenge of a changed and changing society. Such change must be planned in systemic terms, dealing simultaneously with all of the elements that comprise the total system. . . The emphasis in competency-based. . . education on objectives, accountability, and personalization implies specific criteria, careful evaluation, change on feedback, and relevant programs for a modern era.[1]

In this section we have made a brief review of the literature on Competency-Based Education. This survey has included a look at the origination of the movement, an attempt to define CBE, an examination of the characteristics of this pedagogical approach, and finally, a look at what its critics and supporters have to say.

In Chapter I, the author has proposed the development of a Competency-Based program in Juvenile Justice. This study focuses on the establishment of selected competencies which will form the foundation of the CB curriculum. For reasons cited earlier in this dissertation, it has also been proposed that some sort of job analysis be utilized in the identification of the relevant competencies. As there exist a vast number of methodologies potentially useful in the analysis of jobs, the next section of this report will concern itself with a

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[1] Howsam and Houston, "CBTE: Progress, Problems, and Prospects," p. 1.

review of existing methodologies. This section concludes with a more detailed presentation of the Job Element Analysis--the methodology which this author has chosen for use in the current study.

A Review and Summary of Selected Job Analysis Methodologies

Any thorough discussion of CBE necessitates the examination of a spectrum of existing methodologies which may be used to determine competencies basic to curriculum development. Virtually all of the methods cited below are borrowed from other disciplines or at least, other applications. Some, such as interviewing, are used broadly in counseling, personnel work, and education. Others, such as observation and diaries are widely implemented in education and anthropology. However, the methods which seem most tailor-made for CBE in human services (Functional Job Analysis, Job Element Analysis) originate from management and personnel studies and are a direct result of attempts to make job selection, training, classification, and recruitment more job-relevant. In other words, those studies attempted to align, as closely as possible, the criteria used for hiring, firing, training, and evaluation with the actual requirements for satisfactory job performance.

CBE has a similar goal, to align curriculum as closely as possible with what a student needs to know to perform effectively in a given position. Just as job analysis aims for more job-relevant selection, classification, training and evaluation, CBE aims for more relevant education and assessment of student performance.

> This method of planning curriculum. . . specifically relevant to employment opportunities as determined by job analysis. . . represent(s) an innovative approach to training and education--an approach particularly important and necessary in meeting demands of . . . students for job-oriented, higher education relevant to social problem solving.[1]

Recent applications of these methodologies in higher education point toward their potential usefulness as tools for the development of Competency-Based curricula.[2,3] Whatever the process used, the purpose is to gather information regarding the actual requirements of the job for which the training is being designed. In short, any number and combination of the methods reviewed here may be employed to analyze the job in question,[4] selection being based on the time and resources available, as well the intended use of the resultant data. This job analysis then becomes the basis for the curriculum.

Job analysis is the systematic process of collecting and making certain judgements about all of the pertinent information relating to the nature of a specific job.[5]

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[1] Institute of Gerontology, Curriculum Planning for Undergraduate Training in Gerontology. Federal City College, Washington, D. C., 1973, p. 1.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Audrey C. Cohen, The Service Society and a Theory of Learning that Relates Education, Work, and Life. The College for Human Services, New York, N.Y., 1976.

[4] U. S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, Job Analysis: Key to Better Management, p. 5.

[5] Ibid., p. 3.

> The process of job analysis is not complicated. It requires a logical approach and attention to a few criteria. The criteria are these:
>
> 1. Gathering information about work performed should be done through the most practicable means possible.
> 2. The purpose of gathering the information is to determine what workers actually do, how they do it and why they do it. This information in turn is used to determine what skills, knowledge, and abilities it takes to perform the duties.
> 3. The information gathered must be recorded in a manner that is understandable to others.[1]

A review of relevant organization charts, class specifications, existing position descriptions, training manuals and regulatory material may prove helpful in collecting background information in preparation for the collection of data.[2] Once this information has been reviewed, the researcher is ready to determine those skills, abilities, and areas of knowledge necessary for acceptable job performance. These data are collected from a variety of sources including job incumbents (those persons currently occupying the position(s) under consideration), supervisors of job incumbents, and in some cases, consumers. The methods generally used for data collection are listed and described below:

Observation--Observation is made up of accounts of behavior over varying periods of time. The long-term methods usually involve the keeping of a journal or diary by the observer. This account may be kept on a regular

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[1]U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, Job Analysis: Developing and Documenting Data, Washington, D. C., 1973, p. 23.

[2]Ibid., p. 3.

hourly, daily, weekly, or monthly basis, or entries may be made only when they meet certain criteria. For example, incidents may be noted either because they are positive or negative, as judged by the observer. A shorter, or at least more selective version of observation, time sampling, is described more fully below.[1]

> Time sampling--Time sampling comprises a representative distribution of short observation periods. . . such periods may vary in length from less than a minute to several hours; periods of five minutes or less are the most common. The observation may be concentrated in one day or spaced over several months. They may cover all behavior during the specified period; but more often they are limited to a particular kind of behavior. . . Checklists of what to look for are a useful observational aid. Other procedural aids include observational schedules, record forms, coding systems, and mechanical recording devices. When practicable, automatic recordings can be made on tape, film, or videotape.[2]

Participant logs--Related to observation, but from the perspective of the subject rather than the observer, this method employes the recording of data e.g., written, audio, and video, by the subjects. Data gathering may be on the basis of time intervals or pre-determined criteria, as when the participants feel that they have encountered some activity reflective of knowledge, skill, ability or attitude critical to superior performance in that particular position.

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[1] Irvin J. Lehmann and William A. Mehrens, Educational Research: Readings in Focus, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.), 1971, p. 98.

[2] Anne Anastasi, Psychological Testing, fourth ed., (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., 1976), pp. 607-608.

Interviews--Interviews involve a one-to-one situation in which the researcher asks the respondent questions which are relevant to the research problem. Basically, there are two types of interviews, structured and unstructured. The structured interview consists of pre-determined, specific questions which are administered to the respondent in as uniform fashion as possible. The interview schedule is a classic example of a structured interview. In a non-structured interview the areas to be covered are usually planned in advance, but the interviewer is given greater freedom in the wording and sequencing of questions.[1]

Individual Interviews--Individual interviews "are a sufficient means of data gathering for desk jobs and other jobs involving little observable physical activity; that is, for jobs involving the processing of data. . . It is important that the interviewee fully understands the reason for the interview so that the interview not be interpreted as an efficiency evaluation or as only a classification and pay audit."[2]

The group approach--The group approach is especially efficient when jobs at several levels in a single occupation are being subjected to analysis. Each job analysis group should be representative of the organization in which the

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[1] Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, second edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 481.

[2] U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, Job Analysis: Developing and Documentary Data, p. 23.

jobs are located. . .[1] Supervisors of the job incumbents being analyzed may also be included in the group if a mechanism is provided to insure that they do not inhibit or sway data generation. This type of mixed grouping (job incumbents and job incumbent supervisors) provides for the development of a well-rounded picture of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities necessary for successful job performance.

Supervisory interviews--supervisory interviews may be used either in combination with other method(s) or in cases where all jobs being looked at are identical or highly structured or when the job being analyzed is new and there are no available job incumbents.

The Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

> Unlike typical interacting groups, in which all communication among members takes place with minimal structuring or control, the nominal group is one in which individuals work in the presence of others but do not interact verbally except at specified times. Written output is generated by each participant and is sequentially shared and listed on newsprint for all members to see. NGT is, then, a structured meeting that attempts to provide an orderly mechanism for obtaining qualitative information from groups with a particular problem area.[2]

This technique is most appropriately used in small groups of six to eight persons (although a number of groups may be conducted simultaneously and

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[1] US Civil Service Commission, ibid., pp. 23-25.

[2] David L. Ford, Jr. and Paul M. Nemiroff, "Applied Group Problem-Solving: The Nominal Group Technique", The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, Univ. Assoc., 1975, p. 179.

brought together during the last step of the process). When the group has been assembled, the facilitator presents the task. Example: Today we will be working on defining those areas of knowledge, skill, ability and attitude which contribute to superior job performance in the role of (specify). It may be helpful to demonstrate the type of information sought, using examples from areas other than the one under consideration to avoid the influencing of participants' responses. When the task is clear to all group members they are asked to list as many relevant responses as they can. No discussion is allowed at this time. When all members have finished writing, each one, in turn, presents a response to the facilitator who records it verbatim on newsprint which is visible to the entire group. The process continues until all members have reported all responses. Redundant and similar responses are all included and listed separately at this stage. Any new ideas generated from the posting of responses are encouraged and duly recorded. The group leader then facilitates a discussion of the items in order to clarify and elaborate on them. No items are eliminated or combined. Next, each member is asked to silently select his or her top ten items and prioritize them. The outcome is tabulated and publicly recorded on newsprint. The results are discussed for classification and the process is repeated, each person selecting his or her top ten choices, prioritizing them (one through ten) and assigning a relative value of 0 to 100 to each choice. The final rankings are then tabulated

on newsprint.[1,2]

This process has a number of advantages over conventional interacting problem-solving groups. Studies have shown that:

-more and higher quality data is generated than in brainstorming sessions

-responses are more creative

-domination of the group by individual members is minimized while input of all members is assured

-priorities are clearly established

-implementation is inexpensive and expeditious and

-premature closure of the group around an early suggestion without having considered alternative solutions is avoided.[3,4,5]

Critical Incident Analysis--A more refined variation of observation, "(t)he critical incident technique consists of a set of procedures for collecting direct

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[1] Ford and Nemiroff, p. 180.

[2] David L. Ford, Jr., "Nominal Group Technique: An Applied Group Problem-Solving Activity", the 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, University Associates, 1975, pp. 35, 36.

[3] David L. Ford, Jr. and Paul M. Nemiroff, "Applied Group Problem-Solving: The Nominal Group Technique," p. 181.

[4] Andrew H. Van de Ven and Andre L. Delbecq, "The Nominal Group as a Research Instrument for Exploratory Health Studies", The American Journal of Public Health, March 1972, pp. 340-342.

[5] Andre L. Debecq and Andrew H. Van de Ven, "A Group Process Model for Problem Identification and Program Planning", The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 2, No. 4, 1971, pp. 472-478,

observations of human behavior in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems."[1] "Critical incidents are just what the name implies --occurrences that have proved to be the key to effective performance on the job. They involve not routine activities but rather those essentials in job performance which make the difference between success and failure."[2] This process does not involve a set of rigid rules but rather offers procedural guidelines for data collection. Basically, supervisors and/or workers are asked to think of specific situations in which the worker performed effectively or ineffectively, and to clearly delineate:

1) what the purpose of the activity was
2) what led up to the incident
3) when and where it occurred
4) what the worker did that was effective or ineffective at the time
5) what the effect of this incident was on the organizational unit
6) what problems were created or solved by this incident
7) how long the worker has been in this position
8) how long the worker has been with the organization
9) (if applicable) how long the supervisor has been in this position[3,4]

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[1] John C. Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique", Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 51, No. 4, July 1954, p. 327.

[2] Fleishman, "Using Critical Incidents to Study Job Proficiency Factors," Studies in Personnel and Industrial Psychology, p. 146.

[3] John C. Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique" pp. 336, 337.

[4] The focus of these questions relies heavily on the work of Dr. C. Dean Miller of Colorado State University. (Critical Incident Record Form No. 2)

In each study a classification system is devised and the items analyzed and assigned accordingly. From this, inferences about selection, promotion, and training are made. There are two major drawbacks to this procedure.

1. The development of categories and subsequent assignment of critical incidents to a particular category is subjective, and
2. The practical predictions which the research is able to make from incident analysis is often inaccurate.

The Behavioral Event Analysis (BEA)--This technique purports to overcome the perceptual bias and interpretation which may be encountered in the reporting of a past event. While the Critical Incident Analysis Technique focuses on questions about the actual event and behavior in question, and requires interpretation of the outcomes by the participant, the Behavioral Event Analysis asks the individual in the position being studied. . . "to think of incidents or events in which he/she felt particularly successful and then to describe in detail what led up to the incident, when and where it occurred, and how he/she was feeling and reacting before, during and after it."[1] From this information trained professionals then analyze responses and reconstruct the actual behaviors involved. A distinguishing characteristic of the BEA is that all participants interviewed are pre-selected by experts (usually supervisors) on the basis of their job performance, and categorized into one of two groups (1) the markedly superior worker and (2) the average worker.

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[1] Paul S. Pottinger Description of Job Element Analysis and Behavioral Event Analysis Techniques.

Functional Job Analysis (FJA)--Since 1950 Sidney A. Fine and his associates have been working on the development and implementation of this method. During the first fifteen years of research most of the methodological applications were carried out within the U. S. Civil Service Commission. The Department of Labor's Dictionary of Occupational Titles is the result of much of this effort. Since 1965 FJA has been broadly applied in manpower planning and utilization. "At the present time FJA is the major method being used to study the manpower of the criminal justice system (police, Courts, corrections) in the United States, and corrections manpower in Canada."[1] Functional Job Analysis is also being currently used to develop valid, criterion-referenced, job-related tests for the U. S. Department of Labor.

The major question that FJA addresses is what do workers in this job position do?[2] The problem initially encountered in describing what workers do in their jobs is the vagueness inherent in description.

Fine would argue that it is necessary to make a distinction between what workers do, the worker behavior, and what gets done, the end results.[3] He accomplishes this through the use of task statements. For Fine, the task, a word he uses interchangeably with task statement, is the most basic unit of work and is defined in the following way:

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[1]Sidney A. Fine, Ann M. Holt and Maret F. Hutchinson, Functional Job Analysis: An Annotated Bibliography, Methods for Manpower Analysis Monograph No. 10, W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, May 1975, p. 2.

[2]Sidney A. Fine and Wretha W. Wiley, An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis: A Scaling of Selected Tasks from the Social Welfare Field, Methods for Manpower Analysis No. 4 Monograph, W.E. Upjonn Institute, Sept. 1971, p. 5.

[3]Sidney A. Fine, Ann M. Holt and Maret F. Hutchinson, Functional Job Analysis: How to Standardize Task Statements, Monograph No. 9, October1974, p. 3.

> A task is an action or an 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.[1]

The activity described can be either mental, physical, or interpersonal in nature.

To help control the language of task statements, Fine has developed a series of scales. In this way it is possible to standardize the language of task statements while also providing a means of assessing the relative complexity of each task. Fine feels that all workers perform their tasks in relation to people, data, and things.[2] Accordingly he has developed what he calls "Worker Function Scales". Through the use of these scales, he feels that it is possible to describe anything which a worker does in the entire sphere of work. (see Figure 2.1) In each of the function areas (data, people and things) Fine has compiled a hierarchical listing of worker functions. Those at the bottom of each scale are considered to be less complex than those higher on the list. For example, in the People area, supervising is considered to be a more complex function than consulting, instruction, or treating, but less complex than negotiating. This relative position of the supervisory function within the People scale is what Fine calls the level of functioning.

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[1] Ibid., p. 5.

[2] Sidney A. Fine, Functional Job Analysis Scales: A Desk Aid, Methods for Manpower Analysis Mimeograph No. 7, The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April 1973, p. 3.

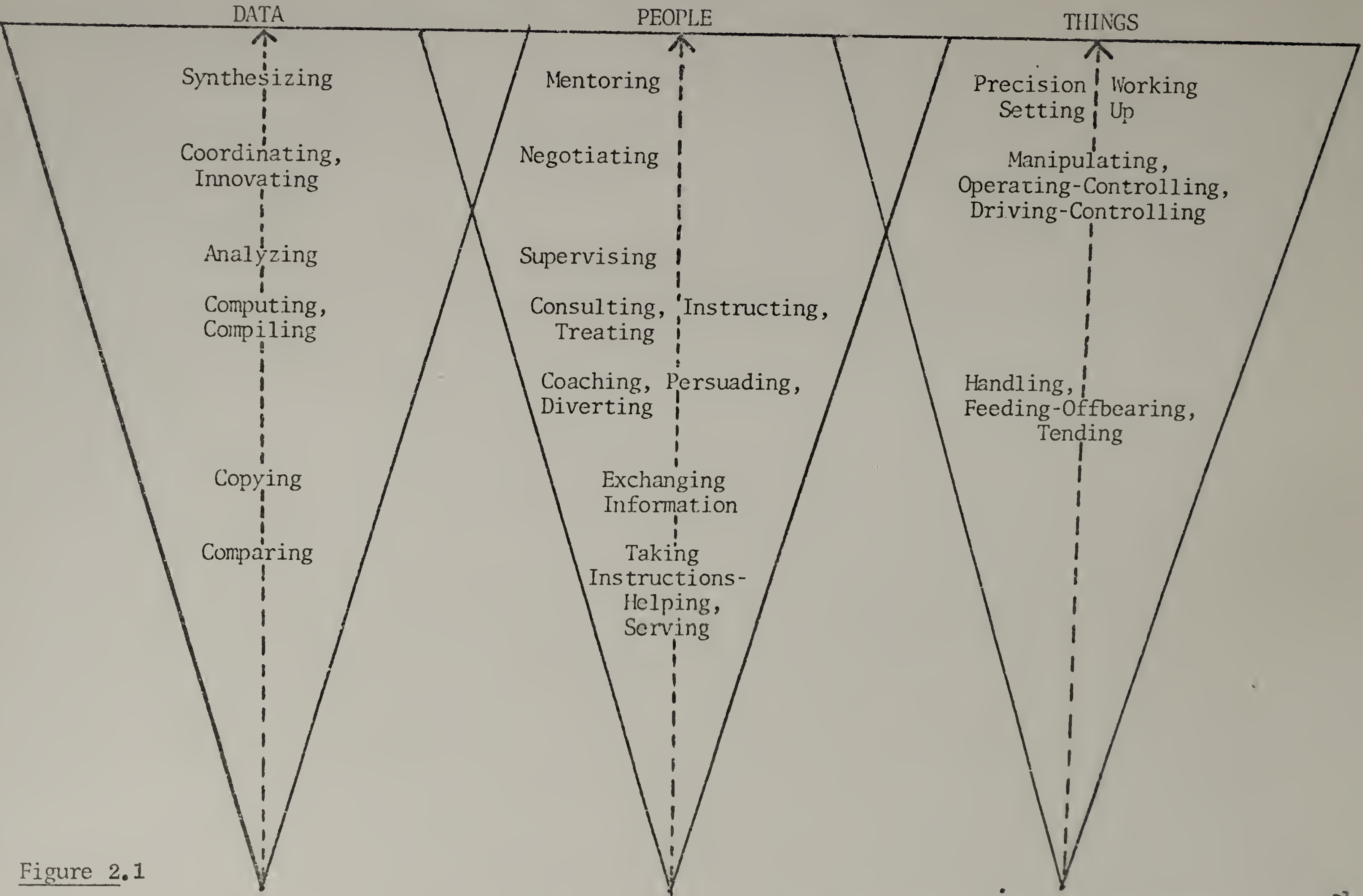

Figure 2.1

SOURCE: Sidney A. Fine, Functional Job Analysis Scales, A Desk Aid, Methods for Manpower Analysis Mimeograph No. 7, The W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April 1973, p. 3.

Once the level of functioning is determined (in each of the three areas) it is also necessary to determine what combination of interaction with people, data, and things is represented by a given task statement. This is known as the orientation of the task. To find the orientation of the task it is necessary to assign a percentage (in units of 5 or 10) to each of the three functions, making sure that they total 100. Because this is an estimate, any reliability inherent in the orientation measure is derived from emerging patterns of estimates and not from the exact scores themselves. In summary, then,

> level and orientation are determined by slecting three functions, one from each of the three scales, most characteristic of the requirements of each task (yielding level measures). Each function is then weighted to show how much emphasis falls upon its requirements in the performance of the task (yielding orientation measures).[1]

In addition, Fine adds a Scale of Worker Instructions to more clearly delineate the prescribed and discretionary aspects of a task. He also includes performance standards to let the worker know how his performance will be evaluated. The latter may be either descriptive or numerical in nature.

Not surprisingly, worker qualifications are based not on the number of years of school completed but on the worker's level of reasoning and mathematical and language skill developed. Therefore, scales of General Educational Development are used to determine the minimal educational

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[1] Fine and Wiley, An Introduction to Functional Job Analysis: A Scaling of Selected Tasks from the Social Welfare Field, p. 16.

requirements for performing at a certain worker function level.

The actual analysis of jobs is carried out within the context of a close examination of the organization's purpose, goals, and objectives. FJA analysts collect data from within the organization, with the help of FJA scales and task analysis forms, and formulate initial task statements. Once the preliminary task statements have been written, an editing group, comprised of 3-6 persons, edits them for clarity, using a consensual decision making model. Where possible, line and staff workers should be trained in FJA and included in the editing group. The resultant task statements are then distributed throughout the organization for feedback. If necessary, the editing group subsequently makes appropriate modifications based on this feedback.

Job Element Analysis--Job Element Analysis[1] (JEA) is a procedure which seeks to define those characteristics which constitute superior job performance.

The foundation for the entire process is what is known as a job element.

> A job element may be
> -a knowledge, such as knowledge of accounting principles;
> -a skill, such as skill with woodworking tools;
> -an ability, such as ability to manage a program;
> -a willingness, such as willingness to do simple tasks repetitively;
> -an interest, such as interest in learning new techniques; or
> -a personal characteristic, such as reliability or dependability.[2]

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[1] This entire section draws heavily on the work of Ernest S. Primoff as presented in the U.S. Civil Service Commission Document, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations.

[2] Ibid., p. 2.

Description of the Job Element Analysis Methodology--This section will describe the procedure to be followed in the execution of a Job Element Analysis.

1. The persons conducting the JEA (hereinafter referred to as the job analysts) arrange for a meeting of the panel which will be responsible for the generating of elements critical to superior job performance in the position under consideration. "This panel is composed of superior job incumbents and supervisors. . . (and) should reflect various geographic, racial, and functional areas."[1]

> Six panel members may be sufficient, but this can be varied to include more if required for representation of different schools of thought or different specialties in the occupation. Going beyond seven members may make control of, and groupwide participation in discussion difficult. Cutting below four or five members may be possible for a well-defined job, but may risk content bias when the job is not clearly defined. The most important consideration is that the Panel's expertise covers the job requirements.[2]

Once the panel is convened, they are asked to generate elements and subelements for the position under consideration. Particularly if using this process with more than one group, it is a good idea to read them a standardized statement similar to the following:

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[1] Kyle Spivey, A Job Element Approach: The Entry Level Social Worker Class in State and Local Jurisdictions, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Policies and Standards, 1976, p. 1.

[2] Lynette B. Plumlee. A Guide to the Development of Job Knowledge Tests: A Reference Kit for Measurement Specialists, Personnel Research and Development Center, U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1976, p. 5.

> We would like to list the abilities, knowledges, skills, and personal characteristics that are necessary for the job of __________. What ability must an employee have? What makes an employee superior? In what areas have you had trouble when employees are weak? I don't want to influence you so I'll give you an example for a different job. Suppose we wanted to rate a grocery cashier. We might consider accuracy, knowledge of stock, ability to be pleasant, and reliability. Each of these is an element. Now I would like you to suggest elements for the job of __________.[1]

The job analyst then writes down all suggestions on newsprint, numbering them consecutively and posting each sheet when filled. There should be no discussion of suggested elements (this could persuade the group toward a particular bias). When there is question about one suggestion duplicating another which is already posted, the variant is listed and discussion avoided. This is done so that the list will be as inclusive as possible. The group members will get a chance to rate the elements later anyway.

The next step in the process is the listing of subelements. Again, it is a good idea to read a standard set of instructions for consistency's sake:

> Now we would like to collect subelements. For example, I mentioned accuracy for a grocery cashier. Suppose we want to rate a grocery cashier on accuracy. We would consider how accurately a cashier figures the cost of one item, when the price is 3 for 59 cents. We would consider accuracy in pressing keys on the cash register, accuracy in making change. These are subelements of Accuracy. They are the particular items we could put

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[1] Primoff, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations, p. 9.

> in a test, or in a checklist for evaluating the cashier. For every element you listed, you will list now the particular subelements, the particular items you might want to check in an applicant.
>
> You may have already given some of the subelements while you were giving the elements. You can just refer back to be sure you have them. You don't have to repeat. The same subelements may apply to more than one element. When we come to an element that's been covered already, we'll just go on.[1]

As the panel generates subelements, the job analyst continues to record them on newsprint, also including any new elements that may be generated, and sequentially numbering all new entries.

Once the listing of elements and subelements is completed the panel is ready to rate the elements and subelements. Each panel member will need a pencil and eraser and enough Job Element Blanks (see Figure 2.2) to rate all job elements. Raters should place the number of each element or subelement sequentially in the left hand column. Panel members are instructed to fill in the identifying information at the top of each blank and then to rate each element in each of the four columns. Definitions of each of the four columns appear below:

Barely acceptable:	What relative portion of even barely acceptable workers are good in the elements?
Superior:	How important is the element in picking out the superior worker?
Trouble:	How much trouble is likely if the element is ignored when choosing among applicants?
Practical:	Is the element practical? To what extent can we fill our job openings if we demand it?[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 10.

[2] Ibid., p. 3.

JOB ELEMENT BLANK

Page No. __ __ (col. 1 2)

Job:
Grade:

Rater Name and Grade:
Title and Location:

Date:

Rater No. __ __ __ (col. 3 4 5)

Job No. __ __ __ (6 7 8)

Element No. (Do not Punch)	Barely acceptable workers (B) + all have ✓ some have 0 almost none have	To pick out superior workers (S) + very important ✓ valuable 0 does not differentiate	Trouble likely if not considered (T) + much trouble ✓ some trouble 0 safe to ignore	Practical. Demanding this element, we can fill (P) + all openings ✓ some openings 0 also no openings	Columns	(These columns for use in hand calculation of values) S×P	T	Item Index (IT) SP+T	Total Value (TV) IT+S −B−P	P′ (+=0 ✓=1 0=2)	SP′	Training Value (TR) S+T+SP′−B
					9–12							
					13–16							
					17–20							
					21–24							
					25–28							
					29–32							
					33–36							
					37–40							
					41–44							
					45–48							
					49–52							
					53–56							
					57–60							
					61–64							
					65–68							
					69–72							
					73–76							
					77–80							

U.S. Civil Service Commission
Personnel Research and Development Center
Washington, D.C.

Note: for all categories except P′, + counts 2, ✓ counts 1, 0 counts 0. For category P′, + counts 0, ✓ counts 1, 0 counts 2.

Figure 2.2 -- The Job Element Blank

SOURCE: Ernest S. Primoff, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975, p. 12.

Tabulating the Job Element Blanks and Interpreting the Results--After the panel has completed the Job Element Blanks they must be tabulated. This may be done by hand, or it may be done by computer. A pre-packaged FORTRAN program is available for this purpose.

From the four pieces of data each panel member has generated for each element, (Barely Acceptable, Superior, Trouble Likely, and Practical), it is possible to perform a number of simple calculations which yield the following information:

> (a) The Item Index. The Item Index indicates the extent to which a tentative subelement is a useful factor: whether it is sufficiently practical or whether it is related to potential sources of trouble.
> (b) Total Value. The total value of an element determines whether or not it reliably distinguishes between "barely acceptable" and "superior" work.
> (c) Factor Values. These statistics show the importance of elements or subelements for acceptable work, for superior work, and for the trouble likely to be caused if they are not evaluated, as well as how practical they are to rate objectively.[1]

Summary

In this chapter the author has attempted to provide the reader with a context for viewing the proposed study. We have briefly explored the history of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, focusing on the Department's shift from a system of institution-based care to one of community-based care. We next examined the role of the University of Massachusetts Juvenile Justice

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[1]Paul S. Pottinger, Methodology for the Identifcation of Characteristics of Successful Job Performers, p. 4.

Programs in the process of deinstitutionalization, documenting the resulting development of an academic component. In order to provide the reader with a context for viewing the Juvenile Justice Academic Program we then briefly reviewed the history and development of Criminal Justice higher education. An analysis of currently available programs was made and the need for further curriculum development in this area established. Based on criticisms of existing programs, it was proposed that future programs utilize job analysis as the foundation for their development. It was further proposed that Competency-Based Education, an approach integrating job analysis, be the mode employed for the development of curriculum related to this study. As such, the reader was next presented with an explanation and overview of the development of the Competency-Based movement. This chapter concluded with a review of existing methodologies potentially useful in determining the competencies relevant to the foundation of a Competency-Based curriculum.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used in the current study. The first section outlines the process used to determine an appropriate pool of position titles from which one was finally selected for purposes of this study. The second section offers a brief rationale for the selection of the Job Element Analysis as the methodology utilized in this study. The third and final section of this chapter describes the execution of the Job Element Analysis as it was employed to decipher the competencies necessary for superior performance as a Department of Youth Services Caseworker.

Identification of Position Titles

Before deciding upon the specific position to be analyzed in this study, a determination was made of the position titles currently used for the juvenile justice, criminal justice and social welfare fields.

The process for determining the position to be included in this inquiry was as follows:

The investigator first made a review of the literature to ascertain those studies which have culminated in the identification and definition of positions relevant to the juvenile justice, criminal justice and social welfare fields. In

addition to this, job descriptions were gathered from selected state agencies and private vendors throughout Massachusetts and New York State. A list was compiled of those job descriptions related to service-delivery--both administrative and non-administrative. Those positions which were judged to be clearly outside the purview of the proposed curriculum were eliminated, using the job descriptions as the basis for this judgement. Positions were deleted if they were not related to service delivery or if they required less than a baccalaureate degree for successful job performance. Groundskeeper and cook would be examples of this category.

Four independent raters, one faculty member and three doctoral students from the Juvenile Justice Program, then rated each position title as to whether they felt that the job required undergraduate (U) or graduate (G) preparation, or that the position could be filled by a person with either undergraduate or graduate training (U/G), depending upon other variables such as experience.

A listing of each of the position titles presented for rating, its source, and the raters' rankings follows:

Massachusetts Department of Youth Services[1]	U	G	U/G
1. Community Resource Developer	2		2
2. Supervising Casework Manager		1	3
3. Head Aftercare Caseworker	1	1	2
4. Aftercare Caseworker	4		
5. Shift Administrator/Assistant Shift Administrator	3		1
6. Floor Supervisor	3		1
7. Counselors		2	2
8. Controls, Intake Coordinator	3		1

[1]Information obtained from the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, Boston, Mass.

	U	G	U/G
9. Advocate (Legal)	4		
10. Court Liaison	4		
11. Foster Care Director		3	1
12. Intake Training Coordinator		1	2
13. Foster Care Caseworker	4		
14. Outreach and Tracking Counselor	4		

Massachusetts Council for Human Service Providers[1]

	U	G	U/G
1. Foster Parents	2		2
2. Caseworker	3		1
3. Caseworker Manager	3		1
4. Group Facility Counselor	2	1	1

New York State Division for Youth[2]

	U	G	U/G
1. Youth Division Counselor	3		1
2. Youth Division Aid	4		
3. Senior Youth Division Counselor (Supervises Y.D. Counselor and Aid)		3	1

Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training[3]

	U	G	U/G
1. Probation Officer	4		
2. Chief Probation Officer		4	
3. Team Leader	1	1	2
4. Probation Counselor	3		1
5. Recreation Personnel	4		
6. Delinquency Prevention Officer	4		
7. Aid (Social Worker)	4		

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[1]Information obtained from job descriptions from the Massachusetts Council for Human Service Providers, Boston, Mass.

[2]Information obtained from job descriptions from the New York State Division for Youth, Albany, N.Y.

[3]Ted Rubin and Jack F. Smith, The Future of the Juvenile Court: Implications for Correctional Manpower and Training, prepared for the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, Washington, D.C., 1968.

Project Star[1]

	U	G	U/G
1. Caseworker	3		1

Center for Human Development[2]

	U	G	U/G
1. Program Director		4	
2. Program Supervisor--Family Services		4	
3. Program Supervisor--Specialized Foster Care		4	
4. Program Supervisor--Detention Programs		4	

Department of Labor[3]

	U	G	U/G
1. Caseworker	3		1
2. Caseworker--Child Welfare	4		
3. Caseworker--Family	1		3
4. Casework Supervisor		2	2
5. Probation Officer	2		2
6. Counselor	2	1	1
7. Camp Director		2	2
8. Recreation Center Director	4		
9. Group Worker	4		
10. Program Aid -- Group Work	4		
11. Program Director--Group Work			4
12. Recreation Leader	4		
13. Recreation Supervisor	3		1
14. Social Group Worker	4		
15. Social Worker	1		3
16. Delinquency Prevention Social Worker	4		

[1] Charles P. Smith, Donald E. Pehlke, and Charles Weller, Role Performance and the Criminal Justice System. Vol. I: Summary (Cincinnati: Anderson-Davis, 1976).

[2] Information obtained from job descriptions from the Center for Human Development, Springfield, Mass.

[3] Information obtained from Dictionary of Occupational Titles, U. S. Department of Labor.

Florida Board of Regents Report [1]

		U	G	U/G
1.	Social Service Director		4	
2.	House Parent	4		
3.	House Parent Supervisor		2	2
4.	Home Life Supervisor	4		
5.	Cottage Life Director--D.Y.S.	1	2	1
6.	Field Services Youth Counselor--I	4		
7.	Field Services Youth Counselor--II	3		1
8.	Field Services Youth Supervisor		2	2
9.	Assistant Field Services District Supervisor		3	1
10.	Assistant Field Services District Supervisor III		4	
11.	Assistant Field Services District Supervisor IV		4	
12.	Assistant Group Treatment Leader	3		1
13.	Group Treatment Leader	2	2	
14.	Group Treatment Facility Supervisor		4	
15.	Assistant Halfway House Superintendent	3	1	
16.	Halfway House Superintendent	1	2	1
17.	Community Services Field Representative	3	1	
18.	Group Treatment Home Parent I	4		
19.	Field Services RegionalSupervisor		2	2

The preceeding list was then further condensed. Those positions rated as suitable only for graduate degree recipients were eliminated. Discussion by the raters yielded four (4) tentative categories of position titles:

1. Counseling
2. Casework
3. Legal/Courts
4. Supervisory

To eliminate possible confusion in subsequent rating, the counseling and casework categories were defined as follows:

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[1] Florida Board of Regents, Office of Career Planning and Curriculum Development for the Human Services, "Personnel and Staff Development Planning for the Human Services," (Bethesda, Md: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 119 571, 1975).

Counseling--included in this category are those positions whose main focus is delivering counseling service directly to the client either in a one-to-one or group format.

Casework--although there may be some counseling involved in casework service delivery, the focus of casework also includes any or all of the following functions:

a) development and implementation of a service plan for youth.

b) advocacy/linkage with services

c) enforcement of discipline regarding youth's behavior.

The Legal/Courts category included those positions whose primary responsibility involved either the courts or the legal system itself. The Supervisory category was created for positions which, although dealing primarily in the counseling, casework, or legal/courts areas, include the additional responsibility of supervising others engaged in these areas.

Each rater then individually assigned each position title to one of four categories. Any position deemed inappropriate for all four categories was labelled miscellaneous. Raters then discussed their ranking of each item until they reached a consensus. During this portion of the process still more position titles were eliminated because their concomitant descriptions were perceived to be either too vague or scant for any meaningful decision regarding proper categorization. The final categorial listing of position titles follows:

Counseling

Group Facility Counselor
Youth Division Counselor
Probation Officer
Counselor
Social Worker
Houseparent
Field Services-Youth Counselor
Floor Supervisor
Probation Counselor
Group Worker
Social Group Worker
Assistant Group Treatment Leader
Group Treatment Home Parent

Casework

Foster Care Caseworker
Caseworker
Casework Manager
Outreach and Tracking Counselor
Youth Division Counselor
Child-Welfare Caseworker
Family Caseworker
Probation Officer
Community Resource Developer
Aftercare Caseworker
Controls, Intake Coordinator
Delinquency Prevention Person
Delinquency Prevention Social Worker
Field Services-Youth Counselor
Community Services Reprsentative

Legal/Courts

Probation Officer
Advocate-Legal
Court Liaison
Team Leader (probation)
Probation Counselor

Supervisory

Recreation Center Director
Supervising Casework Manager
Team Leader (probation)
Program Director-Group Work
Cottage Life Director
Head Aftercare Caseworker
Shift Administrator
Group Treatment Leader
Assistant Halfway House Supervisor

Due to the limitations posed by restricted financial and human resources available for this study, it was necessary to choose only one position for analysis. Limiting the study to one position also assured a high degree of feasibility, while also offering an opportunity to test all aspects of the proposed methodology.

Given that the competencies established as a result of this investigation will be used as the foundation for an undergraduate level Competency-Based curriculum in Juvenile Justice, it was deemed important that the position chosen be useful to students in terms of potential job opportunities resulting from acquired position-related competence. This criteria had implications for the choice of the position to be analyzed, including that:

1. The position analyzed should be one which reflects a relatively large number of potential job openings in the field;
2. The position studied should also not be so highly specialized that it makes transfer to other positions difficult, i.e., it should bear some immediate relationship to the types of competencies one could expect to find in other positions in the juvenile justice field;
3. The position selected should be of an entry-level nature, requiring relatively little prior experience because in this way it would be feasible to provide students with adequate experiential preparation during the course of their practica within the program.

After reviewing the categorical listings it was decided that the caseworker position would be a suitable choice for analysis. Casework is not highly specialized, and subsequent job analyses will likely prove it to have many elements in common with counseling, advocacy, and probation. There are also many existing positions in casework. In Massachusetts DYS alone,

there are approximately one hundred ten[1] caseworkers. This does not account for the many comparable positions available in the private sector. Last-- casework is considered to be an entry level position for those who hold baccalaureates.

Rationale for Use of the Job Element Analysis

Following a review of the literature on existing methodologies used in the analysis of jobs, the Job Element Analysis (JEA) method was selected as the one most appropriate for the purposes of this study. A careful examination of this technique revealed several advantages of this method in contrast to the other procedures outlined in Chapter II:

1. Job Element Analysis was developed especially for the analysis of jobs and their component tasks. With the exception of the Functional Job Analysis (FJA) approach, all other techniques reviewed in Chapter II are borrowed from other applications and, as such, must be adapted for use in job analysis.

2. JEA provides for the analysis of data in such a way that the potential value of the established competencies for a training program is made clear.

3. JEA renders information on the components of superior performance in detail sufficient for the development of a job-related curriculum. In this respect it is superior to Functional Job Analysis which may be said to over-analyze tasks into picayune descriptions of physical behaviors and mental processes.

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[1]Interview with Phyllis Tourse, Director ofTraining, Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, Boston, Mass., 3 February 1978.

4. JEA accounts for the relative importance of each element of performance in respect to performance of the job as a whole. Data resulting from JEA clearly indicate those job components with scores high enough to be elements, those with scores in a range to be considered sub-elements, and those with scores too low to be considered an important aspect of superior job performance.[1]

5. JEA is an extensively researched methodology, validated through ongoing use and revision by the U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Job Element Analysis of the Caseworker Position

Introduction

This section will describe the actual procedure used in the Job Element Analysis of the position of DYS caseworker. The description offered here reflects an adaptation of Primoff's method to the unique circumstances of this study.

Procedure

Preliminary arrangements

Before contacting any caseworkers or collecting any data, the author met with John A. Calhoun, Commissioner of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services, to obtain Departmental approval for this study. After securing the Commissioner's endorsement, the author was referred to Phyllis

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[1] Paul A. Pottinger, Methodology for the Identification of Characteristics of Successful Job Performers, Institute for Competence Assessment, Boston, Mass., 1977, p. 5.

Tourse, Director of Training for DYS, for all subsequent assistance.

Ideally, the author had proposed a meeting composed of one representative from each of the seven DYS regions. Ms. Tourse thought this plan to be impractical, and suggested that the author contact small groups of caseworkers and casework managers within their home regions. Rather than contacting all seven regions involved, a costly and time consuming task, the author decided to select three regions for the original generation of data. The final selection of regions was made on the basis of demography and perceived diversity of philosophical orientation. The regions chosen were:

Region III - Concord area

Region IV - Boston area

Region VII - Cape Cod area

Although all three of these regions are located in eastern Massachusetts, the variety which they offer in terms of philosophical orientation and demography outweighed the value of a decision based on geographic distribution.

Ms. Tourse then identified caseworkers and casework managers whom she judged to have reputations for superior performance, and identified three or four persons in each of the three participating regions. A letter introducing the author and explaining the purpose of the study was then drafted and sent from the DYS Central Training Office to the selected parties. Subsequent to this, the author contacted each of the participating casework managers and

arranged to meet with them and those of their subordinates who had been selected for participation in this study. Because of the logistical problems mentioned earlier, it was necessary to meet with each of the regional subgroupings separately.

Generating the Elements and Subelements

The next step in the procedure was generating elements and subelements with each of the three participating regional groups.

An element is defined as "a worker characteristic which influences success in a job, including combinations of abilities, skills, knowledges, or personal characteristics."[1] A subelement, as defined by Primoff, is "a worker characteristic related to successful performance of a specific job. . . Subelements are not in themselves less generalizable than elements or less important: They simply help to ascertain the special application of an element to a particular situation."[2]

Generating elements and subelements was executed as follows. The author met with each of the three regional groups separately, for approximately two hours. The session began with an introduction of the investigation and a description of the purpose of the study, as well as the methodology to be used.

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[1] Ernest S. Primoff, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations, p. 74.

[2] Ibid., p. 75.

Next, participants were asked to brainstorm those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability which they felt to be essential to superior performance as a Department of Youth Services caseworker. They were encouraged not to limit their perspectives to a particular caseworker who they knew and judged to be superior, but rather to develop a composite description of all elements of superior performance. This composite description was also to include those attributes of an ideal caseworker, whether or not participants had actually ever known a person with these qualities.

As elements were generated they were numbered and recorded on newsprint by the author. Rather than debate whether or not a particular suggestion should be included in the list, all suggestions were written down. Participants were encouraged to compose as comprehensive a list of elements as possible. When they could think of no more elements, they were asked to review the existing list and specify any related subelements. When the listing of subelements was finished the session was ended. This same procedure was followed in Regions III, VI and VII, with a total of fourteen caseworkers and casework managers participating in the generation of job elements.

In order to provide input from youth, the recipients of caseworker services, the author randomly selected and interviewed four youth from the Advocate Program at the University of Massachusetts. The youth were asked to think of a really effective caseworker they had each encountered, or if they had never known a really effective one, to imagine what a superior caseworker would be like. What kind of attitudes would this caseworker have? What kinds

of things would he/she need to know? What skills and abilities were necessary? All responses were noted.

This list was then combined with the lists from each of the regions, eliminating duplications. The outcome was a master list of one-hundred-sixteen job elements.[1]

Meetings were then arranged with caseworkers and casework managers who had participated in the generation of the job elements. Each of them were presented with the master list of one-hundred-sixteen job elements and enough Job Element Blanks[2] to rate all items. They were instructed on how to fill out the blanks properly, as previously described in Chapter II, and rated the first few items with assistance from the author as needed. Once the process became clear, they filled out the remainder of the items independently. Because a number of the caseworkers were unable to make the scheduled meetings, the author gave detailed directions to the appropriate casework managers who in turn directed the caseworkers in completing the forms.

Of the fourteen people who participated in the generation of job elements, nine of them returned completed Job Element Blanks in time for tabulation. A tenth response was received long after the tabulations had been completed, and was not included for this reason.

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[1] The master list of one-hundred-sixteen job elements are listed in Appendix

[2] For a sample Job Element Blank see Appendix

Tabulating the Job Element Blanks[1]

This section provides the reader with descriptive information regarding the Job Element Blanks. It also details the calculations made using the data from the completed blanks. Tabulation of the Job Element Blanks was accomplished through use of a modified version of the FORTRAN program included in Primoff's Job Element Analysis manual.[2]

As described earlier in Chapter II, participants rated four columns for each of the one-hundred-sixteen job elements. A restatement of the focus of each of the four categories follows:

Barely Acceptable:	What relative portion of even barely acceptable workers are good in the element?
Superior:	How important is the element in picking out the superior worker?
Trouble:	How much trouble is likely if the element is ignored when choosing among applicants?
Practical:	Is the element practical? To what extent can we fill our job openings if we demand it?[3]

As the reader can see by examining the Job Element Blank, in the category Barely Acceptable (B), a (+) means all workers are good in the element, a (✓) means some are, and a (0) means that almost none are. In the Superior column (S) a (+) means that this element is very important in distinguishing the

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[1]Information in the following sections regarding tabulation of the Job Element Blanks and selection of the elements and subelements on the basis of pre-determined cut-off scores, is drawn from Primoff, How to Prepare and Conduct Job Element Examinations.

[2]Ibid., p. 74.

[3]Ibid., p. 3.

superior worker, a (✓) means that it is valuable in distinguishing the superior worker, and a (0) means that it does not distinguish the superior worker from anyone else. In the column listed Trouble (T) a (+) means that there is likely to be a lot of trouble if this element is ignored when choosing among applicants, a (✓) indicates some trouble likely, and a (0) means that this element is safe to ignore. In the fourth column, Practical (P) a (+) indicates that it is practical to expect to fill all job openings if this element were required, a (✓) means it is practical to expect to fill some openings and a (0) that almost no openings could be filled if this element were required.

When calculating, each (+) is counted as 2, each (✓) as 1, and each (0) as 0. Specific calculations for the Item Index and the Total Value as an Element are derived in the following way:

The Item Index:

This calculation determines which elements can be used in selecting superior workers. The formula used is S x P + T, or, superior x practicality + trouble likely. This means that the extent to which an element is useful in picking out superior workers is modified by the practicality of requiring this element, in addition to the trouble likely to be encountered if this element is ignored.

In calculating the Item Index, the product of S x P must be found for each individual respondent; these individual products are added together to

make the Group Sum of S X P. This Group Sum S x P is added to the Group Sum of T, yielding the Item Index.

The Total Value as an Element:

This calculation determines how broad an element is in terms of the range of ability it represents between barely acceptable and superior workers. Those items determined to be very broad are considered elements and those which are more specific are designated subelements. In a study such as this one, where there are no previously existing elements, it is necessary to select those which cover the broadest possible range of abilities as the foundation for subsequent investigations.

The formula for determining the Total Value as an Element is (IT + S - B - P). That is, add the Item Index to the Group Sum for Superior. From this total, subtract the Group Sum of the Barely Acceptable column, and then subtract the Group Sum of the Practical column. This will yield the Total Value as an Element.

Selecting Elements and Subelements:

Because different sized groups of raters affect the possible Group Sums, scores must be transmuted in order that the values of the scores are constant. Once transmuted, those items with total value scores of 100 or over are considered to be elements. Subelements are those items with transmuted Item Index scores of more than 50 but Total Value scores of less than 100.

Listed below are the scores of twenty-eight items which tallied high enough to be considered elements. This is followed by the scores of the forty-three items whose ratings qualified them as subelements. This data is included in Chapter III rather than Chapter IV because it is not a final result of the study, but merely an information gathering step, pre-requisite to forming the final questionnaire.

Job Elements for the Position of Caseworker:
Job elements are arranged in descending order of their Total Value

	Barely Acceptable	Superior	Trouble Likely	Practical	Total Value	Item Index
1. Consistency in dealing with youth	17	100	94	83	131	87
2. Ability to set limits for youth	11	100	89	78	128	81
3. Ability to respond to youth's needs	11	94	94	78	125	81
4. Realistic expectations/goals	6	94	83	72	119	74
5. Ability to function well under pressure	17	94	94	72	119	78
6. Commitment to youth	11	89	89	89	119	83
7. Ability to empathize	17	94	83	83	119	81
8. Ability to recognize clients' strengths and weaknesses	6	89	89	78	119	78
9. Ability to accept constructive criticism	17	100	89	67	119	74
10. Ability to assess needs of youth in order to plan intervention strategies	11	94	83	72	117	74
11. Knowledge of individual counseling techniques	11	94	83	72	117	74
12. Good listening skills	11	94	78	78	117	76
13. Ability to be objective in times of crisis	11	94	89	67	117	72
14. Must like people, especially youth	44	94	89	89	111	87
15. Ability to ask for help/advice when needed	33	94	78	89	111	83
16. Accessible to youth	11	89	78	78	111	74
17. Ability to manage time effectively	11	94	72	72	108	69
18. Knowledge of family counseling techniques	6	89	78	61	108	65

	Barely Acceptable	Superior	Trouble Likely	Practical	Total Value	Item Index
19. Ability to manage caseloads	11	89	83	67	108	69
20. Interviewing skills	11	94	72	72	108	69
21. Ability to show interest in youth	17	89	78	72	106	70
22. Knowledge of the youth's background	33	89	89	83	106	80
23. Ability to deal effecitvely with crises	11	89	83	56	103	61
24. Ability to see each youth as an individual	28	89	83	83	103	76
25. Keeps appointments with youth	33	89	72	94	103	81
26. Ability to recognize own strengths and weaknesses	22	89	83	72	103	70
27. Ability to build trusting relationships	11	78	83	72	100	69
28. Ability to organize	11	83	72	78	100	69

Subelements for the Position of Caseworker

Subelements consist of those items from the master list which had Item Index scores of more than 50 but Total Value scores of less than 100.

	Barely Acceptable	Superior	Trouble Likely	Practical	Total Value	Item Index
1. Ability to relate to youth on their own level	33	78	89	83	89	72
2. Ability to teach youth life skills	44	78	67	83	78	69
3. Ability to teach youth about sexuality	39	72	56	72	61	54
4. Knowledge of juvenile law	56	89	78	72	89	72
5. Ability to write coherent reports	39	89	83	83	97	76
6. Knowledge of drug use and abuse	44	67	67	67	58	54
7. Knowledge of alcohol use and abuse	44	67	67	67	58	54
8. Knowledge of the juvenile justice system, ie, police, courts, DYS, and how they all interrelate	50	72	61	67	58	54
9. Idealism	28	56	61	83	53	54

	Barely Acceptable	Superior	Trouble Likely	Practical	Total Value	Item Index
10. Ability to keep accurate records	28	78	89	89	82	74
11. Ability to balance needs of youth with personal needs	22	78	62	67	81	57
12. Ability to deal effectively with termination	22	78	61	67	78	56
13. Ability to plan for aftercare	22	78	67	67	81	57
14. Knowledge of counseling theory	17	83	67	83	97	70
15. Knowledge of family dynamics	22	83	78	72	94	67
16. Good communication skills	33	89	83	72	97	70
17. Sense of humor	50	78	61	78	69	63
18. Diagnostic skills	11	72	67	56	81	52
19. Open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments	28	72	61	72	72	57
20. Attitude that the client can change	39	83	83	83	97	78
21. Knowledge of adolescence	44	83	72	78	83	69
22. Knowledge of adolescent psychology	33	78	67	78	78	63
23. Knowledge of child psychology	33	72	56	72	64	54
24. A sense of your own value	39	78	78	89	86	74
25. Energetic	28	78	62	83	81	65
26. Confidence	33	83	61	78	83	65
27. Ability to be assertive without being aggressive	33	72	61	67	69	56
28. Patience	33	78	78	72	81	63
29. Ability to give support	17	78	83	61	92	61
30. Keeps youth informed of what is happening	33	67	56	83	61	57
31. Awareness of burn-out syndrome and how to avoid it	33	83	67	72	86	65
32. Ability to advocate for youth	28	78	72	72	83	63
33. Open-minded	28	72	67	61	69	52
34. Non-judgmental attitude	28	78	62	67	83	61
35. Ability to change	22	72	56	67	69	52
36. Ability to deal with change	28	83	72	72	89	65
37. Ability to negotiate	17	78	72	61	83	56
38. Ability to be self-reflective/ objective	11	78	78	50	86	52
39. Awareness of your own values and how they can impact on youth	6	78	72	56	86	52
40. Belief that the client comes first	11	72	61	78	81	59

	Barely Acceptable	Superior	Trouble Likely	Practical	Total Value	Item Index
41. Sensitivity toward each youth	22	78	72	83	89	69
42. Ability to interpret behavior of youth (arm-carving, etc.)	39	72	78	61	69	56
43. Awareness of your own sexuality and its impact on the client	44	72	67	61	64	54

The previous listing of job elements and subelements for the caseworker position was used as the basis for developing two similar questionnaires. One, the Caseworker Self-Report Checklist, was sent with an accompanying letter[1] to all Massachusetts Department of Youth Services caseworkers. The other, the Caseworker Checklist, was sent with an accompanying letter[2] to all casework managers in D. Y. S.

Casework Managers, responsible for supervising caseworkers, were asked to rate each of their subordinates on the Caseworker Checklist. They were also asked to designate each subordinate as average or superior, and to label each questionnaire with the appropriate subordinate's name. Caseworkers were asked to rate themselves on the Caseworker Self-Report Checklist. They were not asked to designate themselves as superior or

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[1]A sample of the letter and Caseworker Self-Report Checklist is included in Appendix A.

[2]A sample of the letter and Caseworker Checklist is included in Appendix B.

average; they also were not asked to put their names on their questionnaire. Each of the Caseworker Self-Report Checklists was pre-coded with a number corresponding to the worker's name on a master list. In this way it was possible to match the supervisor's rating of the worker with the caseworker's own self-assessment.

Five days after the questionnaires were sent out the author was contacted by the assistant to the DYS Director of Training. She reported that she had been contacted by a number of casework managers who were unwilling to put their subordinates' names on the Caseworker Checklists because they felt this violated confidentiality. According to the system then in operation, omission of the caseworkers' names would make the matching of supervisor and subordinate responses impossible. Solution of this problem necessitated the development of a new coding system.

The author decided on a system in which casework managers in each region would meet together (where there was more than one manager) and decide on which numbers each of them would use for their subordinates, insuring that no number was used more than once. Each number was then communicated to the appropriate subordinate who then re-coded her/his checklist. Both caseworkers and casework managers also indicated their region number. Thus a checklist code might read "Region VI #7," appearing on both the manager's and the caseworker's forms so that matching of forms was possible upon return.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to describe the methodology used in the current study. We began with a review of the process used to determine the position title most appropriate for purposes of this dissertation. Next we examined the rationale for using the Job Element Analysis. This was followed by a review of the actual procedure employed in the generation of elements and subelements. Calculation of the Job Element Blanks was explained and the resulting elements and subelements listed. This listing served as the basis for two similar questionnaires which were sent to all DYS casework managers and caseworkers respectively. The chapter concluded with a description of the process used for the coding and distribution of checklists. The results of both questionnaires will be presented and discussed in Chapter four.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter of the dissertation will focus on a presentation and discussion of the results of the study. Two similar questionnaires were developed from the results of the Job Element Analysis. The checklists each consisted of seventy-one questions which were identical, except that the Casework Self-Report Checklist (for caseworkers) was written in the first person singular while the Caseworker Checklist (for managers) was written in the third person singular. Responses of managers and caseworkers were paired, and t-tests performed on the data. Results of the calculations for each element are presented in table form, accompanied by discussion. Later in the chapter, the author provides the reader with an analysis of the data.

Because the checklists were paired, (manager's assessment of caseworker A's performance with caseworker A's own self-assessment), much of the data received by the author could not be included in the study because only one half of the pair was received. At the time of the analysis of the data, twenty-one paired responses had been received. Of these, eight were rated superior and thirteen were rated average. Although the managers'

response sheets only included spaces for superior and average ratings, in three cases respondents wrote in "below average" or "poor". For the sake of analysis, these assessments were included in the average grouping. The possible choice for categorization was limited to only superior and average groupings because the t-test is meant to determine the discrepancy between means, thus requiring the establishment of two means.

As the reader may recall from Chapter Three, all data included in the Job Element Analysis, and hence the checklists, was generated in Regions III, VI, and VII of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services. Additional elements were also generated by four Advocate Program youth. The regions represented in this portion of the study, the analysis of checklists, were as follows:

Region I - 1 paired response

Region II - 0 paired response

Region III - 5 paired responses

Region IV - 5 paired responses

Region V - 5 paired responses

Region VI - 0 responses

Region VII - 5 paired responses

Results of Data Analysis

Manager and caseworker responses were analyzed by computer using various programs from the Stastical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Responses of managers were grouped according to whether they were rated superior or average, and t-tests were performed to determine the significance of the differences. T-ratios were also determined for the responses of superior workers and average workers. Summaries of the findinggs are included in Table 4.1, Managers' Ratings of Superior and Average Workers, and Table 4.2, Workers' Self-Ratings According to Superior and Average categories.

The reader will notice that the levels of significance for manager responses are usually considerably higher than those for worker responses. This may be attributed, at least in part, to the halo effect. Because managers were asked to rate each subordinate as either superior or average, and because they presumably had general opinions about the worker beforehand, they may have been sensitized to their overall perceptions of each worker. When positive, this could lead to rating the worker high on the elements and when negative, rating the worker low. The workers themselves were not aware of the average and superior ratings, and so were free from this bias in their self-assessments. Another possible reason for the discrepancy between the significance levels of managers and workers is the rating behavior of workers. In self-rating, it may be that superior workers are reluctant to rate themselves as highly as someone else might rate them. Average workers may be reticent to rate themselves as low as they might be rated by others. This rating toward the middle would result in smaller t-ratios and lower levels of significance.

The discrepancy between the results obtained from managers and workers was so great that only four elements were calculated to be significant to both groups. They were as follows:

Element:
8. Ability to plan for aftercare
60. Caseworker is open-minded
63. Caseworker has an open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments
66. Caseworker is committed to youth

The specific data relating to each of these elements will be discussed later in this chapter in greater detail.

As previously mentioned in Chapter Three, four youth from the University of Massachusetts Advocate Program participated in the initial generation of elements. Together, they generated a total of nine elements which were subsequently included in the Job Element Analysis list of one-hundred-sixteen items. Tabulation of results indicated that seven of the original nine elements received scores high enough to merit their inclusion on the caseworker checklists. Analysis of the checklist data reveals that all seven of the youth-originated items were significant as rated by managers, though none of them were significant as rated by workers. A listing of the youth-generated items follows:

Element:
2. Ability to set limits for youth
3. Ability to show interest in youth
41. Knowledge of the youths' background

48. Caseworker is accessible to youth

49. Caseworker keeps youth informed of what is happening regarding them

55. Caseworker is patient

67. Caseworker keeps appointments with youth

Further discussion of each item, along with presentation of statistical data, will be included later in this chapter.

Of the seventy-one elements which were included in the checklists, forty-eight of those rated by managers were found to be significant at the .05 level or below. Only eight items rated by workers were found to be significant at this level.

Two summary tables are presented in the following pages. They are Table 4.1, Managers' Ratings of Superior and Average Workers and Table 4.2, Workers' Self Ratings According to Superior and Average Categories. In examining these tables, the reader's attention is called to the columns labelled "Significance Level." The data included in these columns portrays the very different significance levels, mentioned earlier, obtained for each of the two groups.

TABLE 4.1

Managers' Ratings of Superior and Average Workers

Competencies	Mean for Superior Workers		Mean for Average Workers		T Value	Significance Level
	N		N			
1	8	4.0	13	2.23	5.84	.0001
2	8	4.0	13	2.84	3.43	.005
3	8	4.0	13	2.84	3.43	.005
4	8	4.0	13	3.30	2.25	.04
5	8	3.87	13	2.46	4.78	.0001
6	8	4.12	13	2.61	3.13	.006
7	8	4.25	13	2.84	3.75	.001
8	8	3.87	13	2.76	3.60	.002
9	8	3.62	13	2.38	2.63	.02
10	8	3.37	13	2.76	1.11	.29
11	8	3.62	13	2.69	1.82	.04
12	8	3.62	13	2.53	2.55	.02
13	8	3.75	13	2.46	3.06	.007
14	8	3.87	13	2.61	4.64	.0001
15	8	3.62	13	2.53	2.41	.03
16	8	3.50	13	2.46	2.58	.02
17	8	3.62	13	2.61	2.62	.01
18	8	3.37	13	2.46	2.14	.04
19	8	4.00	13	3.00	3.61	.004
20	8	3.75	13	2.46	2.89	.009
21	8	3.25	13	2.30	1.86	.08
22	8	3.50	13	2.61	1.65	.12
23	8	3.50	13	2.76	1.29	.21
24	8	3.37	13	2.92	.72	.48
25	8	3.87	13	3.23	1.30	.21
26	8	4.00	13	3.23	1.85	.08
27	8	4.12	13	3.23	2.58	.02
28	8	4.00	13	2.76	3.41	.005
29	8	3.62	13	3.15	1.24	.23
30	8	4.00	13	2.92	3.48	.005
31	8	4.00	13	3.00	3.34	.006
32	8	4.00	13	2.69	3.99	.002
33	8	3.75	13	3.23	1.47	.16
34	8	3.87	13	2.92	3.03	.008
35	8	3.12	13	2.69	1.06	.30
36	8	2.87	13	2.38	1.12	.28

Competencies	Mean for Superior Workers		Mean for Average Workers		T Value	Significance Level
	N		N			
37	8	3.00	13	2.30	1.64	.12
38	8	3.00	13	2.38	1.65	.11
39	8	3.00	13	1.92	2.54	.02
40	8	3.00	13	2.00	2.07	.05
41	8	4.00	13	3.23	3.33	.006
42	8	2.87	13	2.46	.94	.36
43	8	3.50	13	3.61	-.37	.71
44	8	3.87	13	3.84	.10	.92
45	8	3.00	13	2.92	.18	.86
46	8	3.00	13	2.92	.18	.85
47	8	4.12	13	2.76	2.86	.01
48	8	4.25	13	3.23	3.14	.006
49	8	4.00	13	3.23	2.13	.05
50	8	4.12	13	2.92	2.39	.03
51	8	4.25	13	3.46	2.04	.06
52	8	4.25	13	3.53	2.11	.05
53	8	4.37	13	2.76	4.13	.001
54	8	4.00	13	2.69	3.10	.006
55	8	4.00	13	3.23	2.13	.05
56	8	3.62	13	3.23	1.02	.32
57	8	4.00	13	2.69	4.98	.0001
58	8	3.87	13	3.00	2.55	.02
59	8	3.87	13	2.76	3.03	.008
60	8	3.87	13	2.76	2.85	.008
61	8	4.12	13	2.76	4.74	.0001
62	8	3.75	13	3.15	1.20	.24
63	8	4.25	13	2.69	4.47	.0001
64	8	4.00	13	2.92	2.91	.009
65	8	4.12	13	3.00	2.41	.03
66	8	4.12	13	3.00	2.63	.02
67	8	4.37	13	3.46	2.94	.008
68	8	4.12	13	2.23	7.22	.0001
69	8	4.50	13	2.30	4.46	.0001
70	8	4.37	13	2.30	5.64	.0001
71	8	3.62	13	3.00	1.63	.12

TABLE 4.2

Workers' Self Ratings According to Superior and Average Categories

Competencies	Mean for Superior Workers		Mean for Average Workers		T Value	Significance Level
	N		N			
1	8	3.75	13	3.61	.37	.71
2	8	4.0	13	3.61	1.12	.28
3	8	4.0	12	4.0	0	1.0
4	8	3.62	13	3.53	.23	.82
5	8	3.50	13	3.46	.09	.93
6	8	4.12	13	3.76	1.93	.07
7	8	3.75	13	3.30	1.34	.10
8	8	3.87	13	3.30	2.12	.05
9	8	3.37	13	3.07	.63	.53
10	8	3.75	13	3.46	.59	.56
11	8	3.62	13	3.38	.57	.58
12	8	3.87	13	3.92	-.11	.91
13	8	3.50	13	3.69	-.49	.63
14	8	3.50	13	3.53	-.10	.92
15	8	3.75	13	3.30	1.14	.27
16	8	3.62	12	3.58	.09	.93
17	8	3.75	13	3.38	.82	.421
18	8	3.25	13	3.30	-.12	.90
19	8	3.75	13	3.46	.68	.50
20	8	3.75	13	3.38	1.00	.330
21	8	2.75	13	2.92	-.31	.76
22	8	3.12	13	3.23	-.20	.84
23	8	3.12	13	3.38	-.51	.61
24	8	3.75	13	3.00	1.44	.17
25	8	4.12	13	3.76	1.14	.26
26	8	4.12	13	3.92	.81	.43
27	8	4.12	13	4.07	.24	.81
28	8	4.25	13	4.15	.35	.73
29	8	3.62	12	3.41	.47	.64
30	8	4.0	13	3.53	1.23	.23
31	8	4.12	13	3.92	.84	.42
32	8	4.25	13	3.92	1.25	.23
33	8	3.75	13	3.30	1.00	.33
34	8	3.50	11	3.54	-.09	.93
35	8	2.37	13	3.69	-3.30	.003
36	7	2.0	13	3.3	-5.52	.0001
37	7	2.28	13	3.46	-2.78	.01
38	8	2.25	13	2.61	-1.10	.29

Competencies	Mean for Superior Workers		Mean for Average Workers		T Value	Significance Level
	N		N			
39	8	2.37	13	2.38	-.02	.99
40	8	2.37	13	2.92	-1.38	.18
41	8	3.75	13	3.76	-.05	.96
42	8	2.37	13	2.69	-.75	.46
43	8	2.75	13	3.76	-1.95	.07
44	8	3.0	13	3.76	-1.40	.18
45	8	3.0	13	3.76	-1.40	.18
46	8	2.87	13	3.69	-1.63	.12
47	8	4.87	13	4.53	1.61	.12
48	8	4.37	13	4.30	.25	.80
49	8	4.75	13	4.69	.22	.83
50	8	4.37	13	4.61	-.78	.44
51	8	4.5	13	4.69	-.72	.48
52	8	4.12	12	4.33	-.63	.54
53	8	4.25	13	4.15	.26	.80
54	8	4.12	13	4.15	-.10	.92
55	8	4.0	13	3.69	.63	.54
56	8	3.12	13	3.53	-.94	.36
57	8	4.12	13	4.0	.31	.76
58	8	4.5	13	4.15	1.08	.29
59	8	4.5	13	4.2	.81	.43
60	8	4.5	12	3.75	2.79	.01
61	8	4.25	13	4.15	.26	.80
62	7	3.42	13	3.15	.56	.58
63	8	4.37	13	3.61	2.23	.04
64	8	4.12	12	3.75	.84	.41
65	8	4.62	12	4.41	.88	.39
66	8	5.0	11	4.0	2.80	.02
67	8	4.25	13	4.38	-.61	.55
68	8	4.37	12	4.08	1.04	.31
69	8	4.25	12	3.75	1.49	.15
70	7	4.42	12	4.0	1.34	.20
71	7	4.57	13	4.0	1.1	.28

In the next section data regarding each item will be presented and discussed. For the reader's convenience, all relevant statistics will be presented in table form along with the discussion of each question. Data has been organized into four broad categories--abilities, areas of knowledge, attitudes, and skills. In each section items will be presented in descending order of significance as rated by managers. In most instances there were eight subjects in the superior category and thirteen in the average category. For simplicity of presentation, only deviations from these figures will be discussed.

Abilities

TABLE 4.3

Element 1. Ability to set limits for youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.23	5.84	.0001	8	3.75	13	3.61	.37	.71

For element 1, ability to set limits for youth, the managers' mean for superior workers was 4.0, while it was 2.23 for average workers. The difference between the two means rendered a t-value of 5.84 which was significant at the .0001 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 3.75 and for average workers 3.61. A t-test applied to the two means resulted in a value of .37 at the .71 level of significance.

It is interesting to note the large difference in significance levels between manager and worker. As the reader will see, this is a pattern which is quite consistent throughout the findings.

TABLE 4.4

Element 5. Ability to negotiate

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	2.46	4.78	.0001	8	3.5	13	3.46	.09	.93

For element 5, ability to negotiate, the managers' mean score for superior workers was 3.87, while it was 2.46 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 4.78 and was significant at the .0001 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 3.5 and for average workers was 3.46. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of .09 at the .93 level of significance.

TABLE 4.5

Element 7 - Ability to assess needs of youth in order to plan intervention strategies

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.25	13	2.84	3.75	.001	8	3.75	13	3.30	1.34	.10

On element 7, ability to assess needs of youth in order to plan intervention strategies, the mean managers' rating for superior workers was 4.25, while it was 2.84 for average workers. Administration of a t-test yielded a t-value of 3.75 at the .001 level of significance. The ratings of workers yielded a 3.75 mean for superior caseworkers, and a 3.30 mean for caseworkers of average performance level. These means had a t-value of 1.34, significant at a level of .10.

TABLE 4.6

Element 8 - Ability to plan for aftercare

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	2.76	3.60	.002	8	3.87	13	3.30	2.12	.05

Managers rated ability to plan for aftercare, element 8, was a mean score of 3.87 for superior caseworkers, and 2.76 for average caseworkers. The t-ratio for these two means is 3.60 with a significance level of .002. Caseworkers themselves rated this element with a 3.87 mean superior workers score, and a 3.30 mean average workers score. A t-test of these two means rendered a value of 2.12 at the .05 level of significance. As mentioned earlier, this is one of the four elements which both managers and caseworkers rated as significant. Even so, the level of significance for managers is considerably higher. Yet the fact remains that both groups felt that average and superior workers differed in their ability to plan for aftercare.

TABLE 4.7

Element 32 - Ability to build trusting relationships

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.69	3.99	.002	8	4.25	13	3.92	1.25	.23

Ability to build trusting relationships, element 32, received a mean score of 4.0 for the superior category and 2.69 for the average category as determined by managers. The t-value of these two scores was 3.99 at a .002 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.25 in the superior worker category, and 3.92 for the average worker. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was 1.25, significant at the .23 level.

TABLE 4.8

Element 19 - Ability to ask for help when needed

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.0	3.61	.004	8	3.75	13	3.46	.68	.50

Element 19, ability to ask for help when needed, was rated by managers with a mean of 4.0 and 3.0 for superior and average categories respectively. The t-value was determined to be 3.61, significant at the .004 level. Worker ratings resulted in mean scores of 3.75 in the superior category and 3.46 in the average category. In this instance the t-value was .68 and the significance level .50.

TABLE 4.9

Element 30 - Ability to empathize

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.92	3.48	.005	8	4.0	13	3.53	1.23	.23

When casework supervisors rated their subordinates on ability to empathize, they rated superior workers with a mean score of 4.0 and average workers 2.92. The t-value for these two scores is 3.48 with a significance of .005. The workers themselves arrived at a mean of 4.0 for the superior category and 3.53 for the average. The t-value here is 1.23, significant at the .23 level.

TABLE 4.10

Element 28 - Ability to relate to youth on their own level

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.76	3.41	.005	8	4.25	13	4.15	.35	.73

Table 4.10 depicts managers' and workers' scores for element 28, ability to relate to youth on their own level. The managers' mean score for the superior category was determined to be 4.0 while the average category was rated 2.76. The t-value here is 3.41 with a .005 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed mean scores of 4.25 and 4.15 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of .35, significant at the .73 level.

TABLE 4.11

Element 3 - Ability to show interest in youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.84	3.43	.005	8	4.0	12	4.0	0	1.0

According to managers' ratings, element 3, ability to show interest in youth, had a mean score of 4.0 for superior workers and 2.84 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 3.43, significant at the .005 level. The means for workers' ratings were 4.0 in both the superior and average categories with a t-ratio of 0, significant at 1.0. For this element the N for workers' ratings in the superior category was 8, while the N in the average category was only 12. This item was originally generated by youth.

TABLE 4.12

Element 2 - Ability to respond to youth's needs

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.84	3.43	.005	8	4.0	13	3.61	1.12	.28

Managers rated ability to respond to youth's needs, element 2, with a mean score of 4.0 for superior caseworkers and 2.84 for average caseworkers. The t-ratio for these two means was 3.43 with a significance level of .005. Caseworkers themselves rated this element with a 4.0 mean superior worker score, and a 3.61 mean average worker score. A t-test of these two means rendered a value of 1.12 at the .28 level of significance. This item was originated by youth participating in the generation of elements.

TABLE 4.13

Element 6- Ability to interpret behavior of youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	2.61	3.13	.006	8	4.12	13	3.76	1.93	.07

For element 6, ability to interpret behavior of youth, the managers' mean score for superior workers was 4.12, while it was 2.61 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 3.13, and was significant at the .006 level. The mean workers' rating for superior workers was 4.12, and for average workers 3.76. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of 1.93 at the .07 level of significance.

TABLE 4.14

Element 31 - Ability to give support

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.0	3.34	.006	8	4.12	13	3.92	.84	.42

Ability to give support, element 31, received a mean score of 4.0 for the superior category, and 3.0 for the average category as determined by managers. The t-value for these two scores was 3.34 at a .006 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.12 for the superior worker category, and 3.92 for the average worker. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was .84, significant at the .42 level.

TABLE 4.15

Element 13 - Ability to deal with change

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.75	13	2.46	3.06	.007	8	3.50	13	3.69	-.49	.63

Element 13, ability to deal with change, was rated by managers resulting in means of 3.75 and 2.46 for superior and average categories respectively. The t-value was determined to be 3.06, significant at the .007 level. Worker ratings resulted in mean scores of 3.50 and 3.69 in the superior and average worker categories. In this instance the t-value was -.49 and the significance level .63.

TABLE 4.16

Element 34 - Ability to teach youth about sexuality

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	2.92	3.03	.008	8	3.50	11	3.54	-.09	.93

When casework supervisors rated their subordinates on ability to teach youth about sexuality, element 34, they rated superior workers with a mean score of 3.87 and average workers with a mean score of 2.92. The t-value for these two scores is 3.03 with a significance of .008. The workers themselves arrived at a mean of 3.50 for the superior category, and 3.54 for the average category. The t-value here is -.09, significant at the .93 level. For this element the workers' ratings had an N of 8 for the superior worker category, while only an N of 11 for the average worker category.

TABLE 4.17

Element 20 - Ability to change

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.75	13	2.46	2.89	.009	8	3.75	13	3.38	1.00	.33

According to managers' ratings element 20, ability to change, had a mean score of 3.75 for superior workers and 2.46 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 2.89, significant at the .009 level. The means for workers' ratings were 3.75 for superior and 3.38 for average, with a t-ratio of 1.00, significant at .33.

TABLE 4.18

Element 17 - Ability to be self-reflective/objective

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.62	13	2.61	2.72	.01	8	3.75	13	3.38	.82	.42

Table 4.18 depicts the managers' and workers' scores for element 17, ability to be self-reflective/objective. The average score for the superior category was determined to be 3.62, while the average category was rated 2.61. The t-value here is 2.72, with a .01 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed scores of 3.75 and 3.38 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of .82, significant at the .42 level.

TABLE 4.19

Element 12 - Ability to be assertive without being aggressive

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.62	13	2.53	2.55	.02	8	3.87	13	3.92	-.11	.91

For element 12, ability to be assertive without being aggressive, the managers' mean score for superior workers was 3.62, while it was 2.53 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 2.55 which was significant at the .02 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 3.87, and for average workers 3.92. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of -.11 at the .91 level of significance.

TABLE 4.20

Element 16 - Ability to balance needs of youth with caseworker's own personal needs

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.5	13	2.46	2.58	.02	8	3.62	12	3.58	.09	.93

Element 16, ability to balance needs of youth with caseworker's own personal needs, was rated by managers with means of 3.5 and 2.46 for superior and average categories respectively. The t-value was determined to be 2.58, significant at .02. Worker ratings resulted in mean scores of 3.62 and 3.58 in the superior and average worker categories respectively. In this instance the t-value was .09 and the significance level .93. It is also important to note that in the worker ratings of element 16, the N for the superior group was 8, but the N for the average group was only 12.

TABLE 4.21

Element 27 - Ability to see each youth as an individual

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	3.23	2.58	.02	8	4.12	13	4.07	.24	.81

Ability to see each youth as an individual, element 27, received a mean score of 4.12 for the superior category and 3.23 for the average category as determined by managers. The t-value for these two scores was 2.58, at a .02 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.12 for the superior worker category, and 4.07 for the average worker category. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was .24, significant at the .81 level.

TABLE 4.22

Element 15 - Caseworker's ability to recognize own strengths and weaknesses

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.62	13	2.53	2.41	.03	8	3.75	13	3.3	1.14	.27

When casework managers rated their subordinates on their ability to recognize their own strengths and weaknesses, element 15, they rated superior workers with a mean score of 3.62 and average workers 2.53. The t-value for these two scores is 2.41 with a significance of .03. The workers themselves arrived at a mean score of 3.75 for the superior category and 3.3 for the average. The t-value here is 1.14, significant at the .27 level.

TABLE 4.23

Element 4 - Ability to advocate for youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.30	2.25	.04	8	3.62	13	3.53	.23	.82

Table 4.23 depicts managers' and workers' scores for element 4, ability to advocate for youth. The average score for the superior category was determined to be 4.0 while the average category was rated 3.30. The t-value here is 2.25, with a .04 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed mean scores of 3.62 and 3.53 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of .23, significant at the .82 level.

TABLE 4.24

Element 11 - Ability to deal effectively with crises

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.62	13	2.69	1.82	.04	8	3.62	13	3.38	.57	.58

According to managers' ratings, element 11, ability to deal effectively with crises, had a mean score of 3.62 for superior workers and 2.69 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 1.82, significant at the .04 level. The means for workers' ratings were 3.62 for the superior category and 3.38 for the average category. The t-value for workers' ratings was .57, significant at the .58 level.

TABLE 4.25

Element 18 - Ability to accept constructive criticism

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.37	13	2.46	2.14	.04	8	3.25	13	3.39	-.12	.90

On element 18, ability to accept constructive criticism, the mean managers' rating for superior workers was 3.37, while it was 2.46 for average workers. Administration of a t-test yielded a t-value of 2.14 at the .04 level of significance. The ratings of workers yielded a 3.25 mean for superior caseworkers, and a 3.30 mean for caseworkers of average performance. These means had a t-value of -.12, significant at a level of .90.

The preceeding pages have examined the data regarding the checklist elements which concerned caseworker abilities. Each table depicts the number of workers rated superior and average by managers, the mean score for each of these two groupings, and the t-value and significance level. In addition, the tables show the workers' ratings of themselves. These data are divided according to groups of superior and average workers. The means are shown for each group, along with the t-value and significance level.

Of the 32 elements which concerned abilities, nine of them were not found to be significant while 23 of them were. That is, 72% of the elements concerning ability were rated as significant by managers while 28% were not. In general when considering most abilities included in the checklists, managers really felt there was a significant difference in the performance of superior and average workers. According to worker ratings, the difference in performance levels was not so great. But it must be remembered that workers were not aware that they were rated either superior or average, and this may have had some effect on their rating behavior.

Areas of Knowledge

TABLE 4.26

Element 41 - Knowledge of the youth's background

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.23	3.33	.006	8	3.75	13	3.76	-.05	.96

For element 41, knowledge of the youth's background, the managers' mean score for superior workers was 4.0, while it was 3.23 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 3.33 and was significant at the .006 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 3.75, and for average workers, 3.76. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of -.05, significant at the .96 level.

TABLE 4.27

Element 39 - Knowledge of family counseling techniques

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.0	13	1.92	2.54	.02	8	2.37	13	2.38	-.02	.99

Table 4.27 depicts the managers' and workers' scores for element 39, knowledge of family counseling techniques. The average manager score for the superior category was determined to be 3.0 while the average category was rated 1.92. The t-value here is 2.54 with a .02 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed mean scores of 2.37 and 2.38 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of -.02 significant at the .99 level.

TABLE 4.28

Element 40 - Knowledge of family dynamics

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.0	13	2.0	2.07	.05	8	2.37	13	2.92	-1.38	.18

Element 40, knowledge of family dynamics, was rated by managers with means of 3.0 and 2.0 for superior and average categories respectively. The t-value was determined to be 2.07, significant at the .05 level. Worker ratings resulted in mean scores of 2.37 and 2.92 in the superior and average worker categories respectively. In this instance the t-value was -1.38 and the significance level .18.

The three preceeding pages presented the data regarding the knowledge elements which were rated to be significant by managers. Each table portrayed the number of workers rated superior and average by managers, the mean score for each of these two groupings, and the t-value and significance level. In addition, the tables show the workers' ratings of themselves. These data are divided according to superior and average workers. The means are shown for each group, along with the t-value and significance level.

In the knowledge category, nine of the twelve elements received significance levels above .05 while only three were rated as significant. Or, 75% of the knowledge elements were found to be not significant and only 25% were found to be significant.

The findings regarding knowledge elements is perhaps the most surprising of the four groupings. The current University of Massachusetts Juvenile Justice Academic Program draws very heavily on this category for the substance of many of its courses. A discussion of possible reasons for the ratings reported in this section will be presented later in this chapter.

TABLE 4.29

Element 57 - Caseworker has a sense of own value

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.69	4.98	.0001	8	4.12	13	4.0	.31	.76

According to managers' ratings, element 57, caseworker has a sense of own value, had a mean score of 4.0 for superior workers and 2.69 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 4.98 significant at the .0001 level. The means for workers' ratings were 4.12 for the superior category and 4.0 for the average category. The t-value for these two scores was .31, significant at the .76 level.

TABLE 4.30

Element 61 - Caseworker seems to have realistic expectations/goals

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	2.76	4.74	.0001	8	4.25	13	4.15	.26	.8

Managers rated element 61, caseworker seems to have realistic expectations/goals, with a mean score of 4.12 for superior caseworkers and 2.76 for average caseworkers. The t-ratio for these two means is 4.74 with a significance level of .0001. The caseworkers themselves rated this element with a 4.25 mean superior worker score, and a 4.15 mean average worker score. A t-test of these two means rendered a value of .26 at the .8 level of significance.

TABLE 4.31

Element 63 - Caseworker has an open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.25	13	2.69	4.47	.0001	8	4.37	13	3.61	2.23	.04

On element 63, caseworker has an open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments, the mean managers' rating for superior workers was 4.25, while it was 2.69 for average workers. Administration of a t-test yielded a t-value of 4.47 at the .0001 level of significance. The ratings of workers yielded a 4.37 mean for superior caseworkers and a 3.61 mean for case-workers of average performance. These scores had a t-value of 2.23, significant at a level of .04. This element was one of only four which was rated significant by both supervisors and workers.

TABLE 4.32

Element 53 - Caseworker is energetic

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.37	13	2.76	4.13	.001	8	4.25	13	4.15	.26	.80

Element 53, caseworker is energetic, received a mean score of 4.37 for the superior category and 2.76 for the average category, as determined by managers. The t-value for these two scores was 4.13 at a .001 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.25 for the superior worker category and 4.15 for the average worker category. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was .26, significant at the .80 level.

TABLE 4.33

Element 48 - Caseworker is accessible to youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.25	13	3.23	3.14	.006	8	4.37	13	4.30	.25	.80

On element 48, caseworker is accessible to youth, calculations of ratings of managers revealed a mean of 4.25 for superior workers, and 3.23 for average workers. A t-test performed on these figures resulted in a value of 3.14, significant at the .006 level. When workers rated themselves on the same element the mean was 4.37 for superior workers and 4.30 for average workers. The t-value for these scores was .25 which has a significance level of .80. This element was originally suggested by the youth included in this study.

TABLE 4.34

Element 54 - Caseworker has self-confidence

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.69	3.10	.006	8	4.12	13	4.15	-.10	.92

For element 54, caseworker has self-confidence, the managers' mean score for superior workers was 4.0 while it was 2.69 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 3.10 and was significant at the .006 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 4.12, and for average workers 4.15. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of -.10 at the .92 level of significance.

TABLE 4.35

Element 59 - Caseworker seems to be aware of own values and how they impact on youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	2.76	3.03	.008	8	4.5	13	4.2	.81	.43

Table 4.35 depicts managers' and workers' scores for element 59, caseworker seems to be aware of own values and how they impact on youth. The mean score for the superior category was determined to be 3.87, while the average category was rated 2.76. The t-value here is 3.03 with a .008 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed mean scores of 4.5 and 4.2 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of .31 at the .43 level.

TABLE 4.36

Element 60 - Caseworker is open-minded

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	2.76	2.95	.008	8	4.5	12	3.75	2.79	.01

When casework supervisors rated their subordinates on element 60, caseworker is open-minded, their ratings of superior workers resulted in a mean score of 3.87 and average workers 2.76. The t-value for these two scores is 2.95 with a significance of .008. The workers themselves arrived at a mean of 4.5 for the superior category and 3.75 for the average. The t-value here is 2.79, significant at the .01 level. For this element, workers' ratings were based on an N of 8 in the superior category and an N of 12 in the average category. The reader may also note that this element received significant ratings from both groups.

TABLE 4.37

Element 67 - Caseworker keeps appointments with youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.37	13	3.46	2.94	.008	8	4.25	13	4.38	-.61	.55

Element 67, caseworker keeps appointments with youth, received a mean score of 4.37 for the superior category, and 3.46 for the average category as determined by the managers. The t-value for these two scores was 2.94 at a .008 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.25 for the superior worker category and 4.38 for the average worker category. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was -.61, significant at the .55 level. This item was generated by the youth participating in this study.

TABLE 4.38

Element 64 - Caseworker has a non-judgmental attitude

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	2.92	2.91	.009	8	4.12	12	3.75	.84	.41

According to managers ratings, element 64, caseworker has a non-judgmental attitude, had a mean score of 4.0 for superior workers and 2.92 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 2.91, significant at the .009 level. The means for workers' ratings were 4.12 and 3.75, with a t-ratio of .84, significant at the .41 level. While the N for calculations of this element was 8 in the superior category and 13 in the average category for managers, the workers' ratings were based on an N of 8 superior workers and 12 average workers.

TABLE 4.39

Element 47 - Caseworker's actions indicate a belief that the client comes first

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	2.76	2.86	.01	8	4.87	13	4.53	1.61	.12

Element 47, caseworker's actions indicate a belief that the client comes first, was rated by managers with means of 4.12 and 2.76 for superior and average categories respectively. The t-value was determined to be 2.86, significant at the .01 level. Worker ratings resulted in mean scores of 4.87 and 4.53 in the superior and average worker categories respectively. The t-value for the workers' ratings was 1.61 at a .12 level of significance.

TABLE 4.40

Element 58 - Caseworker seems to be aware of own sexuality and its impact on the client

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.87	13	3.0	2.55	.02	8	4.5	13	4.15	1.08	.29

On element 58, caseworker seems to be aware of own sexuality and its impact on client, the mean managers' rating for superior workers was 3.87, while it was 3.0 for average workers. Administration of a t-test yielded a t-value of 2.55 at the .02 level of significance. The ratings of workers yielded a 4.5 mean for superior caseworkers and a 4.15 mean for caseworkers of average performance. These means had a t-value of 1.08, significant at a level of .29.

TABLE 4.41

Element 66 - Caseworker is committed to youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	3.0	2.63	.02	8	5.0	11	4.0	2.80	.02

Managers rated caseworkers' commitment to youth, element 66, with a mean score of 4.12 for superior caseworkers and 3.0 for average caseworkers. The t-ratio for these two means was 2.63 with a significance level of .02. Caseworkers themselves rated this element with a 5.0 mean superior workers score and a 4.0 mean average workers score. A t-test of these two means rendered a value of 2.80 at the .02 level of significance. It should be noted that the N for the workers' ratings of element 66 consisted of 8 for the superior worker category, and 11 for the average worker category. Element 66 was one of the four items rated significant by both managers and workers.

TABLE 4.42

Element 65 - Caseworker shows sensitivity toward each youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	3.0	2.41	.03	8	4.62	12	4.41	.88	.39

Element 65, caseworker shows sensitivity toward each youth, received a mean score of 4.12 for the superior category and 3.0 for the average category as determined by managers. The t-value for these two scores was 2.41 at a .03 level of significance. Workers' ratings resulted in a mean of 4.62 for the superior worker category and 4.41 for the average worker category. The t-ratio for workers' rankings was .88, significant at the .39 level. For this element workers' ratings were based on an N of 8 in the superior category, and 12 in the average category.

TABLE 4.43

Element 50 - Caseworker is consistent in dealing with each youth

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	2.92	2.39	.03	8	4.37	13	4.61	-.78	.44

On element 50, caseworker is consistent in dealing with each youth, calculations of ratings of managers revealed a mean of 4.12 for superior workers and 2.92 for average workers. A t-test performend on these figures resulted in a value of 2.39 significant at the .03 level. When workers rated themselves on this same element the mean was 4.37 for superior workers and 4.61 for average workers. The t-value for these scores was -.78, significant at the .44 level.

TABLE 4.44

Element 49 - Caseworker keeps youth informed of what is happening regarding them

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.23	2.13	.05	8	4.75	13	4.69	.22	.83

Table 4.44 depicts managers' and workers' scores for element 49, caseworker keeps youth informed of what is happening regarding them. The average score for the superior category as rated by managers was determined to be 4.0 while the average category was rated 3.23. The t-value here is 2.13 with a .05 level of significance. Workers' ratings revealed mean scores of 4.75 and 4.69 for superior and average categories respectively. Application of a t-test to the scores rendered a value of .22, significant at the .83 level.

TABLE 4.45

Element 52 - Caseworker has a sense of humor

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.25	13	3.53	2.11	.05	8	4.12	12	4.33	-.63	.54

For element 52, caseworker has a sense of humor, the managers' mean scores for workers was 4.25, while it was 3.53 for average workers. The difference between the two means had a t-value of 2.11 and was significant at the .05 level. The mean worker rating for superior workers was 4.12, and for average workers 4.33. A t-test applied to these two means resulted in a t-value of -.63 at the .54 level of significance. Calculations for the workers' ratings are based on an N of 8 in the superior category and 12 in the average category.

TABLE 4.46

Element 55 - Caseworker is patient

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.0	13	3.23	2.13	.05	8	4.0	13	3.69	.63	.54

When casework supervisors rated their subordinates on patience, element 55, they rated superior workers with a mean score of 4.0 and average workers with a mean score of 3.23. The t-value for these two scores is 2.13 with a significance of .05. On the other hand, the workers themselves arrived at a mean of 4.0 for the superior category and 3.69 for the average. The t-value here is .63, significant at the .54 level.

The tables on the preceeding pages portrayed the data regarding the elements which concerned caseworker attitudes. Each table depicts the number of workers rated superior and average by managers, the mean scores for each of these two groupings, and the t-value and significance level. In addition, the tables show the workers' ratings of themselves. These data are divided according to superior and average workers. The means are shown for each group, along with the t-value and significance level.

When looking at attitudes, managers rated four elements above .05 and 18 below .05. According to these figures only 18% of the attitudes listed were not significant while 82% were.

In general, managers felt that there was a significant difference in the attitudes of superior and average workers. Of the four areas, knowledge, skill, attitude, and ability, it is probably most difficult to modify a person's attitudes. This may have important implications for both hiring and educating. These points will be discussed in more detail at the end of this chapter.

Skills

TABLE 4.47

Element 68 - Caseworker's listening skills

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.12	13	2.23	7.22	.0001	8	4.37	12	4.08	1.04	.31

According to managers' ratings of element 68, caseworkers' listening skills had a mean score of 4.12 for superior workers and 2.23 for average workers. Application of a t-test determined a t-value of 7.22, significant at the .0001 level. The means for workers' ratings were 4.37 and 4.08. with a t-ratio of 1.04, significant at the .31 level. Statistics for workers' ratings are based on an N of 8 in the superior worker category, and an N of 12 for the average worker category.

TABLE 4.48

Element 69 - Caseworker's interviewing skills

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.50	13	2.30	4.46	.0001	8	4.25	12	3.75	1.49	.15

On element 69, caseworker's interviewing skills, the mean managers' rating for superior workers was 4.50 while it was 2.30 for average workers. Administration of a t-test yielded a t-value of 4.46 at the .0001 level of significance. The ratings of workers yielded a 4.25 mean for superior caseworkers and a 3.75 mean for caseworkers of average performance. These means had a t-value of 1.49, significant at a level of .15. The scores of element 69 are based on an N of 8 for superior workers and an N of 12 for average workers in the workers' rating category.

TABLE 4.49

Element 70 - Caseworker's communication skills

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\overline{X}$ Sup	N	$\overline{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	4.37	13	2.30	5.64	.0001	7	4.42	12	4.0	1.34	.2

Managers rated caseworkers' communications skills, element 70, with a mean score of 4.37 for superior caseworkers, and 2.30 for average caseworkers. The t-ratio for these two means is 5.64 with a significance level of .0001. Caseworkers themselves rated this element with a 4.42 mean superior workers score, and a 4.0 mean average workers score. A t-test of these two means rendered a value of 1.34 at the .2 level of significance. For this element workers' ratings were based on an N of 7 in the superior workers category, and an N of 12 in the average workers category.

TABLE 4.50

Element 9 - Diagnostic skills

MANAGERS' RATINGS						WORKERS' RATINGS					
N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig	N	$\bar{X}$ Sup	N	$\bar{X}$ Avg	t-val.	Sig
8	3.62	13	2.38	2.63	.02	8	3.37	13	3.07	.63	.53

When managers rated caseworkers' diagnostic skills, element 9, calculations of ratings of managers revealed a mean of 3.62 for superior workers, and 2.38 for average workers. A t-test performed on these figures resulted in a value of 2.63, significant at the .02 level. When workers rated themselves on the same element the mean was 3.37 for superior workers and 3.07 for average workers. The t-value for these scores was .63 which has a significance level of .53.

The tables on the preceeding pages outlined the data regarding the elements which concerned caseworker skills. Although there were only four skill areas included in the checklist, virtually all of them were rated significant by managers, although none of them were found significant by workers.

Each table depicts the number of workers rated superior and average by managers, the mean scores for each of these two groupings, and the t-value and significance level. In addition, the tables show the workers' ratings of themselves. These data are divided according to superior and average workers. The means are shown for each group, along with the t-value and significance level.

As mentioned earlier, the elements listed and discussed in the tables were arranged on the basis of descending order of level of significance as rated by managers. Only those elements with significance levels of .05 or below as indicated by the managers' ratings were included in this section of tables. All elements with a significance level of .05 or less as rated by managers will be considered competencies necessary for superior performance as a caseworker. As such, it is appropriate that these competencies be considered in the development of a juvenile justice curriculum which includes preparation for casework.

Of the 71 items included on the checklist, several were determined to be significant above the .05 level as rated by managers. According to the procedures established by the Institute for Competence Assessment,[1] those elements which were not determined to be significant are not validly related to superior performance. As such, elements in this study with significance levels of .05 and above may be less important to curriculum development efforts. But this point is debatable, and will be discussed in greater detail later on. However, before such a discussion, a categorical listing of those elements found to be significant at more than .05 is offered below:

Abilities

10. Ability to function well under pressure

21. Ability to manage time effectively

22. Ability to manage caseloads effectively

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[1]Paul S. Pottinger, Description of Job Elements Analysis, p. 5.

23. Ability to organize

24. Ability to keep accurate records

25. Ability to write coherent reports

26. Ability to recognize clients' strengths and weaknesses

29. Ability to deal effectively with termination (of youth)

33. Ability to teach youth life skills

Areas
of Knowledge

35. Knowledge of adolescence

36. Knowledge of individual counseling techniques

37. Knowledge of group counseling techniques

38. Knowledge of counseling theory

42. Knowledge of child psychology

43. Knowledge of juvenile law

44. Knowledge of juvenile justice system, i.e., police courts, D.Y.S., and how they all inter-relate

45. Knowledge of drug use and abuse

46. Knowledge of alcohol use and abuse.

Attitudes

51. Likes people, especially youth

56. Awareness of the burn-out syndrome and how to avoid it

62. Idealism

67. Belief that the client can change

Skills

According to ratings by managers no skills had significance levels above .05.

Analysis and Discussion of Results

The results of the ratings of elements by managers and workers raises a number of interesting questions which this section of chapter four will attempt to address.

At the beginning of this chapter we looked at the general results of the ratings of managers and workers. We saw how managers' ratings resulted in 48 significant elements. However, workers' ratings yielded only 7 significant elements. It was suggested that these results could be due, at least in part, to a halo effect inherent in managers' ratings, and a tendency of workers to rate themselves toward the middle score. Another influence on the outcome of the data may have been the small size of the sample which served as the basis for these calculations. Although the possible effects of sample size should not be ignored, there may be still other factors contributing to the rating behaviors of the respondents. We will now turn our attention to some of the possible explanations of those factors which may have affected the results.

Although the ability and skill results are not particularly surprising, a number of issues are raised by the outcomes of the knowledge and attitude areas. The reader will recall that only three of the twelve knowledge elements

were found to be significant. This is the lowest number and the lowest percentage of significant items found in any of the four element groupings. Yet, it is the knowledge area which has the most in common with existing Juvenile Justice Academic Program courses. To academicians who may feel that they are offering what is needed, the results could be puzzling and disturbing. What could account for the results of the knowledge element ratings? One possible explanation may lie in the way respondents were themselves educated in the areas represented by the knowledge elements. Probably moreso than any other category, the knowledge elements may resemble courses which the respondents themselves had in college. If the material was not presented to them in a satisfactory manner and if, since that time, they have not been able to assimilate this knowledge and apply it to their work, they may place a lower relative value on these elements. This could affect their perceptions of the knowledge elements and, in turn, their ratings.

There is another possible explanation for the low knowledge ratings. Because the knowledge elements are transmitted more easily than some others, especially attitudes, it may be possible for new employees to acquire the necessary knowledge once on the job. There is some evidence that this factor may have played a role in the low ratings accorded the knowledge elements. During the sessions when job elements were generated, some caseworkers commented when others generated knowledge elements. Their feeling was that employees could learn the necessary facts and information

once on the job. Since these same caseworkers and their colleagues did the rating of elements, this attitude may be reflected in the results.

The results of the attitude elements also merit some discussion. As mentioned earlier, 18 of the 22 attitude elements were found to be significant; only four were not. One possible explanation for these results may lie within the current organizational milieu of the Department of Youth Services. When the training schools were closed, a number of the personnel who had formerly worked in these large institutions were transferred to other positions within DYS. During Miller's administration there was much discussion about the inappropriate attitudes and behavior of some training school personnel. Whether true or not, and regardless of how many people actually fit into the category of having inappropriate attitudes, the awareness of the importance of the "right" attitudes may have been heightened among staff within the organization, thus affecting the ratings of attitudes.

If attitudes are significant factors in distinguishing superior from average workers, then they are probably important to consider at the time of hiring. There are also implications for any educational program preparing students for casework. If in fact, it is difficult to modify attitudes, can this be accomplished through an educational program? Is it ethical to intentionally try to change attitudes within an educational program, or is this brainwashing? If students do not hold the attitudes associated with superior performance, what will happen to them when they seek employment after graduation? Although

solution of problems such as these is not within the purview of this dissertation, such issues are important ones to consider for future curriculum development. At the very least, this information may be useful to students who are exploring the field of juvenile justice. In this way they would have some indication as to how suitable their attitudes are for the type of work they are considering.

Apart from discussion of the results of ratings in each of the four areas, there are some general issues raised by this study. This method is usually not used for curriculum development. It was originally developed to establish the qualifications necessary to performance in specified job roles. The information generated is then usually translated into requirements for recruitment, hiring, promotion and personnel review. Although the process seems satisfactory for curriculum development purposes in general, there are some possible areas for improvement. One suggestion regards the directions given job incumbents in the data generation stage. In this study, caseworkers, casework managers and youth were asked to identify those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability necessary for superior performance as a caseworker. The question might more appropriately be "What would the ideal academic program need to include in order to prepare superior caseworkers?" This would put the focus more in the context of academia while still leaving ample latitude to address the needs of the field.

When considering the techniques used in data collection, one might also consider the appropriateness of the soucre of the data. The method used in this study presumes that workers are the most knowledgeable persons regarding

what is needed to prepare students for a given job role. While it is probably true that no one knows better than job incumbents and their supervisors what it takes to perform their jobs effectively, it may be useful to incorporate other perspectives as well. The current study went beyond Primoff's methodology and included the input of consumers, in this case youth. In future studies it might be beneficial to include the viewpoints of academicians as well. In this way, the results would perhaps better represent the specific concerns of providers and consumers while also including the broader perspective offered by academia.

The final area the author wishes to address concerns the statistical procedures used in analyzing the checklist data. In the current study, means were calculated for manager ratings of superior and average workers as well as worker ratings of superior and average workers. T-tests were then performed on the resulting means to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of superior and average workers as rated by managers and the workers themselves. According to this technique, developed by David McClelland and his associates from the Institute for Competence Assessment, only those elements found to be significant are validly related to superior performance. In future studies, it may be wise to also consider those elements with high ratings for both the superior and average categories. Although such ratings would probably not render the elements significant, there would be consensus that they are, in fact, characteristics of all workers.

In this chapter the author has presented the findings of the study. Data for all elements were presented, and those elements found to be significant as rated by managers were discussed in detail. In the final section factors which may have influenced the ratings, and hence the results, were presented and discussed. In the fifth and final chapter of the dissertation, the author will summarize the study, draw conclusions, and present recommendations and implications for policy and future study.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The transition of the Massachusetts Department of Youth Services from a custodial philosophy to a community-based philosophy of care has wrought many implications. Perhaps the most important to this paper is the resultant need for the training and retraining of youth services workers. Many of the personnel formerly employed in Bay State juvenile institutions now work in the new system, yet they have not had access to training to equip them for their new responsibilities. Private vendors, who supply many of the services rendered to youth, employ over 1,000 workers. The need for relevant training in the private sector is just as acute.

Although there are a vast number of criminal justice and law enforcement programs both nationwide as well as here in the Commonwealth, the opportunity for higher education in juvenile justice is severely limited. When the additional criteria of community-based orientation is added to juvenile justice education, the available options are nearly non-existent.

According to the 1975 National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections report[1] Massachusetts is foremost in the nation in its implementation of the community-based care modality. But Massachusetts is not alone.

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[1] Vinter, et al., Juvenile Corrections in the States: Residential Programs and Deinstitutionalization, p. 51.

Juvenile justice administrators nationwide have monitored the progress of the Massachusetts experiment. As a result, many states have adopted this approach in varying degrees. In fact in 1975 all but six states used some form of community-based care. This trend toward the delivery of services in the community implies a need for the training and retraining of youth service personnel.

Before training needs are addressed, there is a need to determine what is required for effective performance in the new system. To this end, this dissertation has explored various job analysis techniques including observation, time sampling, participant logs, individual and group interviews, supervisor interviews, the Nominal Group Technique, Critical Incident Analysis, Behavioral Event Analysis, Functional Job Analysis, and finally, Job Element Analysis. Once the requirements for effective performance have been determined, a curriculum development model must be selected.

In this dissertation a competency-based model of curriculum development has been proposed. It is the author's opinion that this model provides some insurance of a prescribed minimal level of competence for all program graduates. Because the competency-based approach incorporates and easily accommodates the use of detailed job analyses, the resulting curriculum is likely to be more congruent with the actual needs of workers in the field. As a preliminary step toward the development of a competency-based curriculum in juvenile justice, the research focus of this study was on the establishment of competencies prerequisite to curriculum development. To

determine the appropriate competencies the author implemented Primoff's Job Element Analysis in working with Massachusetts D.Y.S. caseworkers to discern those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability critical to superior performance as a caseworker in juvenile justice. The opinions of youth, the consumers of caseworker services, were integrated into this step of the process.

After the job element analysis was completed, D.Y.S. caseworkers state-wide were asked to rate themselves on the resulting elements of job performance. Supervisors of these caseworkers were also asked to rate them, specifying whether their performance was, in general, superior or average. T-tests were performed on this data, comparing (1) the superior and average workers, as rated by managers, and (2) the superior and average workers as rated by the workers themselves. These calculations determined 48 elements with scores significant enough to be considered area competence related to superior performance as a caseworker. Twenty-two elements yielded scores above the .05 level of significance and therefore may be of less importance in the development of curriculum.

There were a number of variables which may have affected the outcomes of this study. Although they are explored in greater detail in Chapter four, a brief summary of them follows:

1) Managers' ratings resulted in 48 significant elements; workers' ratings resulted in only 7 significant elements. The difference in the

number of significant elements for each group may be due, at least in part, to a halo effect reflected in managers' ratings. Also, there may have been a tendency for workers to rate themselves toward the middle score, that is, superior workers rating themselves lower, and less competent workers rating themselves higher, than others might rate them.

2) The sample size used in the study was small. There were eight superior cases (rated by both the managers and the workers themselves) and 13 average cases (also rated by both managers and workers). A larger sample may yield different results.

3) The rating of the knowledge elements, which had the lowest percentage of significant elements of the four groups, may have been affected by the raters' own experience with academic material of this nature. If this experience was not positive and if workers have had little success in applying theoretical knowledge to work situations, this may have affected the way in which they viewed the relative utility of the knowledge elements. Workers may also have felt that it was possible to acquire the necessary knowledge and information once on the job.

4) The ratings of the attitude elements indicated that there is a significant difference between average and superior workers for most attitude elements included in the checklists. This may be due to an increased awareness of the importance of attitudes

resulting from the integration of ex-training school workers into the community-based system of care now employed by DYS. This emphasis on attitudes has a number of important implications for educational programming and hiring practices. These are explored in more depth in Chapter four.

5) The data generated in this study may have been influenced by the directions for generating elements. In this study respondents were asked to identify those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability necessary for superior performance as a caseworker. In future studies it may be more appropriate to ask what the ideal academic program would need to include in order to prepare superior caseworkers. The generation of elements may also have been affected by a tendency of workers to recall peak work-related experiences, both highs and lows, rather than focusing on those areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability most important to routine daily performance.

6) This study focused on the perceptions of caseworkers, casework managers, and youth to determine the competencies necessary for superior casework. In future studies it may be useful to incorporate the perspective of academicians as well.

Conclusions

1. Based on the results of this study, there are 48 areas of knowledge, skill, attitude and ability validly related to superior performance as a caseworker which may be useful as the foundation for competency-based juvenile justice curriculum development. A more detailed examiniation of manager ratings reveals that:

a) Of the 32 ability-related elements, 23 of them were determined to be significant by managers while nine of them were not.

b) Of the 12 knowledge-related elements, three of them were determined to be significant while nine of them were not.

c) Of the 22 attitude-related elements, 18 were found to be significant. Four of them were not significant at the .05 level.

d) There were four skill-related elements. All of these were found to be significant.

2. Although the methodology used in the current study yielded 48 elements validly related to superior performance as a DYS caseworker, it may be overly simplistic to base decisions regarding the appropriateness of elements for curriculum development on the mere comparison of mean scores of rater groups. This does not take into account those elements which were rated high for both superior and average workers.

3. The results of this study show a low percentage of knowledge elements rated as significant. Such low ratings may reflect a lack of knowledge regarding

curriculum development on the part of workers and supervisors. If so, it may be helpful to also include representatives of the academic community in future research efforts of this kind, thus incorporating all perspectives which are of importance in developing a curriculum of this type.

4. The results of this study show that attitudes are an important factor in differentiating superior and average workers. This has a number of implications for the current educational system. Most traditional curricula seem to give little or no attention to the examination and intentional development of student attitudes. It may even be argued that such an undertaking is outside the purview of education in a free society. Yet scrutiny of the current educational system reveals that we do in fact admit students into schools on the basis of their attitudes toward education as reflected in their ability to perform on aptitude tests. And yet numerous studies have shown that such tests do not measure intelligence but only student ability to perform well in situations resembling the testing situation. Aptitude tests are valid for predicting success in school "because school success depends on taking similar types of tests. Yet neither the tests nor school grades seem to have much power to predict real competence in many life outcomes, aside from the advantages that credentials convey on the individuals concerned."[1]

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[1] David C. McClelland, "Testing for Competence Rather than Intelligence," reprinted with permission from the American Psychologist, 28:1, January, 1973, p. 6.

The results of this study regarding attitudes seem to indicate that it may be worth considering an increased emphasis on those aspects of student development which do relate to competence in life outcomes.

5. There is a lack of job-relevant higher educational opportunities in the area of juvenile justice nationwide. The entire field of criminal justice grew very quickly. Monetary resources were the stimulus for much of this growth. In some cases, program quality was of secondary concern. For programs who are training students who will ultimately deliver services to people, and impact upon their lives, the quality of education and training available to staff should be of primary concern. Yet juvenile justice education is nearly non-existent. This is particularly true of educational opportunities which adequately prepare students for the realities of a community-based system of care.

6. Competency-based education, based on job analysis, offers a mechanism which provides curriculum input from both service-providers and service-consumers, therefore offering a degree of relevance to the field which is seldom achieved through the traditional methods of curriculum design.

Recommendations and Implications for Policy and Future Study

1. This study attempted to base the establishment of competencies of the perceptions of "experts"--those persons currently engaged in actual delivery of services to the client group in question. In future studies it is recommended that the job incumbents and their supervisors not only be consulted

regarding the areas of knowledge, skill, attitude, and ability necessary for superior performance, but that they also have input into the formulation of the methodology. This is particularly important for those aspects of the methodology regarding the mechanics of data collection. It is important that the procedures used in data collection are in accord and not in conflict with the organization's norms, lines of authority, and systems of communication. This leads then to a second methodological recommendation.

2. Analyze the system before formulating the methodology and collecting the data.

3. There are a number of methodologies currently in use for developing comptency-based curricula. In this dissertation the author has reviewed all methodologies which she was able to discover through a review of the literature. Of all the procedures assessed, the Job Element Analysis was one of the two most sophisticated methods reviewed, the other one being Functional Job Analysis. FJA was rejected on the basis of the taxonomical nature of the results this method yields. After careful examination, the author concluded that the Job Element Analysis was best suited to the purposes of this study.

Although this method worked well and yielded a host of valuable information, the complexity of this procedure raises questions about its feasibility as a curriculum development tool. In any curriculum development effort, the use of time and resources are a primary concern. Realistically, JEA is a time-consuming process, particularly the first time it is used. It

is likely that subsequent investigations could be appreciably expedited due to increased familiarity with the procedure and heightened awareness of pitfalls that must be avoided. In any case, the process could be streamlined considerably by conducting job analyses by sampling job encumbents and consumers rather than attempting to assess all workers in the position under investigation. At the same time, it is recognized that future studies should be based on a larger total sample.

4. Because the results of elements rated significant at .05 or above are inconclusive at best, it is recommended that these items be studied in greater detail before making a final decision regarding their suitability for future curriculum development.

5. The author recommends an increase in collaboration between the community (e.g. service providers and service consumers), and university educators regarding the process and content of higher educational programming. Some areas that should be addressed in a collaborative undertaking of this nature include:

a) Discussion of the role of academia in meeting the educational needs of the community

b) An assessment of the need to change what and how we develop and deliver educational services.

6. The author recommends that criminal justice curricula, particularly juvenile justice, be made as relevant as possible to the actual training and educational needs of the field. These needs should be ascertained through a

detailed job analysis in order to determine the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities necessary for superior job performance. Current criminal and juvenile justice programs are often based on the needs in the field as perceived by faculty who may or may not be familiar with what the actual needs are.

7. Juvenile justice and criminal justice curricula should be re-examined to determine if they meet the needs of an emerging and ever-expanding community-based system of care.

8. Task analyses should be done for other service-related positions in juvenile justice.

9. These analyses and the resultant competency statements form the foundation for the development of a competency-based curriculum in juvenile justice. The areas of overlap of competencies would become the generic competencies of the curriculum. The unique competency areas would become the areas of specialization.

10. Any competency-based juvenile justicd curriculum established should be conducted in conjunction with ongoing evaluation. This evaluation should include the comparison of students engaged in Competency-Based Education to those engaged in traditional criminal justice/juvenile justice programs. The evaluation should also include a follow-up study comparing the graduates of the competency-based program to those of the traditional program for job placement and job success.

11. The Department of Youth Services, in conjunction with the State Board of Higher Education, should establish and articulate those competencies and areas of educational preparation necessary and appropriate for the performance of service-related work with juveniles.

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APPENDIX A

CASEWORKER SELF-REPORT CHECKLIST

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01003

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

March 8, 1978

For approximately the past five weeks my colleagues and I have been working in cooperation with the Department of Youth Services to determine the areas of competence necessary for casework. When completed, this study will provide valuable data for both the Department and the group which I represent- the Juvenile Justice Academic Program at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

This data will provide the Department with detailed information on what you, your fellow caseworkers, and casework managers perceive to be the most important qualities for excellent casework. This information can then be used as a needs assessment for training and guidelines for the hiring of future caseworkers, among other possible applications.

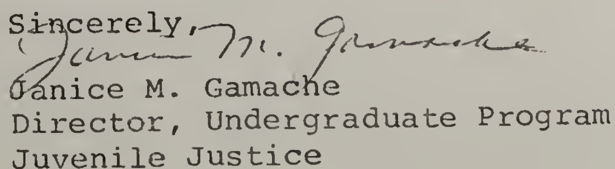
The Juvenile Justice Academic Program will utilize the data in a different way. This information will form the foundation for the development of a Competency-Based program in Juvenile Justice. In a Competency-Based program, participating students will be deemed ready for graduation only when they have demonstrated their competence in areas which they need,to perform effectively in the field. We feel that you, as a practicing professional, are the best qualified to state what these areas of competence should be.

As a result, I am asking that you take fifteen of twenty minutes out of your busy schedule to let me know what you think. All of your responses will be held in the <u>strictest</u> of confidence and will be seen only by me.The identifying number in the top right corner of the first page of the questionnaire is included so that I will know which questionnaires have been returned,and can then contact the remaining people to remind them to return their checklists.

Because of deadlines here at the University, I would very much appreciate it if you could complete the enclosed questionnaire and forward it to me in the stamped, self-addressed envelope by March 17.

I thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Sincerely,



Janice M. Gamache
Director, Undergraduate Program
Juvenile Justice

When completed please return to:

Janice Gamache
97 Belchertown Rd.
Amherst, Mass. 01002

CASEWORKER SELF-REPORT CHECKLIST

Please answer the questions below using the following scale.

1____ I often experience difficulty in this area
2____ I sometimes experience difficulty in this area
3____ I exercise this ability but am closely supervised
4____ I exercise this ability on my own, under normal supervision
5____ I am called upon to assist others due to my skill in this area

Please write the number of the response which most applies to you in the blank at the right of each question.

1. Ability to set limits for youth.- ____
2. Ability to respond to youth's needs.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
3. Ability to show interest in youth. - ____
4. Ability to advocate for youth.- ____
5. Ability to negotiate. - ____
6. Ability to interpret behavior of youth.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
7. Ability to assess needs of youth in order to plan intervention strategies. - ____
8. Ability to plan for aftercare.- ____
9. Diagnostic skills.- ____
10. Ability to function well under pressure. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
11. Ability to deal effectively with crises. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
12. Ability to be assertive without being aggressive. - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
13. Ability to deal with change. - ____
14. Ability to negotiate.- ____
15. Ability to recognize my own strengths and weaknesses. - - - - - - - - - - ____
16. Ability to balance needs of youth with my own personal needs.- - - - - - ____
17. Ability to be self-reflective/objective. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
18. Ability to accept constructive criticism. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
19. Ability to ask for help when needed. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

20. Ability to change. - ____
21. Ability to manage time effectively.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
22. Ability to manage caseloads effectively.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
23. Ability to organize. - ____
24. Ability to keep accurate records. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
25. Ability to write coherent reports. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
26. Ability to recognize client's strengths and weaknesses.- - - - - - - - ____
27. Ability to see each youth as an individual. - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
28. Ability to relate to youth on their own level.- - - - - - - - - - - - ____
29. Ability to deal effectively with termination (of youth). - - - - - - - ____
30. Ability to empathize. - ____
31. Ability to give support. - ____
32. Ability to build trusting relationships. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
33. Ability to teach youth life skills. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
34. Ability to teach youth about sexuality.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

* * *

Please answer the following questions using the scale below.

1____ I know little or nothing about this
2____ I have studied or been trained in this
3____ I have used my knowledge, but am closely supervised
4____ I have used my knowledge on my own, under normal supervision
5____ I am consulted by other workers in difficult situations or act as a specialist

Please write the number of the response which most applies to you in the blank at the right of each question.

35. Knowledge of adolescence. - ____
36. Knowledge of adolescent psychology. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
37. Knowledge of individual counseling techniques.- - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
38. Knowledge of counseling theory. - ____
39. Knowledge of family counseling techniques.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
40. Knowledge of family dynamics. - ____
41. Knowledge of the youth's background.- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
42. Knowledge of child psychology. - ____

43. Knowledge of juvenile law. - ____

44. Knowledge of juvenile justice system i.e., police, courts, DYS and how they all interrelate. - ____

45. Knowledge of drug use and abuse. - ____

46. Knowledge of alcohol use and abuse. - ____

* * *

Please answer the questions below using the following scale.

1.____ not at all
2.____ a little
3.____ somewhat
4.____ quite a bit
5.____ a great deal

Please write the number of the response which most applies to you in the blank at the right of each question.

47. I believe that the client comes first. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

48. I am accessible to youth. - ____

49. I keep youth informed of what is happening regarding them. - - - - - - - - ____

50. I am consistent in dealing with youth. - ____

51. I like people, especially youth. - ____

52. I have a sense of humor. - ____

53. I am energetic. - ____

54. I have self-confidence. - ____

55. I am patient. - ____

56. I am aware of the Burn-Out Syndrome and how to avoid it. - - - - - - - - - ____

57. I have a sense of my own value. - ____

58. I am aware of my own sexuality and its impact on my client. - - - - - - - - ____

59. I am aware of my own values and how they impact on youth. - - - - - - - ____

60. I am open-minded. - ____

61. I have realistic expectations/goals. - ____

62. I am idealistic. - ____

63. I have an open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments. - - - - - ____

64. I have a non-judgemental attitude. - ____

65. I show sensitivity toward each youth. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

66. I am committed to youth. - ____

67. I keep appointments with youth. (check one that most applies)

    1. ____ never
    2. ____ almost never
    3. ____ sometimes
    4. ____ nearly always
    5. ____ always

* * *

Please answer the following questions using the scale below.

    1. ____ poor
    2. ____ fair
    3. ____ average
    4. ____ good
    5. ____ excellent

Please write the number of the response which most applies to you in the blank at the right of each question.

68. I would rate my listening skills as - ____

69. I would rate my interviewing skills as - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

70. I would rate my communication skills as - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

71. The client can change. (please check the one with which you most agree)

    1. ____ strongly disagree
    2. ____ disagree
    3. ____ agree
    4. ____ somewhat agree
    5. ____ strongly agree

APPENDIX B

MANAGERS' CASEWORKER CHECKLIST

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts

University of Massachusetts

Amherst 01003

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

March 8, 1978

For approximately the past five weeks my colleagues and I have been working in cooperation with the Department of Youth Services to determine the areas of competence necessary for casework. When completed, this study will provide valuable data for both the Department and the group which I represent- the Juvenile Justice Academic Program at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

This data will provide the Department with detailed information on what you, fellow casework managers, and caseworkers themselves perceive to be the most important qualities for excellent casework. This information can then be used as a needs assessment for training and guidelines for hiring future caseworkers, among other possible applications.

The Juvenile Justice Academic Program will utilize the data in a different way. This information will form the foundation for the development of a Competency-Based program in Juvenile Justice. In a Competency-Based program, participating students will be deemed ready for graduation only when they have demonstrated their competence in areas which they need, to perform effectively in the field.We feel that you, as a practicing professional, are the best qualified to state what these areas of competence should be. We are asking DYS caseworkers and casework managers for thier perspectives on this.

As a result, I am asking that you take time out of your busy schedule to let me know what you think. As a casework manager, you are responsible for the supervision of caseworkers. As such, you intimately know what it takes to perform effectively as a caseworker. You also have the perspective afforded by the supervisory nature of your role.

I have included a number of Casework Checklists for your use. I would <u>very</u> much appreciate it if you would take the time to fill out one questionnaire for each caseworker you supervise. It is necessary that you also include two pieces of information on the first page of the questionnaire:

1) <u>the caseworker's name</u>- In this way I will know which

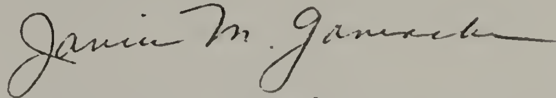
caseworkers I have received information about, and can then follow up on reminders regarding the remaining caseworkers.

2) caseworker rating- the data resulting from this study will be analyzed to determine the competencies necessary for superior casework. As such, it is necessary to distinguish between ratings of caseworkers you feel to be superior and those you feel to be average.

All data will be treated as a group. No individual names will be used. I will be the only one to see the enclosed sheets once you have returned them to me. I guarantee you the strictest confidentiality.

I thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Sincerely,



Janice M. Gamache
Director, Undergraduate Program
Juvenile Justice

When completed please return to:
Janice Gamache
97 Belchertown Rd.
Amherst, Mass. 01002

This questionnaire will be held in the strictest confidence. However, in order to analyze the data it is necessary to know which caseworker you are referring to on this form. Please fill in the caseworker's name on the line below. Please make out one form for each caseworker you supervise.

____

In order to find out those competencies unique to superior casework performance, it is necessary to compare the ratings of superior and average caseworkers. For this reason, it is necessary to ask you to rate the caseworker rated on this form as either superior or average in respect to other caseworkers you have known. This may be a difficult choice for you, but please indicate which category this caseworker most suitably fits in. Without this information this rating is invalid and of no use. Thank you. All ratings are, of course, strictly confidential.

I would rate this caseworker as: superior________

average________

* * *

CASEWORKER CHECKLIST

Please answer the questions below using the following scale:

1. ____ This caseworker often experiences difficulty in this area
2. ____ This caseworker sometimes experiences difficulty in this area
3. ____ This caseworker exercises this ability but is closely supervised
4. ____ This caseworker exercises this ability on his/her own, under normal supervision
5. ____ This caseworker is called upon to assist others due to his/her skill in this area

Please write the number of the response which most applies to the caseworker under consideration, in the blank at the right of each question.

1. Ability to set limits for youth.- ____
2. Ability to respond to youth's needs. - ____
3. Ability to show interest in youth. - ____
4. Ability to advocate for youth. - ____
5. Ability to negotiate. - ____
6. Ability to interpret behavior of youth. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____
7. Ability to assess needs of youth in order to plan intervention strategies. - ____
8. Ability to plan for aftercare. -____
9. Diagnostic skills. - ____

10. Ability to function well under pressure. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
11. Ability to deal effectively with crises. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
12. Ability to be assertive without being aggressive. - - - - - - - - - - ______
13. Ability to deal with change. - ______
14. Ability to negotiate. - ______
15. Ability to recognize his/her own strengths and weaknesses. - - - - - ______
16. Ability to balance needs of youth with his/her own personal needs. - - ______
17. Ability to be self-reflective/objective. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
18. Ability to accept constructive criticism. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
19. Ability to ask for help when needed. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
20. Ability to change. - ______
21. Ability to manage time effectively. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
22. Ability to manage caseload effectively. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
23. Ability to organize. - ______
24. Ability to keep accurate records. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
25. Ability to write coherent reports. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
26. Ability to recognize client's strengths and weaknesses. - - - - - - - ______
27. Ability to see each youth as an individual. - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
28. Ability to relate to each youth on their own level. - - - - - - - - - ______
29. Ability to deal effectively with termination (of youth). - - - - - - - ______
30. Ability to empathize. - ______
31. Ability to give support. - ______
32. Ability to build trusting relationships. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
33. Ability to teach youth life skills. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______
34. Ability to teach youth about sexuality. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ______

Please answer the following questions using the scale below.

1_____This caseworker knows little or nothing about this
2_____This caseworker has studied or been trained in this
3_____This caseworker has used his/her knowledge, but is closely supervised
4_____This caseworker has used his/her knowledge on his/her own, under normal supervision
5_____This caseworker is consulted by other workers in difficult situations or acts as a specialist

Please write the number of the response which most applies to the caseworker in question, in the blank at the right of each question.

35. Knowledge of adolescence. - _____

36. Knowledge of adolescent psychology. - _____

37. Knowledge of individual counseling techniques. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - _____

38. Knowledge of counseling theory. -_____

39. Knowledge of family counseling techniques. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - _____

40. Knowledge of family dynamics. -_____

41. Knowledge of the youth's background. - _____

42. Knowledge of child psychology. - _____

43. Knowledge of juvenile law. - _____

44. Knowledge of juvenile justice system i.e., police, courts, DYS and how they all interrelate. -_____

45. Knowledge of drug use and abuse. - _____

46. Knowledge of alcohol use and abuse. -_____

Please answer the questions below using the following scale.

1._____not at all
2._____a little
3._____somewhat
4._____quite a bit
5._____a great deal

Please write the number of the reponse which most applies to the caseworker in question in the blank at the right of each question.

47. This caseworker's actions indicate a belief that the client comes first. - _____

48. This caseworker is accessible to youth. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - _____

49. This caseworker keeps youth informed of what is happening regarding them. - ____

50. This caseworke is consistent in dealing with youth. - - - - - - - - - - ____

51. This caseworker likes people, especially youth. - - - - - - - - - - - ____

52. This caseworker has a sense of humor. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

53. This caseworker is energetic. - ____

54. This caseworker has self-confidence. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

55. This caseworker is patient. - ____

56. This caseworker seems to be aware of the Burn-Out Syndrome and how to avoid it. - ____

57. This caseworker seems to have a sense of his/her own value. - - - - - - ____

58. This caseworker seems to be aware of his/her own sexuality and its impact on his/her client. - ____

59. This caseworker seems to be aware of his/her own values and how they impact on youth. - ____

60. This caseworker is open-minded. - ____

61. This caseworker seems to have realistic expectations/goals. - - - - - - ____

62. This caseworker is idealistic. - ____

63. This caseworker has an open attitude toward new philosophies and treatments. - ____

64. This caseworker has a non-judgemental attitude. - - - - - - - - - - - ____

65. This caseworker shows sensitivity toward each youth. - - - - - - - - - ____

66. This caseworker is committed to youth. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - ____

67. This caseworker keeps appointments with youth. (check one that most applies)

   1. ____never
   2. ____almost never
   3. ____sometimes
   4. ____nearly always
   5. ____always

Please answer the following questions using the scale below:

1.____ poor
2.____ fair
3.____ average
4.____ good
5.____ excellent

Please write the number of the response which most applies to you in the blank at the right of each question.

68. I would rate this caseworker's listening skills as - - - - - - - - - - - -____

69. I would rate this caseworker's interviewing skills as - - - - - - - - - - ____

70. I would rate this caseworker's communication skills as - - - - - - - - - -____

71. This caseworker's actions indicate a belief that the client can change. (Please check the one with which you most agree)

1. ____ strongly disagree
2. ____ disagree
3. ____ agree
4. ____ somewhat agree
5. ____ strongly agree