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  EXPERIENTIAL CITIZEN EDUCATION FOR EARLY
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EXPERIENTIAL CITIZEN EDUCATION

FOR EARLY ADOLESCENTS:

A MODEL

by

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the Faculty of the Graduate School of
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Citizen education for adolescents has been judged ineffective for the most part because an academic orientation has failed to foster participatory citizenship. Recent research in the political socialization of youth strongly suggests that the schools have great potential for socializing youth for an active civic role. It was the purpose of this study to create and test a model of citizen education for early adolescents whose premise was that the political socialization of these young people could be enhanced by school and field experiences designed to promote personal development and commitment to responsible community involvement.

The model drew upon: (a) Newmann's work with adolescents in a curriculum of active citizen education, (b) Mosher's work with adolescents in a curriculum of moral education, and (c) Hampden-Turner's model of psycho-social development from Radical Man. The model for this study was designed particularly for early adolescents.

The model had four components: (a) community awareness, (b) communication, (c) guidance/counseling, and (d) community involvement. Pedagogical strategies for community awareness included simulation of resolution of

public issues and visits by the students to local governing bodies. Techniques for improving communication included analyses of personal communication abilities, persuasive speech exercises, and the maintenance of a personal journal on activities of the course. Guidance/counseling techniques included small group role playing and transactional analysis exercises modified for early adolescents. Community involvement consisted of volunteer service in the community, and in this case, students chose to help elderly people.

A pilot study gave insight into the problems of coordinating civic instruction with community agencies. The case study yielded discernment of competences of early adolescents as informed and involved citizens in the community.

There were twenty-four boys and girls involved in the case study, who came from a Language Arts-Social Studies core in a junior high school whose student population of 900 comes from the inner city, suburbs, and rural farmland. The group was heterogeneous, consisting of 13 boys and 11 girls, of which 14 were black and 10 white. A team of two teachers and a guidance counselor implemented the model in daily sessions over a period of seven weeks.

The data were collected from <u>The Student Perception of Civic Competence</u> (S.P.C.C.), an inventory created by the researcher, and <u>The Self-Appraisal Inventory</u> (SAI), an instrument of Instructional Objective Exchange. A number of informal inventories and logs of the students and researcher, as well as interviews of the students and cooperating adults, were used to inform this study.

To the extent that the findings of the inventories, logs, and interviews were valid, the following conclusions seem warranted: (a) early adolescents accept democratic values, (b) early adolescents have an urgency for personal competence, and (c) nurturing activities in the community foster a sense of civic competence.

It is recommended that further inquiries focus on the competences of early adolescents to integrate civic instruction and citizen participation.

The dissertation concludes with a discussion and analysis of the implications and extensions of the model.

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LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION

Civic education, as a part of the social studies curriculum, is concerned with the what, how, and why of politics. Teachers with a strong commitment to democratic ideals have always aimed for a curriculum that will enhance the political competence of their students when they reach adulthood. In recent years a general dissatisfaction with the level of citizen participation and an uneasy fear of an unresponsive governing elite suggest a hiatus between the concepts of traditional civic education and observed realities of political life in the late twentieth century. Political scientists, such as Greenstein (1969) and Patrick (1970), are not reluctant to suggest that the use of political socialization research can improve and reform the curriculum of civic education. Patrick insists that the effectiveness of the scope and sequence of civic instruction is limited by a disregard by civic educators of empirical research on the political attitudes and beliefs of various student populations. Some political scientists say the explosion of new knowledge of politics and new means of

inquiry into political phenomena of recent years have scarcely found their way into the civics curriculum. Patrick maintains that, "students are denied insights to be gained through use of such concepts as political role, socio-economic status, political socialization and political culture" (p. 126) and hypothesizes that "youngsters who are forced to rely upon traditional civics courses for their knowledge of politics are doomed to extreme ignorance of political affairs" (p. 127); others suggest that an idealized civic instruction is responsible for disillusionment that gives rise to the extremism of the New Left.

Lance Morrow's essay, "An Elegy for the New Left," observes the disillusionment and negative reaction of youth whose concept of American ideals ran headlong into realities of a series of social crises:

> The young of the 60's were raised to believe that America was a splendidly virtuous country. When they found through the Bay of Pigs, Selma, the assassinations, Viet Nam, that it was more ambiguous, they rose up in a horror that now seems touching in its spontaneity.

The mood of the late fifties might be summed up in the introduction to Political Science in the Elementary and Junior High School Curriculum by Jarolimek:

>Three concepts are fundamental to the understanding of the organization of human societies. One of these is that all societies have developed ways of establishing and maintaining order; the second is that the central instrument for maintaining order has great power over lives of individuals subjected to it; and the third is that all such social systems require and demand a loyalty to them when they are threatened by hostile opposing systems. (p. 234)

From a focus on maintaining a system from external forces, a new generation took sharp issue to abuses within the system in the sixties. Two historical events brought to fore the glacial pace of righting injustices within the system of the United States, e.g., the Civil Rights Movement and Resistance to the Viet Nam War. So great was the alienation of great numbers of people that the stability of the system was threatened. The response of the Johnson and Nixon administrations appeared to be either negative or grudging acquiesence to numerous people, many of whom were young and not yet eligible to vote. Seemingly, some power outside the electoral process was needed to alter policy on these grave matters.

A governing elite, getting mixed signals from the citizenry, pursued its own judgment in these controversial areas. There was a serious loss of support of the system by youth in particular. "Hell no, we won't go," was heard from draft resistors. Many thoughtful citizens feared the

cleavage was of such magnitude that the system might not survive. On the heels of these divisive elements came the national scandal of Watergate. The presidency was corrupted. Paradoxically, this trauma resulted in a restoration of trust in the system. In a crisis without equal in the twentieth century, the system worked: A president and a vice-president were replaced within the spirit and the letter of the constitution.

What bearing does this recital of recent American history have on the political socialization of youth? A great deal. Even the very young were caught up in the drama. Like youth of the Great Depression era, traumatic national events within their life space have made strong impressions on youth of the sixties and seventies that will color their thinking about the functions of the national government.

Until late in the nineteenth century, civic education was largely a matter of ingestion of the civic culture. The citizen of the eighteenth century read history, according to Cremin (1970)

> not for diversion or even self-aggrandizement, but for guidance in the affairs of life. And they gleaned from it an unerring devotion to those "rights and liberties of Englishmen" they were claiming in their struggle with the motherland. (p. 471)

After the Civil War, with the influx of large numbers of
immigrants of differing cultures, the necessity of ori-
enting these newcomers to the American Way of Life was
seen. There was, according to Popper (1967) and Cremin
(1961), concern for the transmission of a unique American
heritage during a time of unprecedented population growth;
a time also of societal changes from rural, small town ways
into chaotic industrialization and urbanization. With the
traditional faith of Americans in education to solve the
problems of a free society, there arose a demand for citi-
zen education, and true to that tradition, school people
responded with separate courses in civic education at the
secondary level.

From the beginning the courses were academic. Students
studied the glorious history of the young nation and the
genius of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. Only in
recent years have the related social science subjects of
sociology, economics, psychology, and anthropology been
offered to students in public high schools. The general
idea was that if the individual had formal knowledge of
the government, he would act in his own best interest
within a system well worth preserving. But some educators
and a number of social critics in recent years have found

fault with the academic approach to citizen education.

Within the last generation, youth of the fifties, charac-

terized by apathy (Friedenberg, 1959), were swiftly followed

by the hyperactive youth of the sixties (Jacob and Landau,

1966). The demands of the times have necessitated a

changing focus on civic education. The salience of twen-

tieth century media and the cry of disgruntled minorities

have led to a stress on participation as a civic responsi-

bility (Massialas, 1972; Green, 1972; Newmann, 1975).

Though according to Orum (1972), the United States has no

strong tradition of student movements, during times of

unusual stress students have voiced dissatisfaction with

national policy. There was a ripple of student dissent at

the turn of the century around the theme of free speech and

peace. In the thirties some college youth advocated a

restructuring of the political and economic system, but

this movement lost momentum with the demands of World

War II. Friedenberg aptly described the Silent Generation

of the forties and fifties. Orum et al., in The Seeds of

Politics, point to the roots of discontent that led to

developing strategies of advocacy by the student movement

of the sixties.

The Rise of Citizen Education

Civic education, as separate from general education, appears to me to have grown out of and along with the emerging discipline of sociology. Injustices resulting from rapid industrialization and urbanization in the nineteenth century gave rise to a cry for reform; an awakening humanitarianism pointed to the evils of Social Darwinism (Cremin, 1961). Survival of the fittest meant a widening crevasse between an elite of exploiters and masses of the exploited in an industrial society. Such discrete classes were and are anathema to the cherished democratic ideal of equality. Sociology emerged from the outrage of reformers to the evils of industrialization, mainly the subordination of man to machines and the accompanying abuses set in motion by a laissez-faire economy (Lloyd, 1884; Ward, 1893).

On the American scene, the arrival of hundreds of thousands of immigrants to man the machines of industry, whose Eastern European culture differed markedly from that of Western democracies, signaled the need for a unifying experience. In keeping with American trust in education, the schools were the social institution chosen for the task of providing that unifying experience. Americanization meant mastering the English language and orienting to the

work ethic and the cultural pluralism of a multi-ethnic

populace and to the heritage of constitutional government.

Though the founders of the nation recognized the imperative

of a literate citizenry to preserve and protect the repub-

lic (Cremin, 1970), general education had been, until this

time, adequate for effective citizenship.

The place of education in preserving a complex social

order was addressed by scholars and reformers of the

changing times at the turn of the century. The role of

education was that of transmission of the culture, ac-

cording to Durkheim (1956). Weber (1973) saw the aim of

education as cultivating the pupil for a "conduct of life"

or a role in society. Dewey's (1916) perspective of educa-

tion in a complex society included the tasks of assimi-

lating the culture, reinforcing morality, and making pos-

sible the democratic ideal of upward mobility. In 1918

The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education became a

guidepost for improvements. The specific recommendation

for citizen education was:

> Civics should concern itself less with constitutional
> questions and remote governmental functions and should
> direct attention to special agencies close at hand and
> to informal activities of daily life that regard and
> seek the common good. (p. 14)

This admonition is embraced by a developer of citizen education curriculum, Fred M. Newmann, in the mid seventies. According to Massialas, it would appear that another statement of the Cardinal Principles has been more generally followed, that is, "The comprehension of the ideals of American democracy and loyalty to them should be a prominent aim of civics education" (p.15). I understand social critics such as Friedenberg and Silberman to say that the above aim has been translated into a curriculum emphasizing acceptance of the status quo, conformity, and a passive citizen role.

Some reformers at the turn of the century, not awed by cherished documents, turned the cold light of inquiry on them. Reverence for the Constitution was not uniform. Beard's An Economic Intrepretation of the Constitution of the United States in 1913 contended that the Constitution was created by a small group interested in preserving their personal possessions rather than being a document created by a whole people. In the world of academe through such scholars as Beard and to the populace through periodicals of the day, the social abuses of the factory system were exposed and reformers among the new helping professions insisted that a living Constitution adapt to life in a new

age (Popper, 1967). In a milieu of concern for preserving the revered philosophy of freedom and equality in a rapidly changing system, Civics, a formal study of the structure and process of government and the rights and responsibilities of citizens, was offered to students in the secondary schools in the early years of the twentieth century.

Though the broad aims of citizen education (orientation to a favorable acceptance of the ideals of freedom, equality, and constitutional democracy) could be endorsed by educators and the larger community as means for perpetuating the dynamics of an egalitarian society, there appears to be a declared open season on the creators of civics curricula by social critics. Adler and Harrington (1970) said,

> The creators of civics education curricula have functioned like blind men in a snow storm. Groping through the multitude of theories, approaches, concepts and traditions, climbing over the drifts of misinformation about childhood development and the political acumen of students, they end where they began. (p. 187)

Such criticism of civic curricula is a recurring theme. Schools have been charged with the task of educating young citizens for social responsibility, yet the emphasis is disputed. Should schools be a conservative force, socializing youth for conformity; or should the

schools be an agency of change, encouraging youth to inquire and to be politically active?

Political scientists of the last twenty years have had a great deal to say in answer to that question. In one breath, political scientists may say of the schools that, "No single institution in society is more responsible for imparting 'mainstream' political knowledge" (Adler and Harrington, 1970, p. 188), and that the curriculum is not likely to have great influence on the political attitude and behavior of citizens (Goldstein, 1972). Instead, as Langdon (1970) contends, the nonstructured influence of peers and teachers in the school setting will make a difference. This lends support to the idea that the school is a model of society and that the hidden curriculum is to a large degree responsible for political learning (Levenson, 1972; Ehman, 1972).

Among those believing that the central purpose of citizenship education is the development of activists is Massialas (1972), who insists that schools should be agents of social change. He emphasizes that a new format for school governance that depends on decision making at the student level is vital to the development of citizen activists. He recommends a case study approach to the

teaching of history and a head-on look at conflict. Honest and persistent inquiry into the social controversies of contemporary society are essential to his way of thinking. Massialas et al. urge a joint effort between schools and community in order to enable students to test the realities of the democratic process.

Political Socialization: A Concept

The study of Political Socialization is a relative newcomer to the larger discipline of Political Science. In a scant two decades of developing this field of knowledge, a mushroom growth of literature has emerged from those who would define the scope and limits of political socialization and construct theoretical grounds for future investigators.

Dennis (1973) lists ten central problem dimensions of the subdiscipline of political socialization, all of which are currently being studied by a growing number of specialists, as:

1. System relevance of political socialization

2. Political socialization across the life-cycle

3. Varieties of content of political socialization

4. Political socialization across generations

5. Cross cultural aspects of political socialization

6. Sub group and sub cultural variations

7. The agents and agencies of political socialization

8. The political learning process

9. The extent and relative effects of political socialization upon different individuals

10. Specialized, especially elite political socialization (pp. 4-5)

A number of prominent political scientists (Torney, Greenstein, Hyman, Niemi, and Easton) have contributed to the development of the literature, with several being recognized as political socialization specialists. Substantial studies have been made along several of the dimensions Dennis lists. Notably, those having a scarcity of empirical findings, such as the political learning process and maturation, are those of prime importance to civic educators. Critics of the dimensions of political socialization research list the following problems: Sample surveys, though possessing advantages of feasibility, have grave limitations; simple closed-ended questionnaires severely limit the concept of the respondent's frame of reference; longitudinal studies, though costly, are needed to observe patterns of individual change. Unstructured, in-depth

interviews may complement the two previously mentioned designs. Experimentation for long-term observation might yield valuable data. Dennis (1973) suggests that observing the interaction of the socializer and socializee in natural settings, such as schools and homes, might add to knowledge of the political learning process. I find it regrettable that Dennis, holding this view, makes no mention in his book of the work of Fred Newmann, who at the same time and from the same institution (the University of Wisconsin), was engrossed in active citizen education for high school students in Madison, Wisconsin.

Almond and Yerba (1963) have contributed a major study of the development of attitudes and behaviors of citizens in five modern democracies: Italy, Germany, Mexico, Great Britain, and the United States. In this study that required five years from planning to completion, more than 5,000 people were interviewed in-depth for describing political beliefs, emotions, aspirations, and actual participation in politics. They inquired into national difference in the definition of "the good citizen," and their study lends understanding to the concepts of patterns of partisanship, the sense of civic competence, participation and political allegiance, and political socialization.

To my view, the crowning achievement of their book, The
Civic Culture, is the concluding chapter that weighs the
value of balances in a mixed culture. Power and respon-
siveness, consensus and cleavage, active and passive ori-
entations, all are part of the dialectical process of main-
taining democratic stability within a civic culture.

It is the data linking attitudes with actual political
behavior that sets this cross national survey apart from
more recent single-shot studies of political socialization.
The gap between the political scientist and the civic
educator is deplored by both professions. A linkage of
the research of the two professions holds a potential for
furthering the body of knowledge of political socializa-
tion and providing realistic school experiences for civic
competence.

The Role of the Schools

It is the effect of political attitudes on subsequent
behavior that most concerns the civic educator. According
to Almond and Yerba, the stability and vitality of demo-
cratic systems depend upon a pattern of participation. The
factor of perceived competence looms large in the inclina-
tion of a citizen to participate in civic affairs. Almond

and Yerba explored the relationship of the citizen's per-
ceived political competence and that citizen's political
activity and allegiance to the system. Four questions
dealing with local government were asked of the citizen:
(a) whether he believed he could understand local politics,
(b) whether he could and would act to influence local gov-
ernment, (c) whether he had expectations of success in
influencing local government, and (d) whether he had ever
attempted such influence.

There were differences among citizens of the nations
studied, but the general conclusion was:

> In many ways, then, the belief in one's competence is
> a key political attitude. The self-confident citizen
> appears to be the democratic citizen. Not only does
> he think he can participate, he thinks that others
> ought to participate as well. Furthermore, he does
> not merely think he can take a part in politics: he
> is likely to be more active. And, perhaps most sig-
> nificant of all, the self-confident citizen is also
> likely to be the more satisfied and loyal citizen.
> (p. 207)

I found in none of the more recent studies evidence to
dispute the broad conclusion of Almond and Yerba. My own
assumption is that educators may well be concerned with
fostering a sense of civic competence among students. The
application of a curriculum model for this case study deals
with the question of the school: What curriculum of citi-
zen education is appropriate for the socialization of
youth for participatory democracy?

It would be helpful to educators to learn from political scientists in what areas the school may be the deciding agent of political socialization--and also to learn of the varying demands of the differing socio-economic and ethnic groups of students. Hyman (1959), who gave currency to the concept of political socialization in his study of the origin and development of political attitude and behavior, concluded that the family exerts the most influence in the formation of political attitudes in children. A decade later Hess and Torney (1969) disputed this finding, concluding that the school stands out as the dominant force in the political socialization of children. Studies following the dissent of the early sixties point to additional agents of political socialization, i.e., the media and the activism of minorities, particularly blacks and Spanish Americans. Green's St. Cecilia study (1969) of inner city children (grades four through eight) reveals an awareness of the inconsistency between what is taught in the classroom about democracy and what is experienced in the ghetto. The attitudes of these children differ from those of white middle class children in that they are less sympathetic to political leaders and expect less benevolence from them. As early as fourth grade a sense of distrust develops.

Life in the inner city scarcely allows the "luxury of sugar coating" politics.

Massialas (1972) edited an anthology focused on the role of formal education on the political socialization of youth. The studies were national and international prospectuses containing a body of empirical research to support a conclusion that the schools encourage youngsters to be uncritical and apathetic spectators to the civic culture, rather than to be active participants. The power structure of education (teachers, administrators, and school boards) is reluctant to open up the realities and inevitabilities of conflict in the community. Goldstein (1972) made a study of textbooks and curriculum guides for social studies for grades one through six, the upshot of which is strong criticism of the material on grounds that, at best, history was <u>sugar-coated</u>, and, at worst, it left out unpleasant but significant facts of American life. Goldstein believes that less than full truth of American history and the deletion of racial and class prejudices in textbooks have an adverse effect on the stability of the political system. Teaching children that their government and society are infallible--when inevitably they learn differently as adolescents--hardly serves the end of citizen competence and loyalty.

Political Socialization and Adolescence

Adelson (1971) wrote The Political Imagination of the
Young Adolescent; Jennings and Niemi attempted to bridge
the gap between studies of children and adults in their
book The Political Character of Adolescence. Hess and
Torney (1967) and Adelson and O'Neil (1966) inquired into
the processes of acquiring political knowledge. Greenstein
(1965) and Green (1969) studied the different socialization
of class and minorities. These studies of political sci-
entists are useful; they do not, however, touch on the
crucial point of political behavior in a rapidly changing
culture.

The idea of political socialization as a transmission/
accumulation process, an induction into political culture,
was a static concept initiated by political scientists in
the early 1950's. As I understand, the concept of that
time roughly parallels that of Mead's (1970) cofigurative
culture that she describes as "one in which the prevailing
model for members of the society is the behavior of their
contemporaries" (p. 32). Researchers of the fifties could
name the agents of political socialization as the family,
the school, and the community and support these concepts
with evidence. Historical events of the 1960's have

complicated this view to the extent that Massialas (1972) offers another definition of political socialization, that it is "acquiring the culture of one's political environment and changing it." Massialas and the political scientists contributing to his anthology, Political Youth, Traditional Schools, insist that civic education is a failure if it does not produce inquiring activists. A perusal of the literature of political socialization confirms the concept of political socialization as a dynamic process.

Until the sixties, scarcely any studies had been done on the political attitudes of minority students. Green (1972) and Greenstein (1972) brought new evidence to the phenomena of the stratification of race and class in political socialization. According to Greenstein, lower status youth lack a sense of political efficacy and do not perceive themselves as participants in civic affairs. As children they show a greater deference toward political leaders than their upper status counterparts, but as early adolescents they reveal in Green's studies a widespread sense of distrust of the government. Street learning appears to have germinated a culture of political cynicism. Greenberg's (1973) study of black children in the political system seems to confirm the relationship between

deprivation and political alienation. Billings (1972) sets forth the sobering thesis that a generation of minority youth has lost faith in the system and seems to have adopted the advocacy of force.

Political efficacy is seen differently by socio-economic classes. Middle class youth seem to feel that the system can be modified by traditional means such as voting and writing to representatives of government (Greenstein, 1972; Orum, 1972). Inner-city youth, having a more accurate perception of the realities of politics, endorse demonstrations as a more direct means of effecting change (Green, 1972). The theme of these studies is that youth become politicized in spite of textbooks, teachers, and parents and that external forces mold political philosophy.

Of scholars addressing the questions of the political socialization of adolescents, none speak as convincingly or with the broad perspective of Joseph Adelson, and that is because he is always aware of the limitations of politically socializing adolescents. He is astutely aware of the dependence of the creation of personal ideology on cognitive development. Adelson relates that the remarkable transformation of the adolescent as a political being begins with an observation of the early adolescent. On

leaving childhood, the early adolescent is oriented to the here and now, having little interest in the past or the future. Scarcely aware of motivation, the early adolescent has a quick response to political questions: resort to authority. Political knowledge for the early adolescent is fragmentary; he perceives bits and pieces about government structure but has no underlying construct of the inter-action and interdependence of private and public agencies that is the fabric of the political system, according to Adelson. To get an idea of the potential of the emerging adolescent, Adelson gives a profile of the 15 year old. With a capacity for formal operations, the mid-adolescent moves toward what Adelson calls a cathexi of the political, that is, a concentration of emotional energy upon politics, based on his perception of his environment. He may en-vision politics of power, or envy, or of quality. Adelson says that adolescents rarely envision a utopia, the exceptions being inner city youth and suburban intel-lectuals (p. 131).

The message I get from the studies I mention is that youth of today are bombarded by stimuli of political sig-nificance from all quarters. The agents of socialization

are numerous, the assimilation of norms complex. American political scientists are saying that the schools are obligated to help youth synthesize the quantity of political cues coming their way. They are saying that the traditional pattern of educating for conformity and passivity is no longer appropriate for the dynamic political culture of the late twentieth century, but must be replaced by a pattern encouraging inquiry and activism. One is safe in saying that youth of the seventies are aware of social conflict--they have scarcely had the experience of either resolving controversies within the realm of school life or of formulating principles of conflict resolution for a larger sphere.

Political scientists reveal their own academic prejudices when they list recommendations to change the thrust of the civics curriculum. Few place much hope in a curriculum; instead, they advise using the school as a model of society, that is, increasing the input into school governance by students. That is not an idea easily accepted by the educational establishment, given the student population of secondary schools and the lack of stability in those schools brought on by the political issue of this century--racial integration.

De Cecco (1974) would approach the immediate issue, and that is to generate new options for resolving conflict in the schools, believing that adolescents learning to handle dissent may work with confidence within the system and that the skills of negotiation and the art of compromise are essential to the gaining of civic competence. Newmann (1975) would encourage adolescents to participate in community affairs as a part of citizen education. The former strategy could be more appropriate for heterogeneous groups coping with the conflicts of integration. The latter strategy could be more useful in a stable school environment.

Fishman and Solomon (1972) addressed the imperative of adaptability for adolescents of the sixties. Identity, the preoccupation of adolescents, is related to a synthesis of identification with and also against a generation of adults--and within the context of emergent social changes. Fishman and Solomon relate that common to all youth movements is a prosocial, altruistic group identity--and that though the commitment to bettering the lives of others may become distorted, it still has the potential for good, both to the community and the involved youth. They reported on a program from Howard University in which youth from low

income backgrounds were trained and placed in jobs as human service aides and community organizers working for changes in social issues in their own communities. 'They hold out hope that such experiences may have "great potential for the social integration . . . of low income youth as well as for bringing about needed social change in the context of an open democratic society" (p. 23).

Conclusion

Historically, student movements have come from the upper class whose informal experiences within the system lend credence to their sense of personal efficacy and civic competence (Orum, 1972). In the late twentieth century, I believe we are, as Mead (1970) says, "approaching a world wide culture and the possibility of becoming fully aware citizens of the world" (p. xv). Decisions made by a well-heeled elite are no longer acceptable to other classes and ethnic groups. Communication technology has brought all to a keen awareness of others. With limited advantages to be shared by growing numbers of the human family, a civic culture emphasizing, as joint tenants, participation and responsibility by all citizens is necessary.

The schools, as instruments of a free society, may have a significant part to play in this undertaking. Yet to assume full responsibility for a task of such enormity would be nonsensical. Schools and agencies within the community have a joint responsibility for providing opportunities to challenge the adolescent in his bid for a full identity.

CHAPTER II

THE NATURE OF ADOLESCENCE AND AMERICAN ACCOMMODATION

TO ADOLESCENCE: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter I will explore the nature of adolescence from an American perspective. Authors are not in agreement on the causes of behavior characteristic of pubescent youth. The biological transformation is universal; the psychological changes seem to depend on the demands made upon youth in their own culture.

In Chapter I an examination of factors contributing to the political socialization of youth in democracies appears to identify the principal agents of political socialization. The dimensions of civic competence were examined. The mutual investment of an individual and his government seems to determine the level of civic competence required of individual citizens to sustain and keep on course a dynamic democratic system.

Political scientists for two or three decades have studied the phenomena of political socialization. To find the origin of political attitudes, the search reached back into childhood, finally studying elements of infant

behavior. Attitudes toward authority and a sense of the
benevolence of one's society appear to have root in the
very early years in a family.

The origin of the democratic ideals--equality, dignity
of each individual, majority rule with respect for minority
rights, and a government ruling by consent of the governed
--are more difficult to place in life space, though a study
by the Internal Association for the Evaluation of Educa-
tional Achievement indicates that by early adolescence
many youth in democracies have developed an ideology of
strong commitment to justice and equality. Political sci-
entists seem not yet to have pinpointed the origins of
these political attitudes, whether home, school, community,
a single event, or a series of historical events. It is
conceded by many political scientists that the media has
impact on political attitudes and behaviors of young citizens.

Adolescence, in a sense, appears to be the hiatus
between the recognition of the rights and responsibilities
of the individual in a democratic society that comes to
fruit late in childhood and the action or civic behavior
of the adult. Like so many human ventures, the transition
often is not easily made. The joining of philosophy with
behaviors seems to require intellectual and psychological
maturation.

Since the early years of this century, a multitude of studies have focused on the nature and problems of adolescents. Only in recent years has research zeroed in on the vital and vulnerable years of early adolescence. In this chapter, a review of the literature seeks to portray the essence of the early adolescent.

The Nature of Adolescence

According to a number of scholars, the survival and maintenance of a society is dependent on an appropriate socialization of the young. Particularly in the complex societies of the western world, there is more agreement among scholars on the nature and problems of the early adolescent than on an acceptable socialization. In 1977 society has recognized the problem of socialization, is attempting various solutions, and should be anticipating the consequences of today's choices in socializations, according to anthropologists who take a long range perspective.

The nature of adolescence means the intrinsic characteristics and qualities of a time for growing beyond childhood and into maturity. Nature here is the "real aspect," the essence, the inherent characteristics of the age. The

growth experienced, the conflicts, come not by choice but
are inexorably thrust upon all living through the teen
years. Growth in body, mind, and spirit for these years
brings about inevitable dichotomies. None escape. In
recent years a number of authors have written of the trans-
formation of the adolescent, often turbulent, rarely
tranquil. Changes of body are most conspicuous.

The visible changes of the emerging adolescent are so
pronounced that observers over the ages have referred to
this time in life as a time of birth. In the collection of
essays, Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence (1972), Bakan
attributes the invention of adolescence to Rosseau, in
whose Emile the weakness of childhood passes into a second
birth, "born into existence, born into life, born a human
being, born a man" (p. 74). Douval and Adelson (1966) say,
"The self--what we are now--begins at puberty, childhood is
pre-identity, life begins when childhood ends, at eleven,
twelve or thirteen" (p. 3). On the beginning, most observers
agree. There is a wide range of beginnings.

Hall, in 1907, viewed adolescence as a new birth, a
time of emergence of higher and completely human traits.
Physical growth and sexual maturation "arms youth for
conflict." Individual differences are pronounced. "Some

linger longer in the childish stage and advance late or
slowly, while others push on with a sudden outburst of im-
pulsion to early maturity" (p. xvii). Yet after an elo-
quent description of storm and stress, the ambiguities of
the irregular development of body, mind, and soul, Hall de-
clares, "These years are the best decade of life. No age
is so responsive to all the best and wisest endeavor"
(p. xvii). If Hall is right that adolescence makes for
the best years of the individual's life, those years are
described by many authors as years when the individual ex-
periences a transformation in appearance, mode of thinking,
and relating to others, a transformation that results in
stress and strain.

So swift and unabating are the changes of early ado-
lescence that youth hardly recognize themselves. They
wonder, "Who is this new creature?" Erikson's choice of
"Identity" as the virtue of the age is apt.

Brimm (1963) observes there is a wide variation in
degree and rate of physical and sexual maturity:

> As the child enters into this stage of change in his
> life, there are many other changes precipitated by
> changing biological factors. As he matures his po-
> sition in society changes and new strange demands are
> placed upon him. (p. 13)

Gesell, Ilg, and Ames note the uneven progression of early adolescent development in their classic <u>Youth</u>: <u>The</u> <u>Years from Ten to Sixteen</u> (1956). They interpret the manifestations of the age through maturity profiles, trails, and trends. Development is a key concept. The sequence and rhythm of infancy/childhood repeats; "Eleven . . . loosening up, snapping old bonds; twelve is more positive in mood, smoother in relationships; thirteen pulls inward; fourteen thrusts out; fifteen specifies and organizes; sixteen again achieves a more golden mean" (p. 19).

Conger (1973) encapsulates the metamorphosis in this statement:

> It is fair to say that adolescence begins in biology and ends in culture. On the one hand inherent maturational processes lead to the rapid acceleration of physical growth, changing body dimensions, the subjective and objective consequences of hormonal changes and increased sexual drive, the development of primary and secondary sex characteristics and further growth and differentation of cognitive ability. These biological developments and the individual's need to adapt to them give to adolescence such universal qualities as it possesses . . . . The culture may facilitate or hinder the young person's adjustment to the physical and physiological changes of puberty and it may influence whether these changes become a source of pride or of anxiety and confusion. (p. 94)

The development of the intellect is not without problems. As Piaget explains, the arrival at each new plane of cognitive functioning is accompanied by a kind of

egocentrism. As the adolescent masters formal operations
and logical thought, he is perplexed and offended that the
world is not always rationally ordered. In 1958 Piaget
wrote:

> When the cognitive field is again enlarged by the
> structuring of formal thought, a . . . form of ego-
> centrism comes into view. This egocentrism is one of
> the most enduring features of adolescence . . . . The
> adolescent not only tries to adapt his ego to the
> social environment but, just as emphatically tries to
> adjust the environment to his ego . . . . The result
> is a relative failure to distinguish between his point
> of view . . . and the point of view of the group which
> he hopes to reform. (p. 343)

Elkind (1974) explains another problem brought on by
cognitive growth, i.e., the matter of indecisiveness that
results from the capability of dealing with a number of
possibilities and alternatives in problem solving. Having
a multitude of alternatives, but limited by experience, the
early adolescent finds that making a choice appears haz-
ardous, often resulting in "hopelessly dependent and in-
decisive" behavior (p. 180).

Adelson's (1972) cross cultural studies of early
adolescents conclude that developmentally the years 12-16
are critical in achieving ideology. Not class or sex or
intelligence, but age accounts for this achievement.
Mosher and Sullivan (1976) report that moral development
from preconventional to conventional reasoning must occur

by age 13, or likely post conventional moral reasoning will not be achieved in adulthood.

Josselyn (1952) views psychological maturation as fragmented. She chooses the metaphor of a jigsaw puzzle to describe the psychological adaptations of the early adolescent. At first the pieces lie about with no order; then several pieces are joined together, just as the adolescent begins to integrate his feelings into a meaningful pattern. Finally the pieces are put together and the picture emerges --just so do the joining of uneven feelings into "islands of adjustment further fit together to create the adult personality" (p. 121).

Aware of the monumental task of coping with these phenomena, Kagan (1972) identifies the:

> preoccupying motives for most American adolescents revolve around resolving uncertainty over sexual adequacy, interpersonal power, autonomy of belief and action, and acceptability to peers. (p. 100)

The theme of cruciality threads its way through the writings of all serious observers of early adolescence. Hall, who defined adolescence, spoke of the vulnerability of youngsters much as Aries (196) later described the "weakness of childhood."

If, as authors observe, adolescence is human rebirth, it also is acknowledged as a time of crisis. The survival,

the maturation of the individual to a whole, autonomous person of integrity and responsibility, is dependent upon a satisfying solution of, or at least acquisition of a degree of tolerance for, the ambiguities of the age.

Until recent years, observation and empirical studies have focused on the dramatic conflicts of late adolescence. Analysts such as Erikson have illumined the multifarious struggles of the emerging young adult. Another analyst contends that the pathology of adolescence has its origin at the very beginning. Blos (1970) explains his study of early adolescence thus:

> A review of the vast literature on adolescence reveals at first glance, that an only inconspicuous corner is assigned to the young adolescent. The focus of research has been instead on the spectacular and dramatic stages of Adolescence Proper and Late Adolescence. Yet clinical observation leaves no doubt that deviant adolescent development has its onset, if not its roots, in the initial stage of adolescence. It has been my experience that all adolescent disturbances reflect the existence of a developmental impasse at the early stage of adolescence. (pp. xii-xiii)

Coopersmith (1967) chose the initial stage of adolescence, 10-14, for his study of self-esteem, an important consideration, for the individual with low self-esteem is more vulnerable. Vulnerability, the feeling of helplessness and inadequacy, is ubiquitous to the age.

Eichhorn (1969), a practitioner and advocate of the middle school as accommodation to this critical and vulnerable age, describes youngsters in transition, "transescents . . . the prefix 'trans' meaning 'to go across,' and the suffix 'escent' meaning 'to become something.'" Momentous changes--physical, mental, and social--thrust the child toward adulthood; but changes are not uniform. Each transescent develops according to his own timetable.

Blos speaks to the immediate needs of the transescent:

> The phase specific conflicts of the young adolescent loom large behind the turbulence of subsequent stages of adolescence. The urgency of those problems that the late adolescent brings to the clinician tends to distract the expert's attention from the crucial developmental failures that had already made their imprint at the initial stage of adolescence. (p. xiii)

Blos's insistence on the discrete developmental phase of early adolescence is shared by a collection of scholars in Kagan and Coles's Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence. Developmental failures of the adolescent predicate subsequent disturbances. Blos says, "The young adolescent tends to be looked upon as either a miniature adolescent or an overgrown child" (p. xiv). Yet, he insists that this developmental phase needs to be defined as an essential portion of the orderly sequential growth to adulthood.

It appears that at no time in life is an individual faced with more insistent demands for definition of self and adapting oneself to the environment. Erikson lists the developmental tasks of adolescence as: acquiring a personal life style (which is dependent on gaining independence both economic and psychologic from the family), establishing a vocational identity, resolving sex drives in a mature pattern, and committing oneself to a value system-- a personal philosophy as an outgrowth of historical, religious, and political concepts.

Adulthood is attained upon a satisfactory resolution to these conflicts; it may be 17 years for some, 35 for others. Completing the tasks of adolescence becomes increasingly difficult for youth in post industrial societies as job specialization demands extended education; few apprenticeships or low-skill jobs are available. A long period of schooling prolongs adolescence. It is prolonged adolescence that escalates simple confusion to more serious conflicts for youth, according to some authors (Gesell, Josselyn, and Erikson).

Biological, intellectual, and emotional maturation do not proceed in an even fashion. The attempts of the adolescent to adapt his changing body and mode of

reasoning to a culture making conflicting demands upon him results in a series of ambiguities. That the individual may lag in some phases of maturing, yet be advanced in other phases, adds to his dilemma.

Clinical psychologists contend that adolescence is characterized by ambiguity. Youth is torn by conflict between perceived demands of the environment and the needs of a maturing body, intellect, and spirit. Josselyn (1952) says the contradictions and inconsistencies result from attempts to deal with "internal conflicts and to problems his reality world imposes upon him" (p. 45).

A salient feature of the age is the love/hate relationship of the adolescent and parent (Blos, Josselyn). Differing definitions of responsibility by the generations provoke conflicting expectations, with adolescents rarely in agreement with adults. Ambivalent feelings toward parents are a consequence of inevitable frustration and hostility in the changing relationship: the parent being uncertain of an appropriate degree of permissiveness/control; the adolescent impatient with excessive parental involvement in his affairs.

Analyst Erikson (1950) poses a litany of maturational conflicts with which adolescents must cope. There is Time

Perspective vs. Time Diffusion, Self Certainty vs. Identity.

Consciousness, Role Experimentation vs. Negative Identity,

Anticipation of Achievement vs. Work Paralysis, Identity

vs. Identity Diffusion, Sexual Identity vs. Bisexual Diffu-

sion, Leadership Polarization vs. Authority Diffusion, and

Ideological Polarization vs. Diffusion of Ideals (p. 218).

Josselyn (1952) explains the dilemma of Secretiveness/

Self Revelation, a product of what Erikson calls "identity

consciousness." The adolescent is characteristically secre-

tive because verbalization is difficult, insight is limited,

and the risk of exposing oneself to ridicule too fearful.

Yet, the struggle for an image of oneself, mirrored by

others, accounts for the baring of the soul to trusted ones.

Josselyn also points to the conflict of sex identity.

Youth models sexuality from the parent of the same sex, yet

this parent is the rival. The opposite sex parent is the

ideal sex object, but forbidden.

Finally, the compelling Dependence/Independence con-

flict persists. What remains of the child finds comfort

and security in dependence. The emerging adult rejects

these inclinations, opting for more mature status.

Josselyn reminds us that mutual dependency is a "universal

characteristic of the human race . . . . Dependency is not

abandoned with emotional maturity, but the nature of the dependency is modified" (p. 49).

Friedenberg (1959) views this cacophony of conflicts as the youngster "defining himself in dialectical combat with society," and further says "adolescence is conflict, protracted conflict between the individual and society" (p. 32). This kind of conflict is characteristic of complex and open societies, not to be found in primitive cultures or totalitarian states.

Newman and Newman (1976) make a sharp distinction between early and late adolescents in taking on these conflicts. They pose an additional conflict for early adolescents, i.e., that of Group Identity vs. Alienation. Pressures for conformity and compliance determine a preoccupation with peer acceptance for this age. Whether by choice or rejection, failure to identify with a group poses serious difficulties for the early adolescent.

Gordon (1972) sees the task of acceptance in another dimension. Acceptance/Achievement is a major dilemma of values. Criteria for acceptance by the "ins" are documented by Coleman (1961) and are exclusive. Needs achievement of the individual, strongly supported by the family (of the middle class in particular) run counter to the

norms of peer acceptance in high school. Coopersmith's work (1967) documents the effectiveness of parental standards in developing positive self-esteem and strong achievement orientation for early adolescent boys. The plight of the lower class child is often tragic, desiring, but finding satisfaction with neither acceptance or achievement. Early adolescent boys and girls differ markedly in orientation to this dilemma; boys opting for accomplishment and autonomy, girls choosing acceptance (Gordon, 1972, p. 47).

Impulsivity/Indecision may appear to adults to be the most irrational and irritating characteristic of emerging adolescents. The universal urge to be active tips the choice toward impulsivity. Yet, as Elkind (1974, p. 179) explains, with new intellectual powers, the early adolescent, perceiving many possible alternatives in a choice, may be seized by immobility because of a limited background of experience.

For the late twentieth century adolescent, the demands of a sophisticated capitalist economy exert a strong influence on the accomplishment of developmental tasks (Erikson, 1968; Bakan, 1972). Two major consequences of the economy delay the economic independence of youth. One, many jobs

require special training that extends the years of schooling. Two, the economy often does not create jobs for all job seekers, so the adolescent is encouraged to remain a student to better prepare himself for a later job opportunity. Furthermore, as Friedenberg (1959) relates, the expectations of a democratic society press the individual to be autonomous, choosing his own course for self-fulfillment within the interests of the society in which he lives.

Hall (1904) in reviewing the place of youth in historical perspective says we are, as a nation, old beyond our years, for during the expansion and industrialization of the republic, the passage from childhood was "swift as the blink of an eye" (p. xvi). Bakan defines adolescence as an extension of childhood that came as a result of the urban-industrial society of the turn of the century; it is the "period of time between pubescence . . . and the ages specified by law for compulsory education, employment and criminal procedure" (p. 74).

Hollingshead maintains that adolescence is distinctly different from the point of view of sociologists, psychologists, and educators. He says, "Sociologically adolescence is the period in the life of a person when the

society in which he functions ceases to regard him (male or female) as a child but does not accord to him full adult status, roles and functions" (p. 7). To sociologists it is adolescent behavior that is of concern rather than bio-psychological phenomena. He goes on, "We believe that adolescent behavior is a type of transitional behavior which is dependent upon the society, and more particularly upon the position the individual occupies in the social structure" (p. 6).

Havighurst chose a classic American community for his Growing up in River City (1966), a connecting link of the sociologist's perspective of cultural demands between Hollingshead's (1942) Elmtown's Youth and his (1973) Elmtown's Youth and Elmtown Revisited. Both are critical surveys of the collective influence of the youth-serving organizations of the community. Both document the strong effect of class on the successful transition from childhood to adulthood. Social mobility compounds the conflicts of the age, for even middle class youth are considered "the vulnerable" because of the constant threat of downward mobility. The counter culture of the sixties appears to reflect on adaptation to this threat.

Coleman (1961) in The Adolescent Society focuses on teenagers: the high school subculture. Like Hollingshead and Havighurst, he provides an elaborate description of adolescent behavior. The isolation and therefore identification of this age group results from economic specialization of industrial society.

Observers seem to say that it is the values of a culture that determine the length, the ambiguities, and intensity of the transition from childhood. Mead's (1928) description of the coming of age in Samoa is of a serene step into adulthood. Meeting the demands of the relatively simple environment poses no "storm and stress," for Samoan youth are much like their parents and grandparents were. In the post figurative culture, no great value is placed on individualization. Within the highly complex American society, there are pockets of culture that seek to perpetuate a simple and unchanging mode of life. Coleman (1961) illustrates with an account of the conflict between an Amish sect and the Ohio State Board of Education. The Amish, a simple farming group, find no need to segregate youth nor to prolong adolescence through extended schooling.

Douvan and Adelson conclude that today's adolescent undergoes a pallid experience, similar to Friedenberg's contention that the adolescent "merely undergoes puberty and simulates maturity," the reason being extended adolescence due to dependency. Both youth and parents have no escape. Sadly, the youth:

> keeps the peace by muting his natural rebelliousness through transforming it into structured and defined techniques for getting on people's nerves. The passions, the restlessness, the vivacity of adolescence are partly drained off in the mixed childishness and false adulthood of the adolescent teen culture.
> (p. 168)

Though adolescence as experienced and observed in American culture is a consequence of adaptation to democratic ideals within an urban-industrialized culture, it is not peculiar to the American scene. Historically, it took its origin from a rising middle class. Authors attribute the nuclear family to an established bourgeois. In ancient Greece keen observations of youthful behavior were recorded. Democratic ideals gave expanding opportunities to youth and at the same time made great demands. The striving for identity within Western culture is of long duration. Truly, adolescence is a universal experience, as other authors have written in cross cultural studies and over a period of time. Scholars whose observations span milennia (Aristotle, 340 B.C.; Aries, 1962) confirm that

adolescence is a universal experience. Historically, the
concept of adolescence parallels the origin of the middle
class. In his brilliant Centuries of Childhood (1962),
Philippe Aries traces the emergence of the concept of
childhood. In the scope of human history, the concept of
childhood is a recent development; even in medieval times
it did not exist. The concept of "coddling" the weak and
innocent appeared in the fifteenth century and was prac-
ticed first by people of quality, followed by the lower
classes, encouraged by churchmen, "for they saw them (chil-
dren) as fragile creatures of God who needed to be both
safeguarded and reformed" (p. 133).

That adolescence has for centuries been seen as a time
of strivings, of wrestling with the conflicts of the en-
vironment, is borne out by the following observations: one
from Teagarden's article in the journal Adolescence (1976),
the other a translation of Aristotle's observation of the
youth of 340 B.C. Teagarden quotes from the Illinois
Junior High Education:

> Confused by self doubt, plagued with forgetfulness,
> addicted to extreme fads, preoccupied with peer status,
> disturbed about physical development, aroused by physi-
> ological impulses, stimulated by mass media communica-
> tion, comforted by daydreams, chaffed by restrictions,
> loaded with purposeless energy, bored by routine, irked
> by social amenities, veneered with wise "cracks,"

insulated from responsibility, labeled with delinquency, obsessed with personal autonomy, but destined to years of economic dependency, early adolescents undergo a critical and frequently stormy period in their lives. (p. 86)

From Norman Kiell's The Universal Experience of

Adolescence, the words of Aristotle describe youth of

another day:

The young are in character prone to desire and ready to carry any desire they may have into action . . . . They are changeful too, and fickle in their desires, which are as transitory as they are vehement, for their wishes are keen without being permanent . . . . They are passionate, irascible and apt to be carried away by their impulses . . . . They are sanguine, too, for the young are heated by Nature as drunken men by wine, not to say they have not yet experienced frequent failures. They have high aspirations . . . unacquainted with the limiting force of circumstances . . . in their actions they prefer honor to expediency. If the young commit a fault, it is always on the side of excess for they carry everything too far, whether it be their love or hatred or anything else. Also their offenses take the line of insolence and not of meanness . . . . They are compassionate from supposing all people to be virtuous, or at least better than they really are; for as they estimate their neighbors by their own guilelessness, they regard the evils which befall them as undeserved. (p. 16)

In comparing these descriptions of adolescence, Aristotle's

observation is more charitable. He perceives youth as

possessing faults, but being by nature noble idealists.

Teagarden's quote reflects empathy but lacks the quality of

admiration. Only Erikson of contemporary observers articu-

lates the pathos and potentialities of the age. Though

both Aristotle and Teagarden are somewhat indulgent ob-

servers, the contrast centers about a creature of great

emotional diversity, to be pitied by Teagarden; to be

envied by Aristotle. If both statements are a reflection

of the culture's view of youth, it might be concluded that

ancient Greece was forward looking, expecting noble living

of its youth, whereas a weary and disillusioned twentieth

century looks backward at its young with regret and

sympathy.

Kiell in his book The Universal Experience of Adoles-

cence (1964) contends that his cross cultural and historic

study of adolescence suggests that cultural determinants

only moderately affect adolescents. He opts for the re-

capitulation theory of Gesell. The difficulties of ado-

lescence are universal in that they are the consequence of

a physiological state, of sex and aging; a striving for

adulthood in any environment.

Douvan and Adelson's (1966) study of 3,500 Boy Scouts

and Girl Scouts, ages 10-16, follows the classic concept of

adolescence, yet focuses on the early adolescent. Youth

are pushed and pulled toward the future, a crucial experi-

ence, thrust toward adulthood. They observe the adolescent

experience of boys and girls are very different, with the

former establishing identity through peers and vocational choice, the latter relying on single best friends and interpersonal ties for identity. Aside from sex difference, they found that by regions and classes, adolescents have much the same experiences. They point to the "homogenization" of American adolescence, seemingly due to "the peculiar conflicts of the age itself and the force of mass communication" (p. 349). In viewing the extreme ends of the social continuum, they found them to be more alike than different:

> The estranged lower class youngster relies on allo-
> plastic solutions to the adolescent crisis, living out
> mutely, in urgent yet aimless acts of violence or
> bravado, a sullen resentment against the middle class
> world and its values. The estranged upper middle
> class youngster is largely autoplastic in response;
> subject to acute intrapsychic upheavals which are ex-
> pressed in neurotic symptoms, affect storms, character
> eccentricities, and a general value ferment. Para-
> doxically these two extremes are alike, and their like-
> ness is in being different from the normative adoles-
> cent--the adolescent of the core culture. The extremes
> are alike in disaffection, in acting out or thinking
> out a discontent with the social order, they are alike,
> above all in that they adopt radical solutions to the
> adolescent task of ego synthesis. (p. 351)

The Social Criticism of American Accommodation

to Early Adolescence

From the conception of adolescence at the turn of the century to today, there has been no scarcity of critics of society's accommodation for youth. Indeed, it appears that were society to resolve unreasonable demands upon the young, adolescence would cease to have meaning.

In portraying the storm and stress of adolescence in
— 1907, Hall says, "Modern life is hard and in many respects increasingly so on youth. Home, school, and church fail to recognize its nature and needs, and perhaps most of all its perils" (p. xiv). In describing the unique American experience, "an unhistoric land," a country "precociously old for its years," Hall laments the stresses on American youth as, "they leap rather than grow into maturity." He continues:

> Never has youth been exposed to such dangers of both
> perversion and arrest as in our land today. Increas-
> ingly urban life with its temptations, prematurities,
> sedentary occupations and passive stimuli just when
> an active objective life is most needed . . . all
> these lack some of the regulatives they still have in
> older lands with more conservative traditions. (p. xv-
> xvi)

In the post World War II search for normalcy and tran-
quility, numerous critics bemoaned the apathetic youth of

the day, so different from remembered or romanticized "flaming youth." Friedenberg made the sternest indictment of adults and a strong defense of youth in The Vanishing Adolescent (1959). His premise is that adults envy, fear, and are hostile to youth. He scarcely admires the changing adaptation of adults from the more honest dominance by coercion and punishment of former days to the seduction and manipulation of the fifties. He explains the lethargy of youth as a defense mechanism against exploitation. The larger society, media, and commercial enterprises (that exploit the expanding market for teen trappings) all receive a full share of criticism for the exploitation and injustice experienced by adolescents.

More recently Bronfenbrenner (1970) suggests in The Two Worlds of Childhood that a criterion of the worth of a society may be found in "the concern of one generation for the next . . . a society which neglects its children, however well it may function in other respects, risks eventual disorganization and demise" (p. 1). Bronfenbrenner's comparison of the child rearing practices of the U.S.S.R. and the U.S. finds the American pattern lacking. He writes of the "unmaking of the American child," seeing age segregation as a contributing factor to the isolation and alienation of youth. His warning is stern:

If adults do not once again become involved in the
lives of children, there is trouble ahead for American
society. New patterns of life have developed in our
culture. One result of these changes has been the re-
duced participation of adults in the socialization of
children. (p. 118)

It is the insensitivity of institutions most closely

related to transescents--home, school, and church--that

provokes strident criticism of the accommodation to trans-

escence. The family as an institution is faulted by

Bronfenbrenner, Mead, and Holt for alienation between gen-

erations growing out of new life styles. In his book

Escape from Childhood, Holt (1974) views current youth as

in need of more, rather than fewer, older people as they

mature, there being such a multiplicity of adult roles in

our complex society. Like Friedenberg, he sees youth as an

exploited minority and advocates such second order changes

for the young as: right to vote, work, own property,

travel, choose one's guardian, drive, and control one's

learning. He contends the modern nuclear family is "so

often unhelpful or destructive because it is so small, the

relationships are too intense. The young need an extended

family or "community" in organizations of some kind;

furthermore, there is within the family the source of many

people's most severe problems, i.e., the arena of feelings

in small families: sibling rivalry and the dimension of intensified human relations between child and parent" (p. 24).

Bronfenbrenner credits the "unmaking of the American child" to the nuclear family which finds ever diminishing contacts in urban and suburban settings. He contends it is not excessive permissiveness that accounts for the decline of the family and its influences on the young, but the decrease in family interaction and the quality of that interaction.

Havighurst, Bowman, Liddle, Matthews, and Pierod accuse the schools of compounding the difficulties of working class adolescents in Growing up in River City (1962). This longitudinal study (from age 11-20) reports that one third of youth in River City are poorly served by the school. Havighurst returns to the themes of adult insensitivity and child vulnerability in the following statement:

> River City tends to offer opportunity to disadvantaged youth on the community's own terms, as it were. The community seems to be saying "Boys and girls, we can offer grand opportunities for those of you who can do well in school and will attend school regularly, and take part in church activities and join the Scouts or "Y." But to youngsters without these qualities the community has little to offer. (p. 165)

What happens in school, particularly the tone of the classroom, makes the difference for young people. Kagan

(1972) is in agreement with Havighurst that the upper third have no problem with motivation. They have experienced success. It is the lower two thirds that have little motivation. The matter of Acceptance/Achievement determines motivation. Kagan says:

> If power and status corrupts, an adolescent will not defile himself with academic success. If certain subjects cast doubt on one's sex role integrity (boys may feel that French is feminizing, girls may view competence in Algebra as masculine) personal interpretation determines effort. (p. 100)

Newman and Oliver (1972) agree with Bronfenbrenner that the themes of fragmentation, change, depersonalization, and powerlessness which make for the "missing community" lead to feelings of anomie, alienation, and estrangement in youth. Where Bronfenbrenner supports the U.S.S.R. child rearing practice of stressing adult values, Newman and Oliver question them in this statement:

> The prevailing conception that children can learn only from, rather than with adults and the forced submission of youth to the rule of adults amplifies the conflict between generations and encourages a posture of dependency, a sense of powerlessness that may carry over from youth to adulthood. (p. 221)

In an essay sympathetic to youth, "Today's Junior High School Students," Wattenberg (1974) blames the reward pattern of middle class teachers for increasing the disparity between the "ins" and outs." He calls for greater respect

for the values of youth and poses the question: "Is it not

. . . possible that by adopting routines which go against

the grain of many young people, we are really increasing

their alienation from the school?" (p. 68)

Kagan (1974) posits that adults, parents, and teachers

have unrealistic expectations of early adolescents in this

statement:

> The adult generation has lost faith in learning, but
> hopes that if the child can gain it, parents will have
> gained salvation for themselves. This dynamic is not
> unlike our vicarious identification with youth's per-
> missive attitude toward drugs, work and sex. We are
> using youth for our salvation and that exploitation is
> selfish and dangerous. (p. 102)

Hollingshead concludes his study Elmtown's Youth and

Elmtown Revisited (1975) of a high school in a town in

middle America in the 1940's and again in the 1970's with

these somber words:

> The current product is a status sytem which provides
> greater opportunities to persons in the higher reaches
> of the social structure than those on the lower levels
> to gain and enjoy the benefits of our culture and to
> pass on to their descendants the economic and social
> advantages they have enjoyed. Conversely persons in
> the lower segments of the socio-economic structure are
> handicapped by the operation of the system. (p. 388)

Though not in agreement on what institution--family,

school, or church--bears the greater burden of blame for

the malaise in "Growing up Absurd" or causing the "Vanish-

ing Adolescent," serious observers of adolescence hold

that society as a whole is responsible for making accommodations to this vulnerable age.

Given a measure of agreement among critics of the responsibilities of the family, the school, and society at large for improving the conditions of adolescence, there is sharp disagreement on means. Prescriptions hinge on educational philosophy.

Social learning theorists are primarily concerned with the transmission of culture. External behavior is the criterion of importance; immediate and measurable responses are valued. Skinner is the guiding figure in this objective approach. Muus (1976) rejects the stages of development theorists, contending the growth of the child is continuous and there is no qualitative difference between adults and children; it is the environment that affects child behavior, not biological maturation. Of central importance to the successful socialization of the young are appropriate modeling, imitation, and rewards. Explicit in this approach is a superior professional staff and the "hidden curricula." Youth takes a cue from what the model does and how he is rewarded rather than what the model says. The dilemma for the high school is apparent as Coleman (1961) explains that high school students are less influenced by teachers than peers

and parents. Moreover, peers control desired rewards.
Muus sees the advantage of integrating lower class with
middle class students, in that status is important in mod-
eling; lower class students may aspire to middle class
values. Yet sharp cleavage of classes is the norm in the
comprehensive high school according to Havighurst and
Hollingshead.

Adelson (1972), having documented the achievement of
ideology between 12-16 years in cross cultural studies im-
plies that this is a propitious time for moving from ego-
centric to sociocentric orientation. With emerging higher
stages of reasoning, youth experience at the same time a
declining respect for authority, but a heightened value for
law. Since this age has the capacity and inclination for
developing an ideology, adults may wisely provide a climate
for this strength of the age (p. 107). Blos recommends a
prolongation of early adolescence for a full flowering of
concrete knowledge.

De Cecco in his insightful how-to book, Growing Pains:
Uses of School Conflict (1974), suggests that rather than
avoiding and suppressing inevitable conflict, adolescents
may explore a number of alternatives and participate in
creative resolutions of problems by institutionalizing

dissent. De Cecco warns that by postponing decision making in situations of conflict, adolescents become passive.

Friedenberg (1959) suggests our society improve itself by improving conditions of adolescence. To do this, intellectual competence should be emphasized by the school. He maintains:

> The fully human individual is he who does evaluate himself on specific grounds. He thinks of himself partly in terms of his particular competence and responsibilities. I certainly do not suggest that what a man can do is the same as what he is; far from it. But being a person is a process, and more a doing than a being, really; we are not statuary. (p. 216)

> Democracy is preserved by a continuing community of self respecting young people who understand and accept their relationship to society. The basic unit of such a community is a stable self to respect. (p. 218)

Humanists whose concerns center about self-insight and the quality of personal experience are existentialist in philosophy. Self-insight is, in Kohlberg's words, "a form of truth with emotional as well as intellectual components" (p. 460). The best known working examples of this philosophy are the British Infant and Junior Schools; Neill's Summerhill the prototype. In <u>Young Lives at Stake</u> (1972), Charity James articulates the main factors of the British viewpoint in a chapter titled "Education for a Well-spent Youth." They are: "intrinsic motivation, education

through involvement and living in the present with full

enjoyment" (p. 12). Emphasis centers on the individual

student as decision maker, pursuing his interests in depth

with support from an "enabling" teacher.

Friedenberg's prime educational objective is self-

concept with competence. The humanistic British model

with reliance on self-direction of students and the

strength of teacher specialists appears to be that vehicle.

Kagan (1972) suggests the school can

promote more pluralism in the talents it rewards, and
celebrate self improvement as enthusiastically as it
credits rises in the rank order. Teachers should
defuse the salience of inter-student comparisons
and acknowledge the significance of intrapersonal
change. (p. 101)

Widespread criticism of education suggests that as

practiced today, the needs of youth in a complex and

rapidly changing society are not being met. Mead (1970)

advises that adults recognize the limits of their influence

with the young and change their (adults') behavior. Other

observers, whether critical of, or sympathetic to, the

plight of "obsolescent models," address this problem.

Coleman (1961) sympathizes with today's parents who cannot

shape children in their own image as was traditional in

simpler times. "Parents are obsolescent in their skills,
trained for jobs that are passing out of existence, and
thus unable to transmit directly their accumulated
knowledge. They come to be "out of touch" with the times
and unable to understand, much less inculcate the standards
of a social order that has changed since they were young
(p. 2).

In his essay "A World They Never Knew," Conger (1973)
adds depth to this phenomenon, crediting the bitter division
of adults, the prestigious included, in recent years as
providing no homogeneous adulthood for youth to respect or
resist. As a result there is a decline in respect for
authority. Parents are viewed as just individuals in a
group of "mixed up adults."

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the writing of a number of
thoughtful educators and social critics, as it pertains to
the nature of early adolescence, particularly as experienced
within the civic culture of the United States.

The strengths and weaknesses of the age were examined
not only from the viewpoint of youth in transition, but also
from the perspective of adult society, perplexed by the

often incomprehensible behavior of their offspring. If adolescence is a time of anxious ambiguities for youth, it is also a time perturbation for adults, who find it difficult to cope with the uneven growth of youngsters, physically, cognitively, psychologically, and philosophically.

Observers of adolescents are more in agreement on the conflicts of the years than on how society should accommodate to the crises of the age. Precisely, it is the uncertainty of when and how to share with adolescents decisions that affect the life of the community that keeps the stew of adolescence boiling. In the seventies, adolescents are a large minority on the American scene, equally visible with Black Americans and Spanish Americans. The potentials of adolescents for contributing to a dynamic democratic society are not generally recognized. Claiming a major portion of the productive hours of the lives of adolescents, the schools have an obligation to provide optimal experiences for the development of self-concept and a sense of community.

CHAPTER III

A MODEL FOR POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION

FOR EARLY ADOLESCENTS

In this chapter I will examine the model of Fred
Newmann for active citizen education for late adolescents,
a model of psycho-social development by Charles Hampden-
Turner, and a curriculum in moral education by Ralph Mosher.
The Newmann model has yielded productive results with high
school students in the universal concern for bridging the
gap between the theoretical and practical approaches to
civic education. Hampden-Turner's model lends keen insight
into the pattern of personal motivation and interaction
with others that results in psycho-social growth. His
model was not designed for early adolescents, but for all
ages. It does present a rational framework for comprehend-
ing the progressive dynamics of personal growth through
social interaction. Mosher's curriculum in moral education
builds upon Kohlberg's theory of moral development. The
models and curriculum have in common a commitment to the
development of the individual. The chapter concludes with
a proposed model for active citizen education for early

adolescents that borrows from the studies of Newmann, Mosher, and Hampden-Turner, modifying these ideas for an age group that is vulnerable, and for whom a paucity of effective curricula exists. The proposed model seeks to build on the strength of the age and to facilitate passage for early adolescents to ascending levels of personal and civic competence.

Basic Assumptions

I believe that man is a special creature related to his creator through the human family. The measure of his nobility is the gratitude shown for his life space in the stream of human history. And how does man give thanks for this gift? Through celebration of self, the exquisite joy of recognized uniqueness, the wellspring of unfolding personality. Progress toward the fullest flowing of humaneness is a weaving of relationships from encounters, some fragile yet strong as a spider's web, into a fabric of mutuality. It is through the dialectics of collectivity that men approach the virtues of justice, equality, and compassion.

I believe the diversity of man is to be treasured as a vision of potentiality. It is a fearsome potential, holding the possibility of extreme evil as well as

righteousness. The human family is engaged in an eternal struggle for actualization. Man has an inherent desire and capacity for competence; education facilitates that drive.

I believe that education is an unfolding of all that is within the individual. It is not a business--not a matter of supply and demand--not management by objective-- not a cost/efficiency operation. Education is self- direction; a growing from the inside outward; a process of selecting from a cacophony of stimuli only those that are authentic for the individual. The role of educators is to provide the learner with the richest environment possible for his selections, not a beautiful and random environment, but one rich in structure from the past and open to the potentials of the future. The educator is, of necessity, a constant learner. The dynamics of interaction set in motion the necessity for investment and judgment. Education is for all people and for all time. In considering the dimen- sion of time, it is the time of adolescence for the indi- vidual that is crucial. All possibilities for the future are vulnerable to the events of these years. The burden of decisions (many of which are irreversible) is unavoidable. Decisions may open doors to series of increasingly

enriching experiences. Decisions may also close off those passageways, resulting in an ever diminishing sphere of existence.

The progression from childhood to adulthood is through a hazardous labyrinth, yet the urge for personal competence is a mighty shield. All people should have power in the amount of personal competence and the responsible use of that competence. A poignant statement of the thwarting of such power was made by black clergymen during the storm of the civil rights struggle.

> The conscience of black men is corrupted because having no power to implement the demands of conscience, the concern for justice in the absence of justice becomes a chaotic surrender. Powerlessness breeds a race of beggars. We are faced with a situation where powerless conscience meets conscienceless power, threatening the very foundations of our nation. (Hampden-Turner, 1970, p. 45)

It is within this credo that I submit a model for civic education.

A brief history of political socialization and an explanation of the process (as conceptualized through political science research) was set forth in Chapter I. The relevance of political socialization to a study of civic education for youth in a democracy that makes great demands of its citizenry is apparent. Civic competence is no

well-defined phenomenon but a dynamic concept that evolves with the increasing complexity of modern democracies.

Political socialization is a process of inducting the young into the civic culture of a nation. Differing attitudes are a consequence of and necessity to differing systems. Commitment to democratic ideals has broad acceptance because a democratic system most nearly upholds the supreme virtues of justice and equality. Most stable democracies have as a basis a social contract, the balance of the governed giving consent to an elite with power, yet responsive to a constituency.

Educators have persistently attempted to prepare young people for life in a dynamic society, as explained in Chapter I. The task of passing the culture of free men from one generation to the next in a democratic system is complex. In an egalitarian society, the public schools have been viewed as the principal agent of political socialization. Yet a general prescription of American History with a short course in Civics for everyman's child fell short of attaining the goals of developing adequate civic attitude, knowledge, and involvement imperative to citizens of the late twentieth century.

Dramatic events of the sixties and seventies have heightened the urgency of energizing "civic virtue" among youth. The stability, even the survival, of a democratic system is dependent on a majority of citizens keenly aware of, and sensitive to the obligations of overlapping communities in a society characterized by Gesellschaft. Erikson (1968), in explaining the adolescent process of acquiring identity, charges society with this responsibility:

> Democracy, therefore, must present its adolescents with ideals which can be shared by young people of many backgrounds, and which emphasize autonomy in the form of independence and initiative in the form of constructive work. (p. 133)

The mutual needs and responsibilities of a democratic social system and its youth are the wellspring of political socialization. Models that have been implemented for transferring the Western ideology of democracy to twentieth century high school youth are described by Newmann (1975) and Mosher (1976) in this chapter. A model that fosters the rudimentary concepts of "sense of self" and "sense of community" is proposed for early adolescents as essential for developing civic virtue. That adolescence is a crucial time in the life cycle for citizen education is supported by the following words of Erikson (1968):

> Adolescence is thus a vital regenerator in the process
> of social evolution, for youth can offer its loyalties
> and energies both to the conservation of that which
> continues to feel true, and to the revolutionary cor-
> rection of that which has lost its regenerative sig-
> nificance. (p. 134)

What is the role of the socializing agent of the

schools in the seventies in inducting youth into the civic

culture? As stated in Chapter I, it appears that not only

attitudes, but also the inclination to participate, differs

significantly by race, socio-economic status, and ethnicity.

Few schools in the seventies are "lily white" or "solid

black" or any other ethnic majority. Today's social studies

teachers deal with students of diverse political orienta-

tion. How shall schools meet the dual demands of developing

the unique potential of the individual and maintain and

enrich a political system worth preserving because of its

principles of justice and equality?

Civic competence for all citizens appears a must if the

system is to survive. Not that every citizen will have

strong opinions and wish to act on every issue, but every

citizen should feel that he has the power to influence

policy on a matter of significance to himself. Education

for civic competence can only be attained from a broad base

of concerned adults. A number of thoughtful educators

believe that civic education must be a joint effort of families, schools, and the community at large. Much theorizing has been done. Fred Newmann is that rare individual who has effected a marriage between theory and practice in citizen education. He has created and tested a model of active citizen education for which there is sound justification, ethically and educationally.

An Analysis and Critique of the Newmann Model

In my concern for developing a model for a curriculum in citizen education, I have found that the work of Fred Newmann provides a very useful point of departure. Newmann (1975) makes a case for developing competence and citizen efficacy in a curriculum emphasizing the formulation of policy goals through moral deliberation, social policy research, and working to support goals through mastering advocacy, group process, and organization skills. High school juniors and seniors were involved in Newmann's Community Issues Program offered at James Madison Memorial High School in Madison, Wisconsin, from 1969 to 1971.

The strength of the Newmann model is the definition of and insistence upon environmental competence and social action. Environmental competence is "the ability to act in

accord with the intentions one has for making an impact in the environment external to oneself" (p. 13). Social action is "any activity in which students demonstrate concern for a social problem" (p. 8). He justifies these as essential to maintaining democratic values by consent of the governed. He says that youth have social-political alternatives: (a) exerting influence to cope with the system, (b) succumbing to a disaffection for what now is--and dropping out, or (c) becoming revolutionaries advocating total change (pp. 1-12). Newmann says his model:

> is not deliberately derived from any particular theory of human behavior, social structure, or political process, but from my personal experience in curriculum development, teaching and citizen action. (p. 76)

The uniqueness of the Newmann model is to be found in its critical stress on working for the support of goals. Knowledge of both formal and informal political-legal processes is essential to working for the support of goals. The productiveness of individual and group action is determined by the acquisition of advocacy skills, by knowledge of group process, and skills in using those processes as well as the nuts and bolts of organization-administration skills. Newmann asserts that the participating citizen will be assertive rather than passive, that he will take

some responsibility for, rather than be controlled by,
events. Different levels of involvement will be expected
from the diversity of the populace. There will be more
followers than leaders; there will be creative initiators
and critical protestors. Newmann justifies this action
as the only rational means for maintaining and enhancing
the democratic process. Government deriving its power
from the consent of the governed will have limited power
and will be sensitive to the principle of equality.
Equality, that democratic ideal reflecting morality, jus-
tice, and openness, can be served by an informed public,
but more importantly by an involved and participating pub-
lic. That political involvement is low is evident from
the polls and from numerous research studies of recent
years.

Newmann presents the major components of his model in
Figure 1.

The Newmann Model
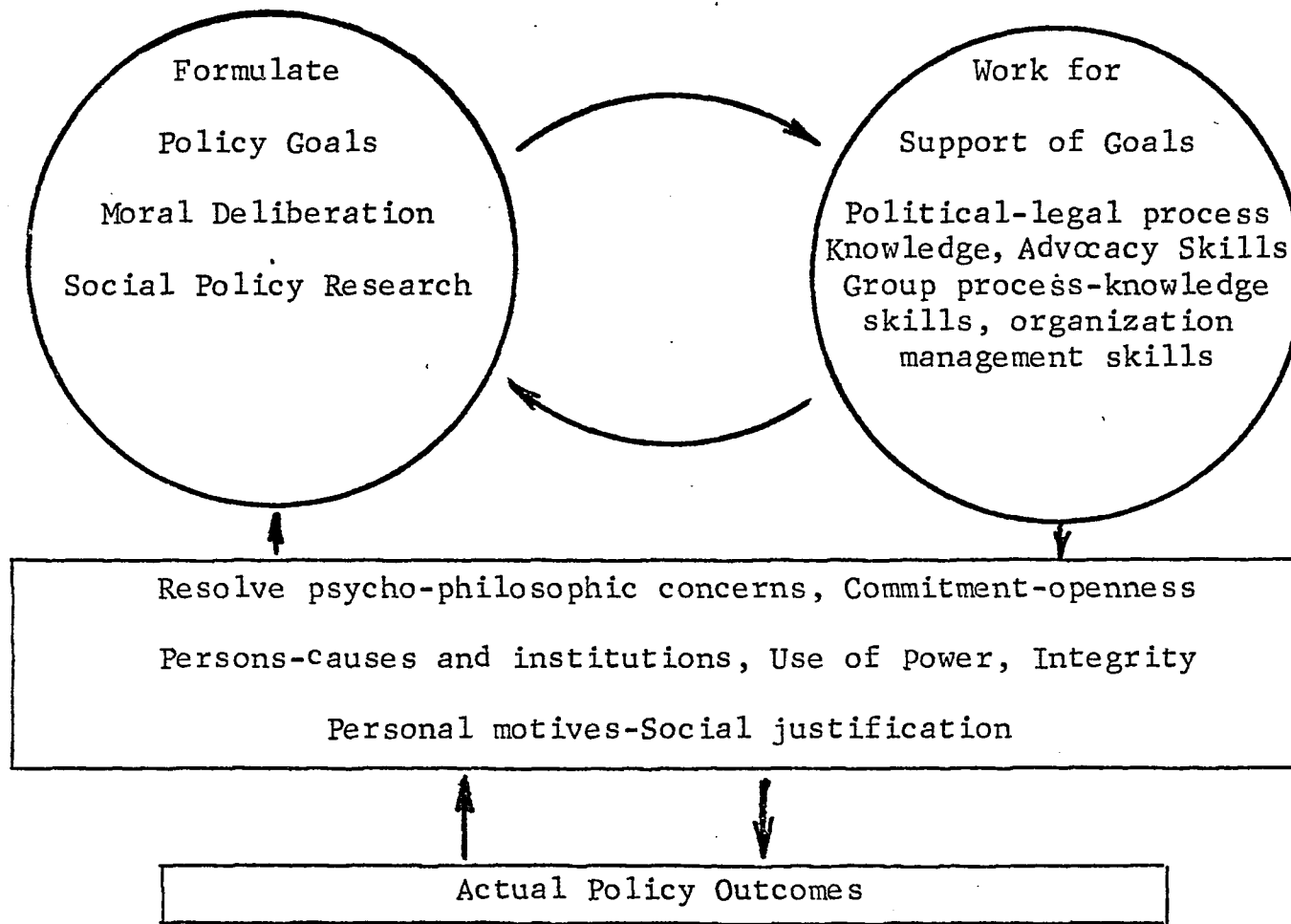
Figure 1

Competence, that vital dimension of adolescent develop-
ment, is defined by Newmann as "the ability to behave in
such a way or to use one's efforts in such a manner, as to
produce the consequences that one intends" (p. 12). If one
is to affirm that, as Newmann says, "to educate is . . . to
help persons attain the consequences they intend, this goal
may be summarized as teaching for competence" (p. 12). Then
environmental competence defined as "the ability to act on
accord with the intentions one has for making impact in the
environment external to oneself" (p. 16) is a worthy educa-
tional goal. Newmann gives further insight into environ-
mental competence by constructing this taxonomy:

1. Physical Competence: ability to have impact on
aesthetic, functional

2. Interpersonal Competence: ability to have impact
on persons, nurturing and economic relationships

3. Civic Competence: ability to have impact in public
affairs, through public electoral process and within inter-
est groups (p. 18).

This taxonomy brings to mind the sequence and virtues
of life stages as described by Erikson (1968): the attain-
ment of physical competence emphasized during childhood, the
competence in interpersonal matters largely the task of

adolescence, and the achievement of civic competence in adult years, resulting from successful attainment of the former.

Environmental competence is an ongoing phenomenon resulting from action which comes on the heels of reflection. As Newmann says, "Action is reserved for behavior accompanied by a conscious intent to bring some effect into the environment" (p. 19). Newmann does not define community in his model, though one does get a sense of community, either local or global from the perspective of the individual, in his insistence on justification for all action within the community. The moral justification for action must be consistent with the values of justice, equality, and human dignity.

The Newmann model was not intended to be rigid. He submits an agenda for a curriculum rather than a finished curriculum and urges his colleagues to expand and clarify it. Indeed, one of the strengths of the model is its flexibility. Though useful, I believe it can be improved upon by extension as evidenced by Massey (1976), who modified it for his "Citizen Action Education for a Democratic Community."

Massey has a great concern for the disintegration of Gemeinschaft. In recent years, busing to achieve racial balance in schools has resulted in numbers of students leaving public schools to attend private academies, further fracturing the community. His study sought to restore community for high school students through joint citizen action. The setting of his study was a small traditional southern town. He found that public and private school students were amenable to working together. He was disappointed to learn, however, that one basic attitude they had in common was a reluctance to influence public issues of a controversial nature. None of his public/private school student groups would choose a leadership/change project. They did choose volunteer community service projects and dealt successfully in that medium. Massey concluded that for his students, in the setting described, the Newmann model stands in need of refinement, with greater emphasis upon (a) the development of a sense of self and (b) the development of a sense of community. Massey questioned the level of moral judgment of high school students in choosing social action projects. Most of Massey's high school juniors and seniors appeared to reason at moral stage 3, some at stage 4. "Good-boy" and "Law and Order" orientations,

formal and traditional, are concerned with maintaining the status quo rather than recognizing injustice within the environment with the concomitant motivation for change. Conventional moral reasoning lacks sensitivity to the universal principles of equality and justice, the virtues of a democratic system.

It appears to me that strategies for the development of sense of self, and for the development of higher stages of moral reasoning in the early years of adolescence, are justifiable. Indeed, as Mosher (1976) contends, the time for developing higher stages of moral reasoning is crucial. He says there are age periods when transitions in moral reasoning are more easily effected, and that if the transition is not made, fixation at the lower level is likely to occur (pp. 16-17). Massey's students may have been bound by fixation at lower levels of moral reasoning, their concept of civic competence limited by a latent sense of self. Late adolescents are intellectually capable of formal operations, of higher levels of moral reasoning. It then appears logical to me that educational experiences for early adolescents should attempt to provide stimuli for cognitive and psycho-social development to liberate the individual to

maximum use of his/her capacity. Personal and civic competence builds on an emerging satisfying identity.

Newmann is dubious of certain aspects of humanistic psychology. He denies "that the key to personal growth is directing one's energy more toward inner examination of self" as some humanistic psychologists contend. Newmann asserts the fully developed person will also desire and be capable of making an impact on the external world. He makes a strong case for the necessity of environmental competence in being a moral agent and concludes that "'real' moral dilemmas exist only for those persons who have specific abilities to affect reality" (p. 33).

Of equal importance, to Newmann, is the psychological need of basic human nature to be efficacious. He relies on the work of White (1963) to reiterate that "an accumulated sense of competence is a useful way of referring to what others may call ego-strength . . . because of the accrued confidence that one can act upon, rather than be a victim of the environment" (p. 35). It is my position that the resolution of psycho-philosophic concerns is basic to Newmann's model of education for social action. It is from the deepest and innermost values that the citizen establishes motives and social justification for participation.

Early adolescents need to establish identity, authenti-
cated through interaction with an adult world (a community
as defined by Holt, Oliver, and Newmann, 1972). The emerging
adolescent needs to grow from an egocentric to a sociocentric
outlook, for only by this route may an adequate ideology de-
velop. Physical and psychological changes press the early
adolescent to be active and competent in many ways. For the
adaptation to his/her world, a "wealth of concrete knowledge"
(Blos, 1970), "self insight" (Mosher, 1976), and "respect"
(Havighurst, 1962) are indispensable to the early adolescent.
The major components that I feel are missing from the
Newmann model that are essential for early adolescents are
(a) the developmental dimensions of students and (b) more
specifically, a focus on self-concept. These are essential
for a valid civic education for early adolescents.

Early adolescents are just beginning to perceive the com-
plexities of public controversy, tending to view conflict as
having clearly identifiable right and wrong adversaries. They
also tend to regard compromise as the surrender of integrity.

The emerging adolescent, in suspending the stable image
of a child self, may experience an amoeba-like self, lacking
form. The young individual searches for a structure of iden-
tity through interaction with and confirmation of an

expanding world. The salience of egocentrism that is characteristic of the transition from one cognitive stage to the next is all too apparent among early adolescents. Egocentrism must be dealt with developmentally to avoid fixation at the level of concrete operations.

Psycho-social Development: Prerequisite to Civic Competence

I believe that competence in the social realm can be facilitated and must be preceded by a personal sense of competence. I am greatly moved by the reasoning of Charles Hampden-Turner. In Radical Man, his model of psycho-social development refutes the sterility of excessive individualism and affirms the interdependence of man. His model is not the pallid accumulation of a score of theorists, but a masterful synthesis of the deepest probings of modern man. To me, his model best illustrates the process of growth from self-centeredness toward a poised, fully integrated social being. The model can be applied to personal growth and human relationships at any age. I see the most striking application for early adolescents. Chapter II portrays the stresses of early adolescents in fashioning for themselves an identity through interaction with others. Be it parent, peer, or the diverse personages in his expanding world, the

individual who would enlarge his consciousness and attain his potential will follow the process of the Hampden-Turner model, as illustrated in Figure 2.

The Hampden-Turner Model of Psycho-social Development

Man exists freely

(a) through the quality of his perception and

(b) the strength of his identity

(i) each will attempt to integrate the feedback from this process into mental matrices of developing complexity.

(c) and the synthesis of these on his anticipated and experienced competence.

(h) and through a dialectic achieve a higher synergy,

(d) He invests this with intensity and authenticity in his human environment

(g) He seeks to make a self confirming, self transcending impact upon the other

(e) by periodically suspending his cognitive structures and risking himself

(f) in trying to bridge the distance to the other.

Figure 2

Hampden-Turner gives muscle and body to the skeleton of his model by applying the criteria of positive mental health by such theorists as Fromm, Tillich, Erikson, Argyris, Rogers, Buber, Maslow, and James. He further illustrates the completeness of the circle by paralleling the model with Taylor's profile of the Creative Person and Haan, Smith, and Block's (1968) Characteristics of young adults in the Bay Area with the Highest Capacities for Moral Judgment. Central to his thesis is the idea of the energy, the dynamics of the risk-taking encounters between authentic identities, as illustrated below:
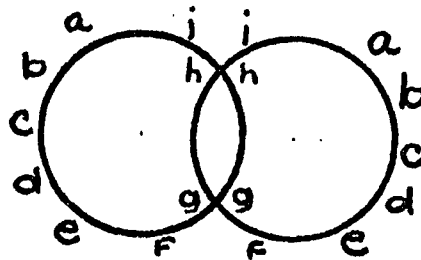
Each party to the interaction receives support from the interaction, resulting in enhancement and development of each segment of the personality. His double helix gives further conceptualization of the basis of psycho-social development. The interconnecting helices picture individual growth from synergestic relationships with others. The spirals proceed from lower reaches of limited exchanges to upper reaches of more mature relationships.
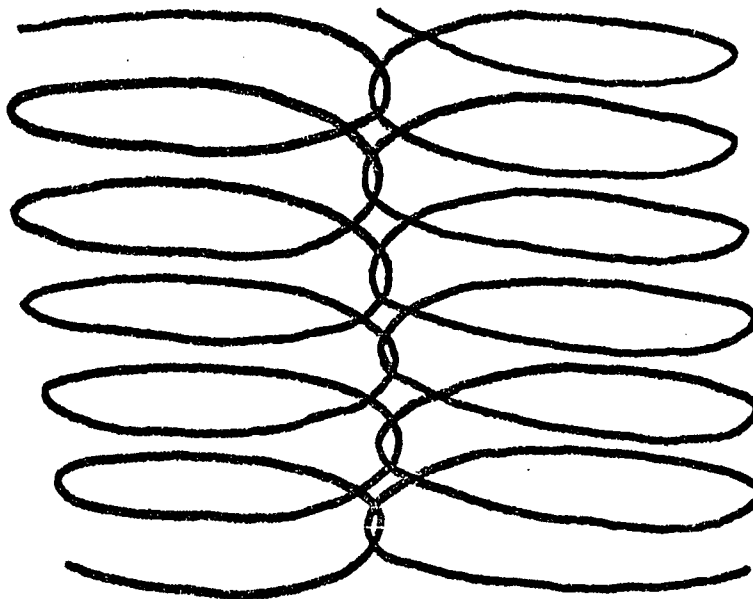
To proceed around the circular model, I interpret the segments thus: Man has identity and can exist as a free agent because of his (a) perception. The discrepancy between ought and is is painfully unavoidable. He carves his (b) identity, an unvarnished and limited self through dialogue with others. The (c) competence achieved is more than ego strength and self-esteem; it is generated from the "persuasiveness which arises from an intuitive grasp of other people's needs" (p. 43). Crucial to the meaning of the act (d) investment is authenticity and intensity. One must be capable of self-disclosure; one must give vent to the urgency to create. Hampden-Turner says the act may take many forms, "a gift, a gesture, a poem, a magnum opus . . . " (p. 45).

It is an explicit movement from self to others. The price
of personal growth is the (e) risk taking of suspending one's
own cognitive structure, being prepared for its modification
by the encounter. More simply, it means to temporarily sus-
pend one's own reasoning, to place oneself in the place of
the other. There is the risk of permanently losing one's
structure of meaning in the interaction, yet only through
the daring of this "holy insecurity" (p. 48) may one take
the next step forward to (f) bridge the distance, that is,
to take the leap of faith, to close the gap between one's
own individuality and the needs of others. The wider the
gap the greater the anxiety in making the leap, as evidenced
by the racial conflicts in the U. S. and in Africa in recent
years. One hears the echo of Newmann and White's environ-
mental competence in Hampden-Turner's statement, "Man con-
summates the act of creating when others confirm the value
of his investment and make it their own, so that it trans-
cends the personality of its creator" (p. 52). The (g)
self-confirmation and self-transcending impact comes not
from a force blow or inexorable brainwashing, but from a
mutually unfolding experience. Again the hazard is that the
leap (the investment) may end in nothingness, yet there is
ever the urge to effect a meeting of the minds. The person

experiences a fulfillment and becomes actualized through
entering into the perceived reality of others. The individ-
ual does not achieve confirmation easily or quickly. In-
stead, the joining of the egocentric with the sociocentric
world is of necessity a struggle to reconcile two apparent
opposites. Hampden-Turner says, "The unique situation is
discoverable only after we have leapt the distance to the
other, clashed in dialectic, and then engaged with him"
(p. 52). What Buber refers to as a "unity of contraries,"
Hampden-Turner calls (h) synergy. Returning to the helices,
Hampden-Turner says, "Synergy is a state of mutual enhance-
ment between two or more helices so that their respective
segments are developed and strengthened" (p. 57). It con-
sists of an affective and intellectual synthesis which is
more than the sum of its parts, so that "each party to the
interaction can win a return on the investment that is
greater than the competence risked" (p. 55). Finally, the
reaching comes full circle with the (i) integration of feed-
back that brings about more complex ideas. This, indeed, is
the process experienced by Radical Man, the thinker, the
feeler, moving beyond his own sphere of consciousness into
the larger consciousness of contemporaries. Hampden-Turner
has created a rational theoretical model for developing a

sense of self and personal competence through interaction with others.

It is Ralph Mosher, an educator, theorist/practitioner, who has set forth a working model for psycho-social growth of late adolescents. His pedagogical vehicle is that of discussing moral dilemmas. In the next section, his curriculum is examined and analyzed. Mosher has tested his model by providing substantitive interaction for late adolescents within the setting of the school. It is a curriculum for moral education whose basis is cognitive and psychosocial development.

Mosher's Curriculum in Moral Reasoning for Adolescents

The overriding premise of Mosher's curriculum is based on the notion that moral action will be enhanced by stimulating moral and psychological development. Mosher believes, with Kohlberg and Mayer, that the aim of education is development and that the curriculum must provide those experiences for maximum development. Building on the strengths of the age that he sees as (a) the capability to adult thought, (b) the inclination to ethical consideration (which is part of establishing an identity through a personal moral philosophy), (c) a concern for acceptance by contemporaries, and

(d) an urgency for competence and action (particularly in the realm of social responsibility), Mosher has conceived a bold curriculum and tested it. Moral reasoning is regarded as an intellectual process in which concepts are developed, analysis made, and decisions mandated when confronted with conflicting demands. Mosher's reason for choosing adolescents for moral education is that this is a prime time for transition intellectually, socially, psychologically, and philosophically; and there appear to be age periods when the transition from one level of moral reasoning to another is more easily accomplished. Further, the caveat may be observed that "longitudinal studies show that children who do not achieve conventional moral thinking by age 13 probably will not achieve postconventional thinking in adulthood" (p. 16). A second transitional period occurs late in adolescence when people who have not begun some postconventional moral reasoning likely will not achieve that level in adulthood.

Developmentalists can approve the moral deliberation that precedes action in Mosher's curriculum, not for reducing tension, but instead for a confrontation based on the perception of dissonance between stages of development. The potential for growth in moral reasoning is explained by

observations that individuals experience a dissonance while
discussing a dilemma when exposed to a higher level than
their own, resulting eventually in dissatisfaction with
their current reasoning. A preference for the next higher
level leads to a restructuring of one's frame of reasoning.

Mosher's course is for high school juniors and seniors
and can be divided into several phases. Phase one is an
orientation, with adolescents sharing the ambiguous experi-
ences of teens and the commonalities of perceptions of a
world that to them is not rational. Phase two deals with
analysis of moral dilemmas through the use of films and
novels. This approach takes into account diverse learning
styles. Discussion is the heart of this phase. Phase three
teaches the skills of counseling to adolescents. The aim is
to acquire a depth of understanding for another's ideas.
It is systematic, theoretically applied training in empathy,
that is, accurate identification with and response
to others. Phase four is the teaching of moral psychology
and philosophy; the specifics of Kohlberg's theory of moral
reasoning are explored.

Mosher's curriculum appears to have enjoyed success.
He concedes that the "moment of truth" is the relationship
between moral reasoning and action, very like the critical

link in the Hampdel-Turner model which emerges out of the

capacity of the individual to risk the leap that can make

ought-is. Kohlberg's systematic discussions of moral di-

lemmas is the vehicle for helping to stimulate development

from an egocentric to a sociocentric orientation. Mosher

makes a strong case for the opportunity current educators

have in making use of the enlarged and evolving body of

psychological knowledge. Regrettably, I have found no spe-

cifics of the results of his curriculum. In his presenta-

tion, "Education for Human Development" (1977) at the Phi

Delta Kappa Symposium at the University of North Carolina-

Greensboro, he said:

> Adolescents can learn to counsel or teach as well as
> many professionals and in the process mature morally
> and socially; or analagously, adolescents can create
> genuine self government, become skillful in conducting
> and participating in democratic groups and acquire
> higher moral reasoning in doing so. (p. 177)

I see a number of strengths in the Mosher model.

Discussion of moral dilemmas is a practical means for stimu-

lating moral reasoning. This kind of mind-stretching is

reaching adolescents at a prime time for transition; it

avoids fixation at lower levels of reasoning. Also the

fact that action is an integral part of the curriculum makes

it likely that adolescents will participate with enthusiasm.

A Proposed Model

Introduction

I am attracted to the models of Newmann, Mosher, and

Hampden-Turner, as each deals rationally with the process of

developmental education. I am persuaded that the develop-

ment of the "integrated person," exultant in his/her unique-

ness, into social responsibility, no more, no less, is the

aim of education. Hampden-Turner's model of psycho-social

development hinges on the confirmation of self by investment

with others. Mutual growth comes from synergy of honest and

willful encounters so that new and more refined intellectual

constructs are born, and a shared responsibility flows from

this. Emerging adults must invest, leap, and define their

beings through others; the alternative is frustration,

stagnation, atrophy, and alienation.

Mosher and a host of associates have been the vanguard

for implementing Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning in

secondary schools. Their most profound contribution, from

my own point of view, is the link between the moral dimen-

sion and civic virtue. It is a good beginning. Mosher en-

courages the humanist educator to move ahead with alacrity

expecting a full decade (of research and practice) to con-

ceptualize a viable curriculum.

Most of all, Newmann's model appeals to me, because (at least in his setting) his notion of developing personal and civic competence through civic action did work. I am persuaded of the mutual necessity of personal competence and community involvement. I deplore the declining importance of social studies in the schools. The traditional approach to the social studies generally has kept an arm's length from the realities of the world inhabited by students. Studies of distant people and distant times, though essential for a perspective of social man, when emphasized, tend to minimize the pervading controversies of social dynamism within the life-space of students. Community awareness is the focus of social studies for primary students when the function is laying the foundation for allegiance, that is, the social acceptance of the underlying principles of a government and a pride in the functioning of the system. I believe that current social studies for early adolescents neglects sensitivity to community and finding one's place of dignity and participation in it. Community awareness is grossly neglected for adolescents who are beginning to be capable of formal operations. Newmann's model for reality testing, for developing environmental competence through selective civic action, seems a rational approach for

optimizing the strength of the age. It meets the criteria for individual enrichment and social responsibility.

Elements of the Model

Competence through perception: community awareness. The goal of environmental competence can only be reached by those aware of community resources, sensitive to community norms, and willing to become involved in the ebb and flow of conflicting local interests. In creating this model, I began by questioning the definition of community. For early adolescents, caught up in the throes of egocentrism, community is place, the place where I live. Enlargement of the concept of community is developed by an analysis of self to significant others; mutual needs, supports, and the binding of commonalities. Who shares my needs? Who can and will be helpful to me in achieving my goals? How can my abilities be used to nourish those to whom I am bound by choice? What can be done to overcome negative external forces? How are conflicts resolved within the core group? Where do my responsibilities begin and end? The vital links of psychosocial development, as conceived by Hampden-Turner, inhere in this approach.

This model focuses on action at the local level as appropriate for early adolescents because of the concreteness of issues and of the feasibility of action that yields an observable impact. Early adolescents reason, for the most part, at the concrete level; they are able to relate to political issues of here and now. To observe political roles first hand, to communicate with local leaders, to experience political process, first through simulation and then through volunteer service and social action, gives one a basis for civic competence. I believe it is from a secure attitude that emerges from satisfying local investment that one conceptualizes an expanded sphere of influence. Competence within the local setting is prerequisite to competence within a larger frame.

Goals for community are justified through social policy research and moral reasoning. The critical leap into action must be made in light of the realities of the setting. An accurate appraisal of formal and informal power within the community is essential. Young people need to observe governmental and service agencies in action and talk informally with actual participants. The feedback from these activities sheds light on how decision are made. Like the junior high school students whose "Pedal for Peace" (Patrick, 1970,

pp. 63-68) was an informal bid for power, early adoles-
cents need to be aware of strategies for influence, that
is, several forms of political pressure: how to get the
attention of the person(s) having the swing vote in a
balanced group and how to form coalitions to get a
majority. Learning of the structure of a formal organiza-
tion and the flow of authority is standard classroom fare;
judging the application of the formal in the realities
of functioning is another matter. At the local level,
process must be understood, e.g., what is the source and
distribution of revenue, who makes the choice of leaders,
either appointed or elected? For early adolescents this
can be accomplished by selective trips into the community.
Preparation for these trips requires a concept of formal
power. For example, who determines policy for the schools,
land use, and contracts with the federal government?

By discussing current news and reviewing the con-
sistency of behavior of significant leaders, students can
be prepared to observe and make some judgments on the
actions and reactions of public bodies such as the school
board, the city council, the Council on Aging, and the
ever-powerful county commission.

The process of conflict resolution contributes to understanding the give and take of politics at work. Preparation for optimal experiences in visiting policy-making bodies in the community can be facilitated by use of simulations in the classroom. One of the potent tools made available to social studies teachers in the last fifteen years is simulations that involve youngsters in process. Simulations can be efficient vehicles for bridging the gap between concrete and abstract thinking; of considering a number of alternatives when making decisions. Having experienced success and failures in simulated conflict resolution, students can gain workable knowledge of negotiation, confrontation, and compromise. They can then be ready to observe the nuances of public utterances, the conflicting demands upon, and the complex behavior of public representatives.

Competence through identity: a sense of self. Guidance/ Counseling, a second component of the proposed model, is an educational intervention for encouraging a sense of self through deliberate and sequential experiences for the development of (a) ego strength and (b) moral reasoning. I have found that neither the Newmann nor the Mosher model dealt adequately with the matter of development of self for early adolescents. Both models were designed for high school

seniors, and one may assume that late adolescents have for the most part made the transition from the extreme self-centeredness of early adolescence to the more liberated position of being capable of engaging with the larger community.

Observers and scholars of the early adolescent stage of life recognize the crucial nature of the emerging self. The early adolescent appraises self in the mirror of contemporaries. The hazards of investment--suspension and risk, taking the leap to others to communicate, giving and receiving nurture as described by Hampden-Turner--are the daily fare of vulnerable early adolescents. As Mosher suggests, counseling is a vital part in the confirmation of self and in the productive extension of self to others. In this model the skills of the counselor are joined with the skills of the core teachers in a calculated effort to continuously develop personal confidence and competence in interactions for the students. In the fertile setting of small groups, techniques of self-appraisal and group dynamics are explored so that the early adolescent begins to recognize self in the light of feedback. Always there is the question of values. A neutral approach, such as that of Values Clarification, is only an initial step

to help youth in the urgent need of developing ethical
ideals and establishing a personal philosophy.

This model moves on to the testing of one's values
within the parameters of moral dilemmas. The step from
value-free analysis of behavior to personal commitment,
arrived at by way of moral reasoning, is crucial, often
taken with less hesitance by students than by teachers and
counselors. The give and take of discussing substantitive
matters, the dissonance of experiencing moral deliberation
with those at different stages of moral reasoning is the
generator of growth in moral reasoning.

Competence through effective communication. Closely
related to the guidance/counseling component (that may be
seen as an inner exploration of self in search of covenant
with others) is the third component of this proposed model.
Communication is an ongoing analysis of interaction illus-
trated by the model below from Newmann et al. (1977).
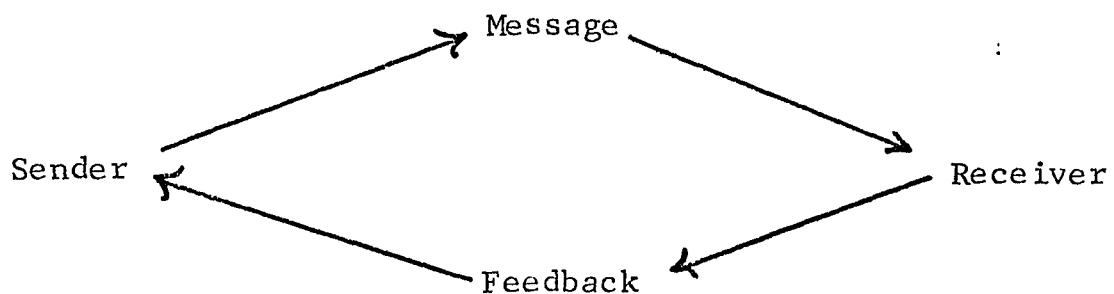
The effective communicator gives special attention to what is meant to be conveyed. Whether verbal or nonverbal, feedback from the receiver gives the sender some basis for appraising the effectiveness of the message. Habitual analysis of oneself as sender/receiver and of one's audience as receiver/sender is the price of communication competence. One must be aware of the variety and quality of perception and the emotional effect of certain words on specific receivers.

The ability to recognize fallacies in persuasion is essential; a study of propaganda indispensable. On the other side of the coin, accurate analysis of the receiver's perceptions and biases guides the sender in a judicious choice of words and examples in pressing a point.

In seeking the support of others, the effective communicator will be cognizant of the emotional as well as intellectual interests of the receiver and create messages, both verbal and nonverbal, to win feelings of identification and enthusiasm. Being persuasive taxes the skills of the communicator. Each dimension of advocacy involves active and analytical listening, a suspension and risk-taking to comprehend the viewpoint of the other, competence in speech and a host of techniques used by the media. The circularity of

the model suggests the dynamics of continuous modification
of output or a sensitive response based on perception of the
style and content of feedback. A sensitivity to special
clues in verbal and nonverbal communication can improve
one's perception of another's frame of reference.

There is a strong correlation between competence in
communicating and success in almost any endeavor. Perceived
civic competence is put to test when attempting to exert
influence. Civic competence is confirmed by the ability to
win support.

Early adolescents whose consciousness is expanding from
a safe and limited environment to a larger world of complex
demands have great need for the dual and interdependent
skills of communication; implicitly, the analysis of inter-
personal perceptions and explicitly, the development of an
enriched vocabulary to put to use in reading, writing, and
speaking. Early adolescents may often verbalize the legal-
political process of government before truly internalizing
the process. However, the overall goal of civic competence
is dependent on effective communication. The early adoles-
cent may well be content with a follower/maintenance role
while participating in civic affairs. The follower/main-
tenance role being a condition for community awareness, it

also is a preparatory phase for successfully exerting influence, a more appropriate role for late adolescence and adulthood. The mastery of basic communication skills and a developing confidence in interpersonal dialogue, as well as knowledge of and some facility in using techniques of public communication, are essential to the active citizen.

In this age visual media have become a rich form of communication. Pictures can project the essence of an experience and even states of being, providing almost total recall. Photography is a powerful tool, sending a message with accuracy not possible for the less articulate. Students moving from the classroom into the community to learn, to serve, and hopefully to eventually influence, may record those experiences on film. A slide-sound presentation can be a tangible outcome of the learnings of this model. A public message may be produced by the group, making use of the pictures taken of students working at various tasks within the community, and the personal journals, interviews, and a collective summary of significant experiences. Students participating in citizen action have the responsibility of sharing their work. The public should be informed of student activities within the community. The merit of those experiences may be judged by an audience that may be

one or all of the following: contemporaries, parents, groups of educators, school patrons, service agencies, or the community at large. To place before a variety of audiences a summary of projects undertaken with justification for choices tends to keep a group intellectually honest. The message makes them accountable to the public at large and also to the school community and to themselves. Moreover, the skills required to create a message for broad acceptance involve careful analysis of experiences and effective use of media, both of which are essential to advocacy. Civic competence is enhanced by assembling and interpreting information on social concerns for which students can, and have made, meaningful contributions. Editing film requires a focus on the aims growing out of policy deliberations. Preparation of the script demands a refinement of written language; the voices of students being taped must enunciate with precision. Even the choice of background music represents a dimension of nonverbal communication. The labor of a group in drawing upon a collective experience to share with a large audience necessitates a level of cooperation that lends itself to civic competence. The experience of sharing this collective message with a selected audience can give students an opportunity of judging whether the communication is on target.

Early adolescents for the most part are cognitively at the concrete stage of operations, which presents substantitive obstacles to dealing with the complexities of public issues. For example, the early adolescent most often views controversy in the community as interpersonal warfare; it isn't pleasant or "nice" to be involved in controversy. Furthermore, if one is caught up in conflict, compromise may be seen by the early adolescent as a surrender of integrity rather than a legitimate means of conflict resolution.

Developmentally, the early adolescent is just beginning to comprehend the tasks with which one must strive to attain the identity of a truly integrated being. A gratifying maturity is not attained by those fixated in egocentrism, who may mask the state by cynicism, but only by those whose willful encounters with others leads to synergy that is the basis for social responsibility. To the developing cognitive structure of the early adolescent as well as his affective growth, civic education as proposed by this model can be a potent medium.

Competence through involvement: action within the environment. A fourth component of the proposed model for early adolescents offers community action for students based on their concept of what needs to be done and their

competence in doing something about it. Youngsters typi-
cally lack the intellectual maturity and knowledge of
political processes to relate to and invest in controver-
sial social action projects. Leadership/change roles are
usually beyond the competence of early adolescents. How-
ever, work within existing community agencies may enhance
the concepts of formal and informal processes. Volunteer
service with community agencies may also promote an aware-
ness of community resources or lack of resources.

A critical point for intervention by the schools is
affirmed at this junction. Community as a geographic place
or community limited to the primary contacts of Gemeinschaft
is, in this decade, no longer adequate. A new perspective
and commitment to mutual concerns of an enlarged community
is imperative for twentieth century people. For early ado-
lescents, sense of community is nebulous, with fragmentation
the rule rather than the exception. In 1977, a common situ-
ation is that the emerging adolescent attends a large junior
high school whose students may come from such diverse resi-
dential areas as the inner city, the suburbs, and farm
country. Spending the greater part of the work day in the
milieu of such diversity, it is axiomatic that the early
adolescent experiences isolation, alienation, and confusion.

The criteria for community as defined by Oliver and Newmann (1972) are not easily comprehended by early adolescents. Oliver and Newmann say that a community is a group:

1. in which membership is valued as an end in itself, not merely as a means to other ends,

2. that concerns itself with many and significant aspects of lives of members,

3. that allows for competing factions,

4. whose members share commitment to common purpose and to procedures for conflict within the group,

5. whose members share responsibility for the actions of the group,

6. whose members have enduring and extensive personal contact with each other (p. 208).

The necessity for moving beyond the classroom into the laboratory of the larger community becomes evident as the idea of mutual concerns is explored. Most service agencies are continuously in need of funds and volunteers. Articulating this need to young people can often bring a positive response. The educator hopes for an appropriate investment that will enhance the civic competence of every individual in the group. Though service is laudable as ethically enriching, it is knowledge of resources and processes as well

as one's ability to have impact on the environment that makes this activity educationally justifiable. The choice of group investment is crucial. If each individual believes that his/her personal "agenda" is responded to by the group choice, then commitment to a common goal for wider community is possible.

Newmann's environmental competence translates into Almond and Yerba's "citizen competence" when the individual plays an influential role in the formation of general policy. At one extreme is the social action of The Children of Soweto leading and forcing their elders into confrontation with an intransigent ruling minority. In a stable democratic environment, early adolescents bear allegiance to the system (Hess and Torney, 1967) and are inclined to action supportive of that system.

With strengths of early adolescents being (a) a compulsion to be active and (b) to be competent, the role of significant adults is that of guidance toward alternatives that are feasible by way of time, distance, cost, and cooperating community agencies. Youth discovers the value of allying themselves with already functioning organizations within the community. Rarely would they form a separate and viable organization for community action. Acquaintance

with the resources of community agencies is no small thing,

and a new dimension of communication evolves from youth

working with leaders and clients of various community

agencies. Action in the selected project has different

meanings for different participants. The personal journal

can reflect one area of evaluation. Regular seminars may

allow for collective response, a second look at the choice,

and judgment on the validity of the investment. Responsible

involvement follows this pattern of Newmann's:
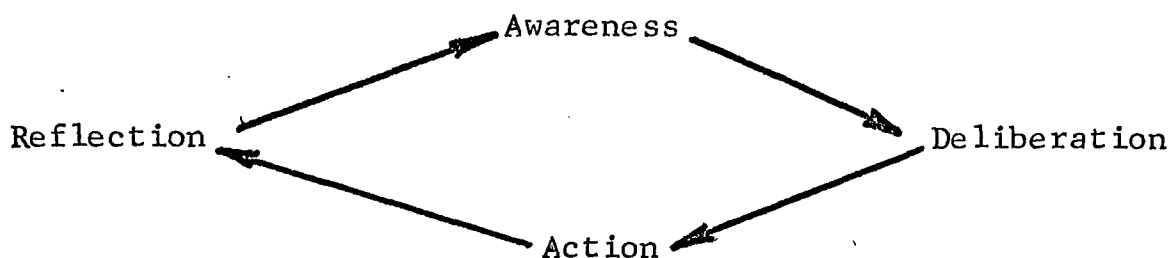
Growth can be visualized as a spiral of active and

sensitive educational experiences, each revolution elevating

the individual or group to a higher plane of civic

competence.

This component differs from that of Newmann and Mosher,

in that in accepting the limitations of early adolescents,

it also seeks to build on the strengths of that age. Con-

sidering the emerging adolescent's affinity for peer

approval and the gang phenomena, volunteer work is proposed

for small groups rather than for individuals. Youngsters

can be bouyed up by peer support to increased levels of

effort and competence. Often lacking at this stage of

development is the motivation to persist with a task in

isolation that may press the margins of one's competence.

The early adolescent with limited experiences may be amen-

able to group choice of volunteer service, because the

potential for satisfaction in community service is magnified

by collective action.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with a description and analysis

of three developmental models for personal growth and re-

sponsibility that have a strong bearing on a model for civic

education. The proposed model is an extension to the age of

early adolescence of the Newmann model for citizen action

education. As a result of Newmann's work with high school

students, he suggests an agenda for developing a curriculum

of active citizen education. His intent is that the model

can be applied to other settings and diverse groups of

adolescents to appraise the validity of the model.

My choice has been to apply the model to early adolescents. Limitations of the Newmann model lead me to borrow from the theories of Mosher and Hampden-Turner, whose reasoning has been strongly influential. Newmann acknowledges the need for resolving psycho-social concerns before becoming involved in attempts to influence public issues, but he has no adequate prescription for meeting that vital need.

I turned first to the sensitive and compelling model of Charles Hampden-Turner that routes the synergestic psycho-social growth of individuals through interaction. I found Mosher's curriculum in moral education for adolescents a working extension of that model, with practical ideas for implementation within the schools.

Civic competence is essential for integrated modern man. The Atlantic community, as defined in Chapter I, is dependent on political socialization that transmits to each generation (a) knowledge of the history of the development of democratic ideals in a civic culture, (b) favorable attitudes toward the system, and (c) the will to become involved in issues deemed significant by the individual. Traditional civic education has dealt with transmission of the culture academically. We are indebted to the

curriculum development and applied research of Fred Newmann in defining civic competence. Newmann has created an agenda for an active citizen education curriculum with broad application. I have been inspired by the brilliance and boldness of his agenda and have modified and built on it for early adolescents.

This proposed model focuses on community awareness, a searching into the realities of policy making of public matters at the local level. Conflict is not regarded as regrettable, but as an unavoidable reality and, in dealing with it, an opportunity for personal growth. Emphasis is given to the process of conflict resolution. This model relies on the process of developing self-esteem through honest and courageous investment of self with others as theorized by Hampden-Turner and practiced by Mosher. Communication is a vital link in developing personal and civic competence. The multidimensions of communication are prescribed and explored with early adolescents. Testing of environmental competence is accomplished by the pedagogical vehicle of volunteer community service. Feedback from community involvement provides the individual with a means for appraising his competence. Hopefully a more refined view of one's environment and heightened sense of personal competence will result from the investment.

CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

Rationale for the Model

This chapter relates two applications of the proposed model of active citizen education for early adolescents. A pilot study of eight weeks gave insight into the particular advantages and disadvantages in applying the model in a public school setting. This pilot study helped to form the basis of a larger, more developed "case study" based on the model. The model is developmental in approach, assuming that progression in meeting the cognitive, philosophic, and psycho-social demands of early adolescents is imperative to the development of personal competencies and political awareness, which in turn are essential to effective civic participation. The aim of this study is to determine the effectiveness of the proposed model in fostering a sense of personal and civic efficacy in early adolescents.

The pressing physical, intellectual, and emotional demands of early adolescence dictate a resolution to the

search for identity. The integrated and socially respon-
sible adult is not only aware of, but also a willing
participant in community life. If man inherently seeks to
have an effect on the environment, and I believe that he
does, then he needs the personal confidence and the civic
competence to interact effectively with his environment.
The sense of efficacy comes not from what is done to or for
a person, but what he does for himself/herself. Accordingly,
the proposed model represents four major components:

For the early adolescent, (1) Community Awareness is
facilitated by first hand observation of local agencies at
work in the community and by some comprehension of the
process of conflict resolution. Closely related to commu-
nity awareness is the component of (2) Communication.
Effective communication in citizen education evolves from
the traditional literacy skills and further embraces the
proficient use of visual and audio media. Over and above
the skills just mentioned are the more sophisticated skills
of analysis of persuasive techniques, both as receiver and
sender. The development of personal competence results from
a satisfying (3) Self-identity, satisfying because one's
identity is confirmed through interaction with others.
Analysis of motives (one's own and that of others) develops

judgment and the potential for being a moral agent. Finally, (4) Involvement in the life of one's community is the linkage of ought to is. Particularly for early adolescents, involvement is the trial of matching civic competencies with community needs.

Basically, the model assumes that an early adolescent needs to have appropriate experiences as part of a citizenship education that allows people to be active and effective. Early adolescents need to have special attention and a sense of personal competence. It was to assure that these young people develop skills and insights which provide a basis for later development that the model was conceived and that I chose to apply the spirit of the model in a pilot study, and later a case study in a junior high school.

It was my hope that my research would help clarify the following questions:

1. Do early adolescents feel that they have the competence to make meaningful contribution to community life? Do they feel they can influence the system? Do they have the tolerance to accept modified goals?

2. Do nurturing activities promote growth in moral reasoning and ego strength? Does contact between adults and students in community work reduce alienation?

3. What can communities do to encourage meaningful social and political participation on the part of youth? What is the relationship of public and private agencies and the school in developing citizen education? What relationship will develop between students and leaders of agencies, and the recipients of help?

4. How will students interpret informal channels of power in local agencies?

5. What is the role of the teacher--the curriculum coordinator--in linking the school with private and public agencies? Shall only students who volunteer for citizen course be included? How is the feasibility of social action project determined? By students or by student-teacher?

Choice of Site and Format

The choice of Ramsay Junior High School (Ramsay) for both the pilot and the case study was largely made because of the openness of the administration to curriculum inno-vations and the feasibility of working in my home school. The names of all people (the teacher, the counselor, the principal, students, observers, and older people receiving help from the students) and places (the school and hospital)

are fictitious. The educators contributing to this study have read this account, have affirmed its veracity, and have given their permission to describe their participation in the pilot and case studies. I have worked at Ramsay in several capacities over the last twelve years and have a genial relationship with the students, staff, and patrons of the school. The mutual trust built up over a span of time seemed likely to assure a casual acceptance of the intervention of the case study. The principal and I felt that there would be no apprehension about a modified curriculum and numerous off-campus activities of the pilot and case study. Ramsay is a junior high school giving favorable access to early adolescents, for whom the model was designed. The student populace is heterogeneous and integrated. The enrollment is approximately 900, near average for a metropolitan junior high school in North Carolina. The black and white students come from families of low to middle socio-economic status, from inner city, suburban, and rural residential areas. Ramsay has had an integrated staff and student body since 1965. It is my judgment that the setting lent itself to a typical middle school atmosphere for a case study. The school has experienced some stress due to busing and the reassignment

of students; however, at the time of the study the school
was going about its business with no unusual problems.

Arrangements at Ramsay were conducive to conditions
approaching the ideal for the study. A Language Arts-
Social Studies class of 24 eighth grade students presented
no disadvantages for scheduling small group counseling
sessions, large and small group simulation sessions, and
effective teams for volunteer service activities. The
class met for two periods a day, 8:00 to 9:54, five days
per week. The average intellectual ability of the group
was somewhat low, but except for some difficulty or reluc-
tance in analyzing techniques of propaganda, this slightly
limited academic ability presented no problems. The
teacher, Mr. Gordon, follows the curriculum recommended by
the school district, that is, American History from the
exploration of the New World up to and through the War
between the States. Mr. Gordon is a history major and
feels competent in the subject area. The switch from
American History to Active Citizen Education during the
case study posed no problems of insecurity for Mr. Gordon.
The focus on the developing individual gaining confidence
in communication, in dealing with community agencies and
elderly citizens in particular, was comfortably accommodated

by Mr. Gordon; he had made use of simulations in the past
and was at ease with that medium.

Mr. Holmes, the guidance counselor, whose counseling
style is intensive work with individuals and very small
groups, was interested in the guidance/counseling com-
ponent for the development of self-identity of the model.
He had not worked with an entire class or large group
enough in recent years to be totally comfortable initially
with his role in the study. The concepts of Transactional
Analysis appeared to him somewhat sophisticated for eighth
graders, even though the format for presentation to early
adolescents had been modified greatly by Phillips and
Cordell (1975). Nevertheless, Mr. Holmes faithfully pre-
pared and cautiously presented the essentials of Trans-
actional Analysis, whose theme and title was "Am I O.K.?"
With his concern for a thorough rather than casual presen-
tation of concepts of roles, strokes, interactions, and
interpretations, there rarely was time in the weekly
counseling sessions to allow for students to demonstrate
their understanding of T.A. by illustrating roles through
interactions. Ideally there would have been sufficient
time for small group interaction, the concept summarized
later, with the entire class observing the interpretations

of fellow students; but rarely was there time for adequate follow-up activities.

Several volunteer community service projects were submitted as alternatives to the class. Every student chose to participate in volunteer service. Fortunately, the project chosen by the majority of students, helping elderly people get houses and yards ready for summer, was feasible. Several students were interested in working at Hampton Hospital, being companions to elderly patients. This choice was not feasible for the case study, because the time students were available (8:00 to 9:45) was not compatible to the hospital schedule.

Lack of time to more fully explore each of the components of the model was the most limiting of factors. The students had a full schedule at school and could devote to the case study only one hour and forty-five minutes of each day. With a number of activities off campus, there was pressure to work quickly. This, in practice, may have been more advantageous than disadvantageous, as there was no temptation to loiter. It was frustrating to have to leave public meetings of community agencies early, when interest was high. However, a commitment had been made to keep the case study within the two-period Language Arts-

Social Studies class, and at no time was the class late for
other classes. Additional time would have allowed for more
interaction between students and the elderly people served.
As it was, students organized the work to be done, secured
tools for the tasks, and completing the work, returned
tools (some borrowed). Meantime, there was some inter-
action between students and the elderly people; yet time
did not allow for in-depth conversation.

In summary, for the brief span of time in which the
case study was applied in the spirit of the model, no
unusual nor unfortunate events occurred to impair the true
testing of the model in a "real" setting.

The Pilot Study: Project Explorer

Arrangements were made early in September of 1976 for
a pilot study at Ramsay Junior High School in a large
metropolitan system of North Carolina. The principal,
Mr. Harry Dane, knowing my familiarity with school policies,
routines, staff and patrons was warmly supportive of this
intervention. It was agreed that I could select from a '
group of volunteers 15-18 students who would meet with me
two periods every Friday for one semester to participate
in the pilot study of my proposed model for active citizen

education. The basis for selection was made on the following priorities: (a) desire of the students to participate, (b) recommendation of the student's teachers that he/she be released from class each Friday for 18 weeks, (c) approval of parents for the student to participate, and (d) my choice of those meeting the first three requirements.

My own strong feeling is that Ramsay is characterized by high student morale. A wide variety of extracurricular activities contributes to this morale. Among the most popular of extracurricular activities is Project Aries, a volunteer service organization whose focus is brotherhood. So popular is Project Aries (270 applicants for membership in a school of 900 students) that in 1976 membership had to be limited to 60, a workable group. To be fair, all names were placed in a lottery; 60 names were drawn.

I wanted to learn as rapidly as possible how early adolescents adapt to volunteer service in the community. Students desiring membership in Project Aries appeared to be attractive candidates for my pilot study. The guidance counselor, who sponsors Project Aries, made available to me the list of 210 disappointed students. To narrow this number to a workable 15-18 for the pilot study, I chose to make the offer only to eighth grade students. The students

were racially and academically integrated. My interest
was in choosing outgoing students with good attendance
records, for a once-a-week activity.

On September 10, I met with approximately 60 eighth
grade students and explained the purpose and schedule for
the pilot study. All of them accepted a tentative schedule
and parent consent form. Selection of a workable group
proved to be no problem. Some withdrew when the schedule
conflicted with Algebra, others were not recommended by
their teachers. Eighteen students were chosen and re-
mained with the group throughout the study. Most of the
students knew each other and were compatible. There were
3 white girls, 9 black girls, and 6 black boys. Academic
ability ranged from E.M.R. (educable mentally retarded) to
T.D. (talent development) students. What they had in
common was a spirit of reaching out to touch and enjoy
others.

Emphasis in the pilot study was given to community
awareness and volunteer service. I was confident that
developing the model components of guidance and communi-
cation would offer no unusual difficulty in the case study.
Coordinating the work of the students with various govern-
mental bodies and community agencies was an untried

challenge for me. I needed to learn how students would respond to the opportunity to enlarge their "sense of community"; also, I needed to know what community agencies could provide experiences for early adolescents that made maximum use of competencies already possessed and at the same time broadened their perspective of the formal and informal processes for delivering services in the community.

The group had the choice of several community service activities. The Sierra Club would sponsor and outfit the group for a litter survey. Both political parties welcomed early adolescents for clerical work at headquarters. Republicans offered the chance to go canvassing with candidates. The school's nature trail was in need of tree and shrub labeling. A neighboring elementary school offered the opportunity to tutor young children. A county hospital for the elderly encouraged students to be companions to patients. The local Council on Aging would supply names of elderly in need of house and garden winterizing. With one adult, and one bus, it was necessary to work as a group. As opportunities developed, a vote was taken. I did not attempt to influence the decisions. The group was small enough to discuss the merits of an activity and reach a consensus.

Of the seven off-campus activities chosen for the pilot study, one was a consciousness-raising activity (joining a politically oriented group in greeting Mrs. Walter Mondale for a press conference at the airport); two were service to the homes of elderly people to prepare house and yard for winter; two were work at Democratic Headquarters on a number of clerical tasks; and two were at Hampton Hospital to be companions to elderly patients.

Leaving campus for any reason is a lark to early adolescents. Spirits were always high as I drove them away on the bus. I had already prepared them for the task at hand--what was expected of them and how the task contributed to community life. There was no awkwardness in getting acquainted or hesitancy in settling who would do what task. With total time away from school limited to less than two hours, there simply was no time to deliberate.

The house and yard work trips were characterized by pairing of students for tasks; e.g., one raked leaves, one bagged leaves. I joined in the tasks: holding ladders for gutter cleaners, moving a hose, and gathering up leaf bags. Tasks were never assigned. Often there were not enough tools for everyone, so sharing was necessary with

some students using initiative for speeding up the completion of the job. All students knew how to use several tools. All jobs were completed on time. The students were courteous, conveying to the elderly their desire to do what needed to be done, and to do it in the manner expected. Mr. Hayden, a widower, and Mr. and Mrs. Sanders responded positively to the respectful demeanor of the students.

In October, before the general elections in November, the students chose to work at the Democratic Headquarters without a dissenting vote. Headquarters occupied one floor of an office building. The party staff was prepared with a number of clerical tasks for the students. It was a matter of: "you three come with me to sort mail; you four help me make lists from these telephone response cards; you four can clip news stories and editorials; and you four can stuff envelopes." The tasks were appropriate, really needed to be done, and were well executed. The party staff urged the students to return for a second time. It was arranged, a repeat performance with mutual good feeling. While working, the students met the Democratic candidate for U.S. Representative and also Mrs. Gladys Tillett, former Representative to the United Nations and

also former Democratic national committeewoman from North Carolina. These were lively encounters; as I observed, old heads in political parties are eager to project an enlightened image to potential voters, and early adolescents like to meet actors on the political stage and get a sense of the action.

I was apprehensive about the group's choice to go to Hampton Hospital. To work at house and yard tasks (at which students were competent) for the ambulant elderly required no great adaptation, in my opinion. However, to be companionable to the immobile and frequently speech-handicapped stroke victims at Hampton Hospital required other skills, attitudes, and great sensitivity. I viewed this venture as quite risky, but supported their decision by preparing them as best I knew for the experience.

Some students brought fruit, candy, games, and flowers for their new friends. The group was ushered into an attractive hobby room with a dozen elderly people sitting in wheelchairs in a circle. After a brief hush of smiles, the students moved into the circle and introduced themselves. Spontaneously it became a one-on-one social gathering. Some five students did not have a patient all to themselves. The hospital hostess offered the five a

chance to visit with bedridden patients. They accepted.
I later learned that the students decided to stay together,
introduce themselves, chat a bit, and offer to sing. It
was an appropriate choice. The elderly patients talked,
thanked the students for coming, and some joined the stu-
dents in singing. Back in the hobby room, students helped
with craft projects or joined in working intricate picture
puzzles, while others made small talk, and a few sat
quietly with persons unable to talk.

When we stepped out of the hospital, all 18 students
burst into animated nonstop talk. It is possible they
also had approached this service with some misgivings.
That it had gone well and that each could claim a budding
competence in communicating with and nurturing the elderly,
may account for the explosive exhuberance displayed on the
return trip to school. With no time to spare, on the bus,
the group had to decide on the next week's activity.
Quickly and unanimously the vote was to return to Hampton
Hospital. One student said that in a conversation with
the school secretary, he learned that Bingo parties were
popular with elderly patients. Perhaps, he suggested,
Bingo would be a good activity for next Friday. His idea
was accepted, and they decided to bring candy, fruit, and

puzzles for prizes. I agreed to contribute some quarters, which the school secretary said was a favored prize.

The Bingo party the following week at Hampton Hospital was successful. It was also our last time to meet except for evaluation. The return trip to school was, in comparison to the previous week, markedly somber.

In Newmann et al.'s Skills in Citizen Action (1977), a public message course is described. The course is an outgrowth of studies in curriculum development in the public schools of Madison, Wisconsin. I had read of the creation of a public message in a proposal Newmann wrote early in 1976 and determined to include that idea in my pilot study. Newmann proposed that students in an active citizen education course should demonstrate their competence in communicating to a large audience by making use of some media other than writing. With still and movie cameras and with audio recorders, the students were to document their activities. Then using the talents of the participants, they would write a script and produce a "Public Message" about their experiences. The message has two major functions: One is to have practice in documenting activities and synthesizing material for an articulate message, and the second function is to provide a way for

students to be accountable for the quality of the experience to the broader community. The message can give educators, parents, and the public the depth and magnitude of the experience from the students' eye view.

From the first meeting the students began taking pictures of activities with my 35MM camera. The processed slides were soon viewed with excitement. The quality of the slides varied from fair to excellent. It was well into the second semester before the slides could be edited and a script written for presentation. After several rehearsals the group recorded the audio. To convey the spirit of Project Explorer, it was felt that lively contemporary music should be included on the sound portion. Ramsay's Green Notes, a select brass and string group, provided the music. Some technical help from the Media Production Center was accepted for synchronizing the sound. The group was well pleased with their public message.

It was first shown to a combined group of parents and student leaders and was warmly received. Project Explorer students felt as if they had done well. The pictures were clear and bright, the camera telling more than the students might about their activities. The audience appeared to enjoy the simple and low-key narration, particularly

because it was done with the voices of the participants.
The up-beat sound of talented early adolescents lent
authenticity to the message. Later the students were at
liberty to show the public message of Project Explorer to
other students in their Language Arts and Social Studies
classrooms. All availed themselves of the privilege. One
may assume that the reasons for the enthusiastic acceptance
of this public message lie in its being a student pro-
duction. Technically it was what one might expect of
early adolescents. Some poor pictures and bad sounds were
used to illustrate how the students learned to use media.
The high spirits that characterized these weekly meetings
came through with verve.

All in all, the pilot study was an interesting and
exciting experience for me. My enthusiasm for the Friday
sessions matched that of the youngsters. They eagerly
accepted each new task and were not hesitant in giving
feedback. Because of this mutual input and involvement,
I gleaned the following:

1. Early adolescents could feel secure in working
with a peer group, and at least this group could attempt
tasks they might avoid if done in isolation.

2. Early adolescents are capable of making choices that involve some risk.

3. Early adolescents seem to like to test their competencies in community tasks.

4. Early adolescents appear eager to do work that needs to be done.

5. A number of community agencies have job opportunities for early adolescent volunteers, if a responsible school person coordinates the activity and provides transportation.

6. The coordinating educator's task is to establish trust through defining needs and expectations and by articulating the educational objectives of the project and the competencies of the student.

7. A community project that is satisfying to early adolescents creates excitement in a junior high school and a clamor for membership in the active citizen education group.

The overall positive realization of Project Explorer (a name the students chose) was possibly due to a number of factors. First, it was an all volunteer group, not randomly selected, but from a group desiring to be active in a student organization dedicated to Brotherhood.

Second, being a once-a-week activity, there was little chance of the work becoming hum-drum; the group met on Friday (T.G.I.F.), the last two periods of the day when early adolescents (and others) are eager to break away from routine. Third, the students were free to make a choice of service among several alternatives, and once on site were not assigned tasks by an overseer, but worked out assignments among themselves. Also the tasks were appropriate--no one failed. Fourth, it was a small group so that no one was excluded and a spirit of camaraderie developed. Fifth, as coordinator and at this time a full-time student, I had sufficient time to contact community agencies and to anticipate and eliminate difficulties that might develop between early adolescents and community agencies and their clients.

The Case Study

The purpose of the pilot study was to acquaint this researcher with the advantages and disadvantages of trying to develop a sense of community with a group of early adolescents with a minimum of formal instruction. Many of the activities were off campus. The students, having made a choice for community service, had to adapt quickly,

on site, to the demands of immediate tasks. The attitude of people in community agencies toward having a sizeable group of early adolescents perform volunteer service was an unknown. My hope was the the enthusiasm and good will of the pilot group would win over adults who might be expected to have some reservation about the feasibility of such a group to render real service.

The pilot study encouraged me in the notion I had that outgoing early adolescents could give a commendable account of themselves serving in the community. My next concern was for expanding and elaborating community awareness for an average class. The study came within the limits of a heterogeneous group on a regular schedule in a traditional junior high school. The study involved regular staff people meeting the usual demands of the job. Activities included both off-campus work with community agencies and also the more conventional academic tasks of writing, discussing, and role playing in community conflicts. The daily schedule of the study allowed for preparation, action, and reflection.

The application of a theoretical model in the setting of a public school is an exciting venture. It can also be frustrating because even with the best of conditions

(trust and support of researcher/host school), the
inexorable demands of conflicting interests within a
school limit the researcher in the rigorous application
of the model. Any intervention into the structured en-
vironment of a large junior high school requires flexi-
bility and tact. A day-to-day account of the unfolding
of the model in action is tempting, but would be tedious
and perhaps fragmentary to the reader. For that reason,
a week-by-week description is given with elaboration of
each week's central theme--not that there was a clear-cut
focus on theme logically followed by another theme.
Hopefully this account will weave together the salient
elements into an integrated description of the study.

Assessment

Assessment of the case study was made by diverse
measures, some formal, but mostly informal. The chrono-
logical accounts of the pilot and case study came from my
own journal. Pencil and paper inventories were given to
assess: the students' perception of their emerging civic
competence; self-appraisal as mirrored by peers, family,
and school achievement; the students' attitude toward
older people; and a number of brief inventories that might

be categorized as reflecting the early adolescents' per-
ception of diverse elements of the civic culture. The
students also evaluated the activities of the course from
a written questionnaire.

The student journals, in which entries were made
almost daily, were graciously given to me and have been
utilized in informing me about the questions raised for
this study. Observations were made by two teachers of
Ramsay Junior High School, who were kind enough to visit
the class and to summarize their impressions.

Then at the conclusion of the study, the students were
interviewed. Their reflections on significant activities
and perceptions were audio-taped and have been utilized
in answering the questions of the study.

Results

My journal: a weekly analysis. Entries in my own
journal were made each day of the study, which began on
3-30-77 and concluded on 5-27-77, for a total of 73 pages.
All activities were recorded as well as my reasons for
choosing the activities and my commitment to and reserva-
tions about activities designed to encourage self-insight
and self-esteem. I also recorded my interpretations of

the input of the cooperating teacher and guidance coun-

selor. The greater value of my own journal lies mostly in

my observations of the students' responses to the pace and

scope of the study. The advisor to this study read my

journal and commented on the degree of sensitivity of this

observer to the students--their behavior and motivation.

The case study was done at Ramsay Junior High School

in the late spring of 1977. The principal, Mr. Harry Dane,

approved the plan of applying the proposed model with an

eighth grade core class that met first and second period.

The teacher, Mr. Lawrence Gordon, agreed to cooperate in

the study. It was determined to begin the study the week

after Easter holiday, so that there would be no interrup-

tion while the study was in progress. Mr. Daniel Holmes,

guidance counselor, agreed to contribute to the case study.

Most of his counseling is with individuals and small groups,

but he was interested in getting back into the classroom

on a regular basis. Mr. Holmes was familiar with the focus

of the study and expressed the hope that the material

chosen for the weekly sessions would be appropriate for

early adolescents and contribute to a better concept of

interaction and self-esteem.

A tentative schedule was submitted to the principal, the cooperating teacher, and the counselor at Ramsay. Since the focus of the study was <u>active</u> citizen education, a number of field trips were planned and received approval. The group would have the use of Ramsay's activity bus for the trips, and I would drive.

A letter went to the parents of the students outlining the purpose of the study, listing the field trips to be taken, and giving an explanation of the guidance/counseling component. A tentative questionnaire for parents also was sent. I hoped that at the conclusion of the study a response would return from each of the student's families. The consent forms were returned promptly, which led me to hope that parents would take an active interest in their child's participation in the Active Citizen Education study. I even hoped that parents might have suggestions for community service that had not occurred to me. There were 24 students in Mr. Gordon's class: 14 black and 10 white; 9 black boys, 5 black girls, 4 white boys, and 6 white girls. A list of the occupations of the students' parents or guardians is in Appendix F. One parent is a teacher, one owns a hardware store, one is a sales representative. Truck drivers were the predominant

occupational group, with the balance being factory and construction workers. Intelligence quotients were available for only thirteen of the participants. The highest I.Q. was 116; the lowest 75, with an average of 91. Students received a grade for Language Arts and a separate grade for Social Studies. A summary of the fall semester grades (1976) reveals: 8 A's, 12 B's, 9 C's, 12 D's, and 2 F's. The relationships among the group could be characterized as indifferent. The group of twenty-four had been together since August of 1976. In April of 1977 when the case study began, not everyone knew the name of every person in the group.

The classroom was large, well lighted, and attractively decorated with pictures, posters, and exhibits relating to the study of pre-Civil War American History. The desks were arranged in straight rows. A lectern stood in front of the chalkboard.

Mr. Gordon introduced me to the class on March 30. I explained the nature of the study--community awareness and involvement, self-identity and communication--to a very reserved group of students. They asked no questions, nor did they object to a change in class routine and subject. There was some response to the explanation of photography

as a communication skill. The volunteer service component was explained. There would be several choices; work would be done in groups, and all work was voluntary. Parents' consent was necessary for participation in all off-campus work. All students took a consent form for their parents.

WEEK ONE: ORIENTATION. The study began on Monday, April 12. To give students an idea of what might be expected of the study, the public message of Project Explorer was shown. The initial response to me and my study had been guarded. Hopefully this lively account of what other Ramsay students had experienced in a similar study would thaw their reserve. It did. Their introduction to the 35MM camera and taking pictures of each other further melted away their caution. Viewing some friends (in Project Explorer) carrying through on volunteer community service made that part of the study real and non-threatening. The students began to talk among themselves about what they would like to do in the community.

Transactional Analysis (T.A.) of the guidance/counseling component was introduced to the group on report card day. The disappointment and anger of some students for grades they considered unfair was met with a brusque response by the teacher. It was not the most propitious

time for the counselor to begin a discourse on "Am I O.K.?"

Speaking of the desirability of openness and trust and

the acceptability of making mistakes, and insisting

that all of us possess the potential for being O.K., the

counselor's discourse was met with silence by the students.

His introduction of the metaphor "stroke" (the need of

infants for a physical touching to bring comfort and to

build ego) for portraying the functions of small talk

elicited some response; students practiced exchanging a

few strokes.

The academic game of Propaganda was introduced to the

entire group. Three examples of faulty reasoning were

illustrated: that of prejudice, rationalization, and wish-

ful thinking. Reinforcement of these concepts proceeded

with an example posed and the students displaying a selec-

tion on a response card to indicate an identification of

the technique of the propaganda being used. The tech-

niques were within the comprehension of the students.

Responses were swift, accurate, and given with some en-

thusiasm. Students were able to give examples of their

own to illustrate faulty reasoning.

Since the thrust of the study was to be the develop-

ment of civic competence through responsible action within

the community, the idea of community was explored. Newmann
and Oliver's (1972) concept of community was discussed.
Feedback for me came from the_r first journal entry. From
the Newmann-Oliver definition of community, some students
stressed the mutual concerns and responsibilities of people
in a community. However, community to these early adoles-
cents was defined more by concrete geographic limits than
by more abstract shared concerns.

For my own orientation to the group, I asked them to
respond to "I Value," a checklist of virtues and states
of being that reflect the good life. This was the be-
ginning of a number of inventories administered to this
group. To my good fortune, the students expressed no
reserve about responding. They took their time and ap-
peared to consider all questions seriously. The same
cannot be said for picture taking or viewing. Instead,
clowning and mischievousness characterized photographic
activities.

WEEK TWO: A SENSE OF COMMUNITY. Events within the
larger community this week worked to the advantage of the
study; a municipal election on Tuesday would determine
whether city council should continue to be elected at large
or by a compromise of electing four councilmen at large

and seven others from districts. Community interest ran high, and the students were caught up in it, with some factions pointing to the injustice of having all current councilmen from the Southeast quadrant of the city. Other factions reminded the electorate of the evils of ward politics. The outcome of that election was interesting. The compromise plan for electing councilmen won by a spare 80 votes among 26,000 votes cast. It was a rare opportunity to do some chalkboard arithmetic to show the importance of every person's vote when the margin of victory was so narrow. This concrete example was later recalled while the simulation Minority Power was underway. The right to vote could be perceived as treasured; youngsters could see that single votes are precious.

A field trip was taken to survey the downtown section of the city from the viewpoint of a newcomer needing the essentials of food, shelter, communication, protection, worship, companionship, and entertainment. The guide for the survey is in Appendix C. It was a swiftly moving assignment. Journal entries indicated that the students thoroughly enjoyed the experience and came away with new perceptions of the metropolitan core.

The Propaganda game continued with slightly more difficult concepts being used. The counseling session focused on the giving and receiving of strokes. In small groups, students were able to verbalize their ideas of discounting strokes and to consider the handicap of being unable to accept positive strokes. The effectiveness of body language was explored in small groups to the amusement of many students.

With several alternatives to choose from, this group decided that working for elderly people through Mecklenburg Council for the Aging was their preference. In anticipation of the volunteer service to the elderly, an inventory of attitudes toward the elderly was given. An examination of the responses revealed that the students' attitudes were in general very positive. A summary of the inventory is in Appendix B, followed by sketches the students drew depicting themselves at the age of seventy. Whether projections originate from firsthand knowledge of the aging, or their concept of an eternally youthful self, the sketches are diverse. The group had talked about increasing longevity in our society, that barring accident, they would live to be seventy. They seemed embarrassed when given the assignment to do the sketch, but once begun,

they worked solemnly for a long while to complete the
sketches.

WEEK THREE: EXTENDING SENSITIVITY. This week's
counseling session grew out of a parable, told by Mr.
Holmes, of the "Fuzzies," i.e., experiences that make one
warm on the inside. In small groups they talked about
establishing closer relationships with others. For a
group of twenty-four that did not know each others' names two
weeks earlier, the students showed interest and apprecia-
tion for the opportunity of working in small groups. It
was as if they had an urgency for bridging the gap between
a lonely self and others. Their journal entries re-
flected their desire for friendship--a girl friend, a boy
friend. Nonverbal communication seemed to amuse these
students. Their competence came to fore, and they were
pleased. Mr. Holmes explored the phenomena of the need
for negative strokes. The students acknowledged that
there are people who possess this perverse quality. They
suggested that such a person disturbs a class, "acts
cute," or embarrasses others in order to get attention.
Only a few felt that such behavior veils anger and lone-
liness. When confronted with the task of making a positive
stroke "stick" with a person habitually begging negative

strokes, most felt it was nearly impossible to make a humorous or sincere statement that would stick.

The first trip to do volunteer service was delayed until some staff members of Council on Aging could call on the old person(s), establish needs, and get approval for the youngsters to come. The students and I discussed the pride of older people, concluding that one must be tactful in offering services to avoid offending, and that pride and integrity must be preserved.

Even with the tools the students brought from home and those of the school, there were not enough for the tasks of the first volunteer service trip. Mr. Gordon took half of the group to work at Mrs. Allison's, and the other students went with me to work for Mrs. Cannon. Mrs. Allison's yard was in need of cutting; Mrs. Cannon's was neat as a pin. With the students having so little time, there was no standing on ceremony. Once the lady said what she wanted done, everyone went to work. The tasks were well done. The students were critics, pointing out a streak on a window, a stray head of grass or leaves in a corner of a gutter. My journal reports: "In less than an hour the grass was cut (front and back), the hedge was trimmed, the gutters swept and flushed clean, and all windows washed on the outside."

Mr. Gordon's group had trouble with a mower that would not keep running. They left a narrow strip of grass uncut, as time ran out. (It was the only job the group ever failed to finish.)

The entire class returned to school in high spirits. The elderly beneficiaries had expressed sincere appreciation for the service rendered. There had been good-natured banter among them as they worked. They said they were eager for the next service trip. Only one student, who said that he couldn't see that anything needed to be done, registered a negative response in his journal. (It is possible that his own home is not as well kept as that of Mrs. Cannon.) Mrs. Cannon was hobbling around because of a fall from her porch into shrubbery. The students saw that to keep her home immaculate was more than she was physically able to do. They could only speculate on her resources and how she might feel to see her home unkempt.

WEEK FOUR: COMMUNITY AWARENESS. The week began with a trip to the city's Government Plaza to attend a meeting of the County Commission. The students had reviewed the agenda and were interested in a proposal for free ambulance service for the elderly. Some students had heard of the more colorful commissioners, whose verbal skirmishes were

often reported in the newspapers and sometimes televised.

Some students met the chairperson of the commission. One

boy knew the first elected black commissioner and greeted

him. It was a lively meeting. The first business, the

increased cost of renting baseball diamonds, stirred a

donnybrook. The necessity of the commission's attorney

serving the dual role of parlimentarian and attorney was

obvious. The youngsters had to leave with most of the

agenda yet to be acted upon; but they had had a glimpse of

citizen petitions, of service agencies supporting claims,

and of elected representatives in open conflict and its

effect on the press. The drama appealed to them. On the

return trip to school they responded to an inventory of

their perception of the county commissioners (Appendix B).

Their journals revealed a keen awareness of the experience;

they picked up on several exchanges that I had missed.

All strongly expressed a desire to attend another county

commission meeting.

Incinerator was chosen as the first simulation for the

group because of its simplicity. Students assumed the

roles of adults in a small town who must make a choice for

locating a municipal incinerator. With place of residence,

business, and preferred recreation scattered throughout

the village, there was no perfect place to locate the incinerator. The purpose of the simulation is to teach the process of negotiation and compromise in conflict resolution. Participation was enthusiastic. To my delight, at the town meeting, after a number of alternatives had been considered and rejected, one girl suggested that the town buy an electrostatic precipitator, which, though costing more than an incinerator and requiring a bond election, would give more flexibility in locating the facility. Her idea was adopted.

Later in the week another simulation, Minority Power, was begun. In this simulation the students took roles in voting blocks to decide on a number of issues that large cities must consider from time to time. Several days were spent to allow small groups to determine their strategy for negotiation with other voting blocks. This work pressed the limits of early adolescents to relate to conflicting interests in a larger community. Small group work over an extended time did allow for usually reticent students to become involved in mapping strategy.

The counseling session introduced the ego states of child, parent, and adult. The students were detached. Mr. Holmes, who is an intense, serious figure at Ramsay,

stepped out of character to illustrate the child-ego state by taking a water pistol from a boy and threatening to shoot him. It was a playful demonstration with strong impact. The students had never seen this side of Mr. Holmes. The idea dawned that within all of us there is the potential for the impulsive child, the admonishing parent, and the rational, but caring, adult. The students were able to project dialogues of their own to illustrate these ego states.

Volunteer service this week was for a widow who keeps small children and a couple, the husband terminally ill. The weather was fine, and it was a repeat performance; jobs were completed on time and in good spirits.

WEEK FIVE: ACTION. Participation in Minority Power extended into this week. The students felt competitive about the issues; they wanted to win. The small groups continued to seek clarification of the issues and help in anticipating the stance of other voting blocks. A quote from my journal brings up the question of neutrality in simulations whose focus is is rather than ought. "The ugly side of special interest politics surfaced in selecting areas for urban renewal and for a garbage dump." Calculation of the voting power of groups, particularly

minorities, entered into the strategy. Yet the moral question, "might is right?," did not arise among the students. Excitement was evident on voting day; small groups watched for the swing vote and tallied the results. When the simulation was finished, I compared the results with those of an accelerated group of eighth graders that had participated in the same simulation two years previously. The results were remarkably alike. Powerful voting blocks won on most issues; some minority blocks won on their top priority issue. It had taken Mr. Gordon's class several hours longer to complete the task, but their conclusions were almost identical to those of the accelerated group. One wonders: Is time a critical factor in the achievement of average/low-average students?

Debriefing the following day was disappointing. Students had maintained interest and given good effort over a period of days. They did not, however, want to reflect upon the motivations of voting groups or upon what might have been. Their concept of dominant interests of voting blocks was nebulous. It required "suspending one's own cognitive structure to gain the perspective of another," as explained in the Hampden-Turner model of psycho-social development.

The entire group went to the home of Mrs. Johnson to help. She said that she had work for everyone. Her back yard, as described by one student, was a jungle, waist-high in weeds. The only problem was a shortage of tools. Much needed to be done; the working pace was feverish. Mrs. Johnson was a frail, witty little woman whose home was poor in comparison to other places students had helped. The student journals revealed a greater satisfaction in helping Mrs. Johnson than other volunteer service. This seems to confirm my idea that early adolescents seek and derive satisfaction from a nurturing role.

WEEK SIX: ANALYSIS. A second visit to the meeting of the County Commission provided continued drama. The baseball diamond issue had not been settled. A parade of adversaries put pressure on the commission. If baseball for youth was to get underway for the current season, additional money would have to come from some source. The students could see the pressure that legitimate groups put on the County Commission. The power and responsibility of the local group controlling the purse strings was evident. The students' response to this experience was strong, going beyond perception of individuals to a perception of political realities.

Another simulation, Curfew, was employed this week. The scenario is that a noisy celebration of a basketball victory results in students being arrested on an antiquated curfew law. The purpose of the simulation is to develop strategies for social action. Interest was high because the students had adolescent roles and an issue easily comprehended. Many communication skills were drawn upon to advocate the cause of youth. The sequence of strategies proceeded from: (a) letters to the mayor, to (b) petitions, to (c) telephoning a radio talk show, to (d) appearing before the City Council. Students were encouraged to choose any or all tactics. The vigor and calculated judgment students brought to this simulation confirmed their internalization of concepts emphasized in this study. The tone of many letters to the mayor was adult. The appeal was to a broad concept of justice, rather than an accusation of abuse of young people. The statements for petitions also were stated in terms the students felt would be acceptable to rational adults. A number of students took part in the talk show phase. It was at the meeting of the city council that the students revealed their perception of persuasion as observed in the County Commission meeting. A number of appeals for

revoking the curfew law were made with dignity. One boy dared a clash of wits with an ultra-conservative councilman. This was, of course, a nonproductive tactic, but he had seen and heard the conflict and sarcasm of the county commission in session, and he was inclined to give it a try.

This was to have been the last week of the study, and a trip to the state capitol, Raleigh, N. C., had been planned. The group hoped to sit in on a committee meeting and see the legislature in session. Unfortunately, not enough students had the money to warrant chartering a bus. Some students were very disappointed. Their first reaction was to circulate a petition among the group, addressed to the principal, demanding a trip to Carowinds or a movie. The principal, however, was away. The next day the group worked on Ramsay's nature trail, and Mr. Gordon and I surprised them with a picnic. They were pleased.

WEEK SEVEN: REFLECTION AND EVALUATION. During the six weeks the study was in progress, several school events had preempted plans for the day. Mr. Dane, the principal, and Mr. Gordon, the teacher, graciously consented to granting an additional week to conclude the study. The students were not displeased.

All of the group viewed the many slides taken of class activities. A small group began editing the slides. Another group arranged to record background music for the public message. Selections were made from journals and were taped with student voices. An outline was made for the script, and students made colorful captions for introducing each significant activity. One student photographed these at the media center.

Mr. Holmes concluded Transactional Analysis with reflections on the essence of the adult ego state. Summing up the theme of "I'm O.K.--You're O.K.," it was emphasized that one must respect oneself and accept others to deal responsibly with, and to influence, fellow citizens.

On a morning threatening rain, the group gave service to two very elderly couples. Though these people were very frail, their homes were neat. The rain held off, and the work was cheerfully completed. Reluctantly the tools were taken home. In interviews with individual students, the satisfaction in helping older people was a repeating theme.

Discussions of moral dilemmas had been included in the study. "The Football Game," one of a series in Values in a Democracy (1976), initiated the group to moral

reasoning. The question for this exercise was, "Why did you obey the police who demanded that all leave the stadium after a post-game brawl?" Most of the students reasoned at the conventional level--the support of the social system.

CRITICAL EVENTS. Two events occurred during the study that presented stress and awkwardness. On the first field trip to survey the heart of the city, the class was to divide in two groups, one going with Mr. Gordon and one with me. When we left the bus, all students joined me. I was embarrassed, and Mr. Gordon was angry. He threatened to take them all back to school. The students hesitated. I reminded them that for the activities planned for this study, there would be no permanent grouping. There would be groups of four to twelve, dependent on the activity; grouping must be accomplished swiftly; and responsible behavior on their part would make it possible to partici-pate in a number of different activities. The group split. It was the only time this group had to be corrected during the study.

Not going to Raleigh was a major disappointment to some students. Because the group had worked well together and had a sense of belonging, Mr. Gordon and I wanted to

take just this group to Raleigh. Chartering a bus for only 24 students is costly, but not prohibitively so. When several students said they could not go, Mr. Gordon offered the trip to another class of his; not enough accepted. It was late in the year ; no school P.T.A. funds were available. Not having money for a major field trip planned well in advance is rare at Ramsay, and had I anticipated this problem, I would have made an appeal to service clubs to aid in this project.

PROBLEMS. No major problems handicapped this study. However, within a large junior high school there is a momentum that defies alteration. During the late spring a number of whole-school events made demands of the class. At other times numbers of students were obligated to miss class for such things as band trips, chorus rehearsals, and the distribution of annuals. On one day late in the study, numbers of students were unexplainably preoccupied. It was learned that on the previous day the science teacher had given a punitive assignment. The inattentive students were forced to use any class time to meet the obligation to the science teacher.

There were some conflicts in the bus calendar, and one morning students were already on the bus when it was

discovered that the bus wouldn't start because the battery had been stolen.

The only consistent problem was the matter of time. Many activities were planned to apply the model. To delete or shorten a single plan was hardly acceptable to me. I recognize this quality as a weakness of mine. Once a goal is set, it is very difficult for me to tamper with it; I become visibly distressed. One student pointed out this deficiency of mine with unusual clarity. After class, he referred to my bringing to a rather abrupt close a discussion of a moral dilemma. The students had been hesitant in responding. It appeared to me that the issue was an abstraction that would require a substantial amount of time to clarify. time not readily available. The hour was late--and also the date. My disappointment in not bringing the discussion to fruition was apparent. The educator is often caught in the crux of time versus comprehension, and often the inexorable demands of an inflexible schedule leave no latitude in making a judgment. This boy said, "You misunderstood us; we wanted to respond, but we are slow, and you forget that we are slow. You expect us to move faster than we can." It was constructive criticism never to be forgotten.

The case study was done to gain insight into the questions as they emerged out of the rationale described in Chapters I and III. The developmental model gave attention to the cognitive, philosophic, and psycho-social needs of early adolescents, prerequisite to the achievement of personal and civic competence. The components of the model (communication, community awareness, self-identity, and involvement) made heavy demands on the limited time of the study. A heterogeneous group of students in a public junior high school adapted well to a swiftly paced, yet integrated series of experiences that moved in and out of the classroom. In the community, the students took stock of physical changes of center city development and ever growing belt roads. Awareness of decision-making agencies came from simulations in the classroom and on-site visits. Communication involved an analysis of receiving and sending. Class discussions and simulation participation allowed for peer interaction, while keeping a journal gave an opportunity for more personal reflection. Interwoven into the previously mentioned components was a systematic approach to gaining self-identity. Analysis of motives, and of the meaning of interaction among peers and between generations, served to foster a sense of order and personal competence.

Finally, involvement in concrete experiences in the community gave a frame of reference for the continuing search for satisfaction as a social being.

Given the nature of the case study, I relied on a number of techniques--some formal, other informal--for informing the study.

Pencil and paper inquiries.

1. THE STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF CIVIC COMPETENCE. The Student's Perception of Civic Competence is an instrument of my own design for getting a pre/post index on several dimensions of civic attitude and competence as comprehended by early adolescents. Some items were designed to reflect civic competence in general, while others were meant to appraise motivation for involvement in public affairs, competence in relation to the attitude of adults, and civic attitude and awareness of the realities of local politics.

The students were asked to respond with one of the following: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - neutral, 4 - agree, and 5 - strongly agree. The 17-item inventory was completed by 19 students.

To assure the most accurate response possible, I explained the purpose of the inventory and then read each of the statements to the class for both the pre and post inventory. A copy of this and all other inventories used in the case study are included in Appendix A.

The results of this inventory can be seen in Table 1. A 't' test for means was used for each of the dimensions of the test. For <u>Competence in the Community</u> $t = 4.3$ or $p < = .01$, <u>Persistence Toward Goals</u> $t = 2.6$ or $p < = .01$. The statements about <u>Inclincation to Participate</u> were negatively stated, resulting in $t = .475$, not significant. The dimension of Working Relationships with adults yielded $t = 3.3$ or $p < = .01$, and for <u>Community Awareness</u> $t = 4.8$ or $p < = .01$. A confidence level of 1% on the four positively stated dimensions and a result of no significance for negative ideas about participation would appear to support the thesis that the model of active participation in civic affairs tends to increase the individual's sense of civic competence.

Table 1

Student's Perception of Civic Competence

Number 19		Mean	S.D.	S.E.	r		
1. Competence in the Community Items 1, 2, 5, 14, 17	pre post	9.16 10.95	2.58 1.99	.61 .47	.731	t = 4.30	p < = .01
2. Persistence Toward Goals Items 3, 6	pre post	3.42 4.21	1.04 1.40	.25 .33	.481	t = 2.61	p < = .01
3. Working Relationships with Adults Items 7, 8, 9	pre post	3.95 4.84	1.10 1.42	.26 .34	.600	t = 3.25	p < = .01
4. Community Awareness Items 10, 11, 15, 16	pre post	8.16 9.84	1.87 1.23	.44 .29	.608	t = 4.79	p < = .01
5. Inclination to Participate (Negative) Items 4, 12, 13	pre post	3.63 3.42	1.49 1.46	.35 .34	.191	t - .475 not significant	

It came as a surprise to me that in the short span (seven weeks) of the study the responses of the students were less mixed; that, indeed, the direction, for the most part, was one way, and that was positive. The greatest changes pre/post, were in the students' perception of personal and civic competence and their volition to persist toward goals. Positive attitude toward working with adults also increased. A more realistic concept of the distribution of power in local government and the advantage of allying oneself with an organized group in order to influence governing bodies seems to emerge.

The least changes in opinion in this inventory were seen in (item 5) the expectation to be influential in one's neighborhood and city; it was relatively high on the pre and remained much the same for the post. Confidence in the democratic process at the local level was firm at the beginning of the study and remained so at the conclusion.

Some of the data, that of an increased sense of competence (of doing something that makes a difference in the community, item 1), yet being less inclined to desire influence in community affairs (item 12), appear to be conflicting. My interpretation is that the students' experiences in serving the elderly gave them the sense of

making a difference in the community, taking the role of a benevolent supporter; but <u>influence</u> may have a strong, more hazardous and even negative connotation to early adolescents. If influence in community affairs did mean participating as a contender, a combatant, a persuader, to these students, then it appears they were rejecting a role involving this kind of risk.

2. THE SELF-APPRAISAL INVENTORY. The Self-Appraisal Inventory, Secondary Level, from <u>Measures of Self-Concept</u> by the Instructional Objectives Exchange, is a self-report device that attempts to secure a student's response to three aspects of the self-concept. It is a measure of 62 statements to which students were asked to indicate one of the following responses: strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree. Of the dimensions, all are arenas in which one's concept is being formed, that is, concept of self in relation to family, peers, and scholastic achievement. This inventory was given pre and post. The students were advised that there were no right or wrong answers; that it was a measure of how they felt about themselves; and that they would be responding to the same statements at the end of the study. I read the statements to the students both pre and post, and it was

completed in approximately 20 minutes. Scoring from the guide supplied by Instructional Objectives Exchange assigned 4 points for the most favorable to 1, the least favorable.

The results of this test (Table 2) are inconclusive. The individual's perception of self to family and to the ability to succeed in school appears to have increased as a result of participating in a curriculum of active citizen education as evidenced by the 't' test for means used for this inventory, $t = 2.16$ or $p < .05$ for Family approval and $t = 2.05$ or $p < .05$ for School Achievement. Nevertheless, the composite result of $t = 1.73$ or $p < .10$ somewhat limits confidence in the effectiveness of the model for increasing self-concept.

I found the data and results of this inventory puzzling and disappointing, particularly the responses concerning peer approval. The initial indifference the students seemed to feel toward each other (not knowing each other's names after six months together in a class of 24), which changed to enthusiastic group discussions and team effort while rendering service, made me think that a significant change in perception of self in relation to peers would occur. It did not, according to the data in Table 2.

Table 2

Self-Appraisal Inventory

Number 20		Mean	S.D.	S.E.	Correlation r	
1. Peer Approval	pre	42.35	4.65	1.07	.396	t = .160
	post	42.55	5.22	1.20		not significant
2. Family Approval	pre	39.75	3.13	.72		t = 2.16
	post	41.45	4.85	1.11	.712	p < = .05
3. School Achievement	pre	35.75	4.00	.92	.611	t = 2.05
	post	37.25	2.81	.64		p < = .05
4. Composite	pre	117.85	9.86	2.26	.743	t = 1.73
	post	120.75	10.40	2.39		p < = .10

That self-appraisal should increase in relation to one's family also puzzled me. Parents were prompt in giving consent for their student to participate in the case study, but only three (all positive) bothered to respond to a questionnaire about their observation of the effect of the study on their student's behavior. If the students did discuss at home their increased awareness of community affairs and their involvement in an action project, conceivably this could have had some effect on a greater sense of family approval, yet this can only be conjecture.

The increase in self-appraisal as it relates to school achievement is not surprising to me. The expectations of a team of teachers and a counselor for this study were different from traditional classroom tasks, but not beyond the competence of any individual in the group of students. Careful observation and keen analysis of human interaction, as well as reflecting on one's part in activities, an important part of the study, served to demonstrate to the youngsters a competence that educators found worthy of recognition.

The circumstances of the post testing may be worth noting. It was given on the last day of the study. My journal reads:

> With very little time left, the students responded
> to questions about the dilemma (Kohlberg's dilemma
> of Heinz). Then--in a great hurry--we did the post
> test for self-appraisal. Books had been in evidence
> during the entire morning. They were a bit tired and
> were eager to read. With great reluctance, I gathered
> up the papers to leave.

It appears that this was an emotionally low moment for the students and for myself.

Inventories 3 through 7 attempt to measure the civic attitudes of the early adolescents of this study; all are brief, and none contain more than 14 items. I was guided in the preparation and administration of these inventories by a monograph, The Measurement of Children's Civic Attitudes in Different Nations, prepared by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (Oppenheim and Torney, 1974).

3. STUDENT PERCEPTION OF REPRESENTATIVES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT. This inventory deals with what Almond and Yerba call "output affect," or the expectations people have of treatment at the hands of elected officials. This 12-item inventory endeavors to assess the description students had for representatives of a local governing body. It not only seeks to describe the personal behaviors such as friendly/unfriendly, weak/strong, it also reflects on the responsiveness of elected officials to the petitions

of individual citizens and informal groups, all on a six-point scale. The students responded to this inventory immediately after they had visited the County Commission for the first time. Pencils and paper were distributed to students on the bus; they responded en route to school.

Table 3 indicates that the students of this study have, in general, a positive perception of elected officials of local government. Items 9 and 10 reflect some reservation as to the responsiveness of elected officials to "people like ourselves."

The students were highly stimulated by their visit to a meeting of the county commission and insisted on a second visit. Their perceptions of the personal characteristics of representatives of local government were positive, even admiring. Perhaps the youngsters were envious of the attractiveness, the grace in conflict—and the power—of their representatives at work. They did not perceive that decisions of elected officials could be changed by ordinary people (like themselves), but felt that decisions concerning local government were influenced by big and powerful groups.

Table 3

Student's Perception of Characteristics and Responsiveness

of Elected Representatives of Local Government

	Positive		Negative
# of responses	2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16		2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16
1 Friendly		Unfriendly	
2 Warmhearted		Cold-hearted	
3 Strong		Weak	
4 Rich		Poor	
5 Popular		Unpopular	
6 Cares about me and my family		Doesn't care about me and my family	
7 Acts for the good of the whole community		Acts for selfish reasons	
8 Attentive to complaints		Inattentive to complaints	
9 Can have decisions changed by ordinary people		Can only have decisions changed by powerful people	
10 Run by people like ourselves		Run by a few big and powerful people	
11 Gets things done		Often doesn't get things done	
12 Can be trusted		Cannot be trusted	

Intensity: □ slight
           ▥ moderate
           ▨ strong

166

4. STUDENT PERCEPTION OF A "GOOD CITIZEN." The
Student Perception of a "Good Citizen" inventory attempts
to gain some insight into the early adolescent's defini-
tion of what the "good citizen" should do. Qualities and
behaviors (such as votes in every election, joins a polit-
ical party, knows how tax money is spent, shows respect
for a funeral, belongs to a labor union, works hard, is
polite) are listed with respondents asked to indicate
whether or not the good citizen would do these things.
There is also a choice for indicating that one is not sure.

Table 4 illustrates that the youngsters had a sub-
jective rather than a participatory concept of the good
citizen. All students said that the good citizen obeys
the law, shows respect for a funeral, and works hard;
whereas 87% of the students mentioned standing up when the
national anthem is played. Behavior that the least number
of students expected of good citizens was trying to change
things in government and joining a labor union. The
response to not sure (of what a good citizen should do)
indicates uncertainty about joining a political party
(79%) and joining a labor union (73%).

Table 4

Student's Perception of a "Good Citizen"

Quality	N	Percentages thinking that:			
		Is characteristic of a good citizen	Is not characteristic of a good citizen	Not Sure	
Obeying the law	16	100	0	0	100
Being courteous always	15	80	7	13	100
Voting in every election	14	57	0	43	100
Being loyal to one's family	16	69	25	6	100
Joining a political party	14	7	14	79	100
Being knowledgeable about the expenditure of tax money	14	43	7	50	100
Having good manners	15	67	7	26	100
Being knowledgeable of world events	14	67	33	0	100
Trying to change government policy	15	20	27	53	100
Standing when the national anthem is played	15	87	0	13	100
Showing respect for a funeral	14	100	0	0	100
Belonging to a union	15	20	7	73	100
Works hard	13	100	0	0	100

Respect for and obedience to the law is a universally accepted behavior for good citizens. Beyond this consensus, the youngsters of this study appear to conceive of the rituals of citizenship and conventional manners as criteria for the good citizen. Doubts concerning the value or necessity of being an activist as a good citizen is apparent in the "not sure" response of this inventory. The obligation to participate in changing injustices in government is not recognized by these early adolescents; furthermore, they tend to make no distinction between the "nice" person and the good citizen.

5. WHO DECIDES ON THE LAWS MADE FOR OUR NATION? This ten-item inventory aims to gain some insight into the early adolescent's perception of what significant groups (such as rich people, union leaders, the President, newspaper people, members of Congress, high military officials) determine what laws are made for the nation--and the degree of influence of those groups. The students were instructed to respond to: very much, some, very little, not at all, I don't know. Twenty-two students responded.

Table 5 indicates a spread of opinions about the influence of significant people in deciding what laws are made for the country, from a high of 86% (the President)

to the low of 0% for church leaders and the average person. The high expectation of the President in influencing which laws are made is followed by union leaders (72%), rich people (68%), radio and TV commentators (62%), and some big companies (47%). Clearly the average person is perceived to have some (64%) but not very much influence on the laws made for the country.

Table 5

Student's Perception of Who Decides
on Laws Made for the Country

Percentage who think	Rich people	Union leaders	The President	Newspaper editors	Church leaders	The Average Person	Members of Congress	Some big companies	High military officials	Radio & TV Commentators
very much	68	72	86	14	0	0	58	47	30	62
some	27	14	9	82	64	64	21	43	60	20
very little	0	0	0	4	23	32	13	0	0	9
not at all	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	5	0	0
I don't know	5	14	5	0	13	0	8	5	10	9
TOTAL %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Political scientists say that a measure of the affect
children have for a political system is the reverence felt
for the paternal figure of the chief of state. In this
inventory the early adolescents have a strong feeling
that the President has the strongest influence on decisions
for laws made for the country. It is interesting that
these students perceive that union leaders, rich people,
and radio and TV commentators have more influence than
members of Congress in deciding what laws are made for the
country.

. 6. STUDENT'S ATTITUDES ON RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS. The
expectation of treatment by the bureaucracy and police, as
well as being free to express opinions, constitutes one's
perception of rights and freedoms and goes to the heart of
an egalitarian philosophy. This 11-item inventory
endeavors to assess the concepts early adolescents hold on
the degree of rights and freedoms that diverse groups of
citizens should have (groups such as lawyers, religious
leaders, artists, communists, factory workers, military
leaders, black people, discharged prisoners, leaders of
big business, tramps, and people with anti-American views).
Students were asked to respond to one of the following
(that the group should have): More rights and freedoms

than everyone else, exactly the same as everyone else, fewer rights and freedoms than everyone else, or I don't know.

Table 6 reveals that the majority believe that each of the groups of people should have exactly the same rights and freedoms as everyone else, with percentages varying from a low of 59% for tramps to 100% for lawyers and factory workers. Only religious leaders and military leaders were considered as being worthy of more rights and freedoms than everyone else, and that by only 5% and 6% of the students respectively. A larger percentage indicate that some groups should have fewer rights and freedoms than everyone else. These less favored groups were discharged prisoners, 22%; communists, 23%; and tramps, 35%.

Almond and Yerba (p. 70) have documented that people from the most stable democratic systems strongly insist that all citizens should have equal treatment by the police and bureaucracy of their country. The general idea the students of this study harbor appears to be that only people who have seriously violated the responsibilities of citizenship (discharged prisoners, communists, and tramps) should have fewer rights and freedoms than other citizens.

Table 6

Students' Attitudes: Rights and Freedoms

	N	Percentage thinking that these groups should have:				
		More rights and freedoms than everyone else	Exactly the same rights and freedoms as everyone else	Fewer rights and freedoms than everyone else	I don't know	Total
Lawyers	19	0	100	0	0	100
Religious leaders	19	5	85	10	0	100
Discharged prisoners	18	0	78	22	0	100
Black people	19	0	89	11	0	100
Artists	19	0	84	16	0	100
Communists	17	0	65	23	12	100
Leaders of big business	18	0	90	5	5	100
Military leaders	18	6	83	11	0	100
Tramps	17	0	59	35	6	100
People with anti-American views	17	0	82	12	6	100
Factory workers	17	0	100	0	0	100

7. INVENTORY OF POLITICAL COMMUNICATION AND PARTICI-
PATION. This 7-item inventory aims to learn of the overt
activities of early adolescents in their own communities
as they relate to interest in politics and actual community
activity. On a sheet of paper, the students were asked to
indicate yes or no if they had, in the last year: listened
to a political party broadcast, tried to get elected to an
office in a club or for a school group, helped collect
money for a good cause, borrowed or read a book about
national or international affairs, asked adults about
political parties, or found out about how a local governing
body functions. Twenty students responded.

Table 7 indicates that the greatest response for yes
(I have participated) was 90%, listened to a political
broadcast; and 90%, found out about how a local governing
body functions. The least response was 35%, tried to get
elected to office in a club or school group; and 35%, done
some reading to better understand current affairs.

Interest in the political life of the community is
evident in the responses of the students to this inventory.
That 90% of the students had listened to a political broad-
cast or watched a political telecast within the last year
may be attributed to a vigorous campaign underway at the

time of the study to change the form of their city govern-
ment from at-large representation to a combination at-large/
district representation. Clearly the 90% of students in-
dicating that they had learned firsthand about city council
or the county commission could be credited to participation
in the case study. When 60% of the students have helped
collect money for a good cause in the community within the
past year, one may assume that substantial numbers of early
adolescents are eager to participate in community improve-
ment activities, and that they find volunteer service
satisfying.

Table 7

Student's Statement of Actual Civic Involvement,
Communication, and Participation

Students saying that in the past year they have:	Percentage Saying			
	#	yes	no	Total
[1]Listened to a political party broad-cast or watched a political telecast	20	90	10	100
[2]Tried to get elected to an office of a school group	20	35	65	100
[3]Helped collect money for a good cause	20	60	40	100
[4]Done some reading to better understand current affairs	20	35	65	100
[5]Done some reading about the United Nations	20	40	60	100
[6]Learned firsthand about city council or the County Commission	20	90	10	100
[7]Tried to learn about different political parties	20	60	40	100

8. ATTITUDE TOWARD OLDER PEOPLE. The Council on Aging supplied this inventory to assess the attitude toward older people; there were no norms available. Students were asked to respond (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree) to 30 statements about older people, dealing with: dispositions, emotional needs, the value of their experiences in the work force as citizens and neighbors, flexibility/rigidity, the worth of education and rehabilitation, and the aging process in general. This inventory was administered early in the case study when alternatives for volunteer community service were being considered. Students responded on a copy of the statements as I read them aloud.

Using a scheme for weighing the intensity of agreement of disagreement listed on Table 8, a raw score was secured for disagree, neutral, and agree, for each of 6 categories of opinions about aging and older people. The raw score was then converted to percentage of response for each category. For (A) older people are individuals, just as any age group, 70% agreed, 14% were neutral, and 16% disagreed. To the idea that (B) older people are all the same, 58% disagreed, 12% were neutral, and 30% agreed.

To (C) a list of disagreeable qualities that might be expected of older people, 64% disagreed, 15% were neutral, and 21% agreed. A list (D) of attractive social qualities that older people might possess found 59% agreeing, 16% neutral, and 25% disagreeing. In (E) generalizations stating that aging is a time of making use of one's wisdom, dignity, and achievement, 64% agreed, 14% were neutral, and 22% disagreed. Finally, (F) to the idea that aging is a time for withdrawal from social and intellectual activities, 75% disagreed, 22% were neutral, and 13% disagreed.

The students of this study seem to feel strongly that no stereotype can be affixed to older people and that instead, they must be regarded as individuals, as in any other age group. The youngsters also view their elders as having more attractive than disagreeable social qualities, and they expect older people to remain active socially and intellectually as they reap the rewards of old age in using the wisdom of years in a dignified time of achievement.

Table 8

Attitude Toward Older People

Response	Weighted
strongly disagree	3
disagree	2
neutral	1
agree	2
strongly agree	3

	Percentage		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
A. Older people are individuals just as any age group Items 11, 12, 16	16	14	70
B. Older people are all the same Items 5, 18	58	12	30
C. Older people have disagreeable social qualities Items 4, 8, 9, 10, 13, 15, 17	64	15	21
D. Older people have attractive social qualities Items 3, 6, 14, 27	25	16	59
E. Aging is a time for activities making use of one's wisdom, dignity, and achievement Items 1, 2, 7, 24, 29, 30	22	14	64
F. Aging is a time for withdrawal from social and intellectual activities Items 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26	75	12	13

9. STUDENT EVALUATION OF CLASS ACTIVITIES. I de-
vised this evaluation of class activities for students of
the case study. Activities inside the classroom and off
campus were examined. The students were asked to rate all
activities on the following scale: 1-poor, 2-fair,
3-acceptable, 4-good, and 5-excellent. Students rated
such classroom activities as: participating in simula-
tions, discussions of transactional analysis, discussion
of moral dilemmas, writing in the journal, and responding
to inventories. They also evaluated off-campus activities
like: the survey of downtown, visiting the county commis-
sion, and volunteer service trips. The group spent approxi-
mately 20 minutes reflecting on the experiences of the
case study before responding to this evaluation the last
week of the study. Twenty-one students responded.
Responses (rated 1-poor to 5-excellent) to each activity
were averaged. Those activities receiving the highest
average ratings were: 4.6 volunteer service to elderly
people, 4.5 taking pictures, 4.4 responding to inventories,
and 4.4 participating in the simulation Curfew. The
activity receiving the lowest average rating was 2.7,
discussion of transactional analysis. Table 9 summarizes
the student responses.

Table 9

Student Evaluation of Class Activities

INSIDE CLASSROOM - by degree of initiative and involvement

Activity	Poor 1	Fair 2	Accept-able 3	Good 4	Excel-lent 5	No.	Av.
Responding to Inventory		1	1	4	9	15	4.4
Keeping Journal		2	2	7	6	17	4.
Transactional Analysis	1	5	7	5	1	19	2.7
Propaganda Game	1	6	5	7	2	21	3.1
Dilemmas Marilyn's dilemma	1	3	3	9	4	20	3.6
Joe's dilemma		3	4	11	2	20	3.6
Heinz's dilemma			4	8	11	23	4.3
Simulations Incinerator	1	1	1	11	10	24	4.2
Minority Power		1	3	12	5	21	4.4
Curfew		1		9	10	20	4.4

In Classroom Average   3.8

OUTSIDE CLASSROOM - by degree of initiative and involvement

Activity	Poor 1	Fair 2	Accept-able 3	Good 4	Excel-lent 5	No.	Av.
Visit to County Commission			3	9	9	21	4.1
Taking pictures	1	1		4	15	21	4.5
Downtown Charlotte Survey (Stranger)		1		10	8	19	4.3
Volunteer Service [w]Allison-Cannon		1	1	3	16	21	4.6
[w]Craig-Adler	2	2	1	6	9	20	3.9
[b]Johnson	4	1	3	10	4	22	3.4
[b]Sanders-McGow			5	5	9	19	4.2

Outside Classroom Average   4.1

The students in general seem to have approved of the activities of this seven-week study. No attempt was made to compare the activities of the study to the activities of the language arts and social studies they had done previously. By a small margin, outside classroom activities rated better than inside classroom activities, though a number of inside classroom activities (participation in simulations and responding to the inventories) rated 4.4 on a 5. (Excellent) scale. The single highest rating, 4.6, was given to the volunteer service to elderly people, closely followed by taking pictures 4.5 (part of the communication component). A variety of activities making differing demands of initiative, reflection, and interacting that test one's competences in the social, academic, and physical realm, appear to be more than acceptable to these early adolescents.

Student journals. From the beginning of the study the students made several entries each week in their personal journals. Class time was taken to assure that all would have, and take the time to put into their own words the meaning that different class activities had for them. The first entries were brief, recounting more of what was done than how they felt about taking part in the activity.

As the weeks slipped by, the entries were more revealing of perceptions, motivations, and either positive or negative personal feelings evoked by participation. Among the subjects of entries were responses to: the concepts of transactional analysis, the game Propaganda, the survey of the downtown of their city for amenities to newcomers, the simulations (Minority Power, Curfew, and Incinerator), the moral dilemmas discussed, the visits to the county commission, and visits to each of the volunteer service sites.

Other observations. Several members of the Ramsay School staff observed the class during the case study. Their responses tend to relate to the immediate observable activities.

Ms. S., diagnostic teacher in the Learning Laboratory, observed the class during the final stage of the simulation Curfew. Some students were playing the roles of city councilmen, others were playing the roles of protesting students. Ms. S. noted that the interest of the total class was high, that the input of both groups reflected critical thinking, and that students made good evaluative statements at the conclusion. She also noted that early adolescents have difficulty in controlling a spirited

meeting. She would opt for a more structured approach to this activity.

Ms. B., a Language Arts, Social Studies teacher, observed the group during the public meeting stage of the simulation <u>Minority Power</u>. She reflected that the students revealed a budding awareness of the conflicting interests of voting blocks. The strategies used by the students for negotiating indicated some experience at appraising the strengths and weaknesses and needs of other groups, she said.

The students were interviewed by me at the conclusion of the study. Interviews were conducted during the school day in a workroom adjoining the classroom. I asked and received consent from each individual to make an audio tape recording of each interview. The following questions were asked of each student:

1. What activity was most interesting to you? Why? What activity was least interesting to you? Why?

2. Would you recommend a class like this one to your best friend? What would you tell that person about this class?

3. If you were the teacher, what changes would you make in class activities?

4. Do you feel that relations among students in this · class have changed? How? Have the relations between the students and your teacher changed? How?

5. How would you define community now?

6. Would you like to influence community affairs? How would you go about it?

7. Do you think everyone should have a say in community affairs? Why?

The case study described in this chapter has limitations for replicability. It was not, of course, designed to prove a hypothesis, but instead to enhance inquiry into a model of experiential citizen education for early adolescents. Its value lies in the description of implementing the model. The group studied was small (24 students) with a particular social class configuration. The question of what would happen with another group with different backgrounds and abilities, etc., must remain open to further research. Another limitation is the generalizability of teacher effect (motivation, vested enthusiasm), especially since it is clear that the success of such programs is related to the personnel involved.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion of the Model

This dissertation was undertaken as an attempt to
develop a curriculum model for active civic education.
Through a review of the literature and an analysis of
adolescent civic education, I have in Chapter I examined
the work of political scientists on dimensions of the
political socialization of youth. In Chapter II, I re-
viewed the literature on the nature of adolescence and
American accommodation to adolescence. In Chapter III,
I analyzed models of curriculum and psycho-social develop-
ment that seemed to reach to the heart of aiding youngsters
in achieving personal competence and social responsibility.
From concepts that proved meaningful to me, I created a
model of active citizen education for an age group to whom
very little attention has been given, particularly in
instruction of civic responsibility. A pilot and case
study are reported in Chapter IV. In this chapter I wish
to comment on the major issues of the dissertation from
the perspective of the case study and further reflections

on the issues. In Chapter IV, I indicated these questions

were:

1. Do early adolescents feel that they have the com-

petence to make meaningful contribution to community life?

Do they feel they can influence the system? Do they have

the tolerance to accept modified goals?

2. Do nurturing activities promote growth in moral

reasoning and ego strength? Does contact between adults

and students in community work reduce alienation?

3. What can communities do to encourage meaningful

social and political participation on the part of youth?

What is the relationship of public and private agencies

and the school in developing citizen education? What

relationship will develop between students and leaders

of agencies, and the recipients of help?

4. How will students interpret informal channels of

power in local agencies?

5. What is the role of the teacher--the curriculum

coordinator--in linking the school with private and public

agencies? Shall only students who volunteer for the

citizen action course be included? How is the feasibility

of the social action project determined, by students,

student-teacher?

I will respond to these questions in the first section of this chapter, and in the second section I will deal with additional questions that arose as the consequence of my study.

Questions of the Inquiry

1a. "Do early adolescents feel that they have the competence to make meaningful contribution to community life?"

My initial research indicated very little clarity on this question. Since then, my review of the literature and my own research has led me to some degree of clarity. It seems to me that early adolescents under certain circumstances can come to have a sense of urgency and competence about community involvement.

There is little in the literature to support the idea that early adolescents feel they have the competence to make meaningful contribution to community life. Adelson (1972) has written of the political imagination of the adolescent, Green (1972) and Greenstein (1972) have documented the concept of the realities of politics to early adolescents; but none treats the competence to exert influence in the community by this age group. Newman et al.

(1977) and Poor (1976) report on the vigorous application of models for adolescents proper (16-19 years), in which these older adolescents have had impact on the community.

This study does lend some confidence that a course of study that emphasizes the strengths of early adolescents--the urge to be active, the need to nurture, the desire to be competent, the zeal for working in groups for mutual goals--does have a positive effect on the competence of early adolescents. There was a significant increase (at the .01 level) in the youngsters' perception of their capability of effecting meaningful changes in their community and their will to do so, in the category of "competence in the community" for the Student Perception of Civic Competence test.

One characteristic of the age, indeed a strength of early adolescence, is the need and desire to be competent. The curriculum model opened to the students of the case study new realms of competence beyond academic achievement and social ease among peers. To early adolescents, making a meaningful contribution in the community may have several dimensions. It is, for example, traditional for early adolescents to collect money for good causes, and indeed, 60% of the students in the case study reported that they

had done so within the last year. This case study, however, provided broader opportunities, and, in fact, the journal entries indicated student satisfaction growing out of direct service to the elderly.

The question arises as to what competences are reasonable for early adolescents within the context of risk. The role of fund raiser and helper of older people is one of relatively minimal risk. The students perceive the good citizen as "good boy, good girl," Kohlberg stage 3 kind of people, passively supporting convention and the status quo. I learned of their very narrow tolerance for risk when in describing the good citizen, only 7% felt that he/she would join a political party, and only 20% felt that he/she would try to change things in government. Early adolescents have yet to see themselves as "shakers and movers," and they are not sure that "nice people" work for significant change in the community. One can speculate on the result had these thirteen year olds chosen a community activity demanding a persuasive role involving controversy and conflict. Many adults do not understand the needs of young people and are not likely to view with approval youngsters as advocates of controversial causes. The possibility of crushing rejection looms large should early

adolescents experience the reality of attempting to have substantial influence in civic affairs. Is it possible that an exaggerated sense of civic competence presents too great a hazard for budding citizens? Can early adolescents develop competences appropriate for dealing with high-risk situations?

Erikson's virtue of late childhood, "I am what I can make work," is a classic definition of competence by concrete reasoning. Sports are important in a junior high school, and to some, winning a contest could be equated with competence; but so too is an excellent performance of the school orchestra where one's competence is used cooperatively rather than competitively. The age is making the transition from concrete to abstract reasoning, and the concept of competence takes on larger dimensions. With abstract reasoning comes the capacity to engage in ideological dialogue, which, of course, means the conflict of ideas. We need to confront the question of how to help students cope with the many complexities and frustrations that come with such dialogue. With abstract reasoning, the capability of conventional and postconventional moral reasoning arrives, and with it the concepts of mutual responsibility of the individual and society.

1b. "Do they (the students) feel they can influence the system?"

The students expressed an interest in having influence in the system. They were pleased to observe the give-and-take of community leaders, both formal and informal. The power they sensed at meetings was exhilarating to them. Yet in responding to the interview at the conclusion of the study, they had no well-conceived idea of how power was gained or wielded. The notion of leadership was appealing to some, but only one boy spoke specifically of strategies he used to gain leadership in a Scout troop.

These students may develop into change/leader roles in late adolescence, or in early adulthood, for now their choice is a support/follower role. Many of these youngsters have not observed within their own family a rational/change orientation to local affairs, with the possible exception of some black middle class youth.

For a mode of thinking that sees success as winning, as having the highest score, or the clear triumph of right and justice, the realistic outcomes of community involvement may at best be incomprehensible and at worst utterly disillusioning. Again, there is danger in both setting sights too high or too low. In an ideal course in active

citizen education, students would experience some wins and
some losses. A program of reasonable length would provide
some continuity in tasks and a better perspective of the
mixed results of civic endeavor.

1c. "Do they have the tolerance to accept modified
goals?"

My observation of early adolescents is that these
youngsters are continuously accepting modified goals; and
it appears that the irregular progress they make in their
search for identity confirms a high degree of tolerance.
Friedenberg (1959) and Holt (1974) contend that many adults
envy adolescents for the resilience they possess, though
no observer can be blind to the pain and stress of com-
promise when youngsters have a great urgency to try things
their way.

Hampden-Turner (1970) seems to define competence as
the continued pursuit of goals with the anticipation of
achievement. Almond and Yerba (1965) also describe the
virtue of competence as that which the individual "expects"
that he can do. There is, for educators and other signifi-
cant adults, the obligation to guide youth to a conscious-
ness of the many faces of competence. For an age of emerging
identity, having very limited experiences to base criteria

of competence, the inevitable frustration and failures of
community involvement, the gap between hope and reality,
may be overwhelming.

Both the pilot and case study were of short duration,
and as I reflect on the choices made by the students for
community service, I see all but one were low-risk options.
Helping the elderly in seasonal yard and house maintenance
and working at political headquarters involved a minimum
of risk, but the choice of the pilot study group to be
companions to stroke victims at Hampton Hospital involved
great risk, in my opinion. The tremendous high experienced
by the students was due, of course, to the positive feed-
back from the patients and could have as easily ended a
devastating low. On two occasions I feared a lapse in the
rapport between the generations as a stroke victim
struggled to communicate with an eager but uncomprehending
youngster. To the relief of the patient, the student, and
myself, the student maintained firm support throughout.
This incident would suggest that the task of the educator/
coordinator must be to make a judgment on the degree of
tolerance for frustration and failure possessed by indi-
viduals and to encourage or discourage choices for an
active citizen project based on that tolerance.

Competence may be seen as the realistic expectation of effecting one's intentions and as such is related to ego strength, but these concepts are not synonomous. To many, there is a darker side to ego strength: the connotation of forceful, agressive, and manipulative behavior. By contrast, competence may be seen as being persuasive and intuitive (Hampden-Turner). Competence may also be seen as having an evil as well as a righteous side. The pickpocket, the con man, the white collar criminal, possess competence of high degree, but a negative social worth. It is competence within the context of social responsibility that merits the concern of educators.

The role of the school in developing the competence of students requires discrimination. Friedenberg (1959) maintains that, "the school must bring itself to respect a far wider variety of competence than it now does" (p. 217). The school, as a social institution, must be selective in the competences to be encouraged. There are numerous competences the individual student may wish to possess that the school has no part in fostering because they are either trivial or morally repugnant. Competence may be seen as having dimensions of intentions--physical, intellectual, and of the heart. I contend that early

adolescents have the need to be altruistic; they need

experiences of personal investment that yield competence

as nurturers. Feedback is the fertile soil promoting

growth in competence in being good, and always the risk

remains that the individual's investment may fall on

rocks, with either no feedback or negative feedback.

The concerned adult is faced with these questions: Just

how much tolerance for failure can an early adolescent

handle, and at what point must the educator intercede to

avoid a crushing experience to the student's budding

competence?

2a. "Do nurturing activities promote growth in moral

reasoning and ego strength?"

Mosher's account of the counseling work of adolescents

led me to hope that nurturing activities appropriate for

early adolescents might lead them to new ways of thinking

about themselves in relation to others. Hampden-Turner's

model of psycho-social development leans heavily on the

investment of self with others and the risk-taking that

has the potential for mutual enhancement. The extension

of these models to early adolescents within an appropriate

setting appeared a reasonable developmental task.

In planning this study, I did not determine the activities in which the students would participate. I attempted to make possible a number of alternatives, but I left a choice among the alternatives to the students. Tutoring primary age children was an alternative, but only a few students expressed an interest in working with young children. The pilot study group experienced directly the nurturing activity of being companions to and helping terminally ill patients. They also experienced the less emotional and intensive activity of doing house and garden work for ambulant older people, as did the case study group. At the time the students went to the hospital, they had had no part in discussing moral dilemmas; for that reason I had no way of assessing a level of moral reasoning before or after the nurturing experience.

Only the students of the case study kept journals. Entries after service to the elderly would suggest that experiences in doing for the elderly what they cannot do for themselves do promote ego strength among students, as these quotes from student journals indicate:

"I could understand why Mrs. C. could not help her own self to clean her yard. I really enjoyed myself helping an older person" and "I found that I could be

very, very useful. She (Mrs. J.) was very happy with the services that we gave her."

My impression is that journal entries support the notion of increased ego strength as a result of nurturing activities. My sense is that the students were, in essence, saying, "We like to be actors, initiators, and givers; seeing the consequence of the use of our competence, in the appearance of the exterior of a house, or yard and garden, or the smile of approval of an older person, makes me feel good."

The will to be active and to have an impact in the community is the first and essential step toward participatory citizenship. In engaging in the realities of conflicting interests of community affairs, the citizen faces his moment of truth. Can he make ought-is? Does he possess, or wish to possess, the interpersonal skills to interact effectively with other equally caring citizens?

I never interpreted ego strength for either the pilot or case study. However, my impression is that such experiences can have the effect of at least building a sturdy self-image. The response to persistence toward goals in S.P.C.C. would appear to indicate a growing determination to achieve one's goals. Educators must be

concerned that early adolescents select goals (either for self, or a group) that are challenging. Young people need the satisfaction of taking a reasonable risk for consequent growth. Linking success with competence and ego strength is a fallacy in thinking by the young person who avoids all challenges because the chance of failure is too fearful.

Ego strength becomes an elusive quality, seemingly beyond the reach of the cop-out, dropout youngster. Is it because ego strength is so largely a function of recognition by others? Is this because schools have, as Havighurst and Hollingshead accuse, too narrowly defined the areas for bestowing rewards? Are the competences worthy of recognition only those measured by pencil and paper tests? Is there a great waste of human potential in a narrowly conceived curriculum--particularly that of citizen education?

2b. "Does contact between adults and students in community work reduce alienation?"

I posed this question when I was engrossed in the models of Newmann and also Mosher, both of which dealt with high school students interacting with adults. Adolescents (16-19 years) are developing to a crescendo of

rebelliousness, and they may be expected to disassociate themselves from people who may curb their urgency for independence. I had a picture in my mind of the "generation gap" of popular usage, that adolescents had turned away from the warmth and trust of adults, that they had deliberately disassociated themselves from older people in the community and become truly estranged. And, in turn, I felt that the nuclear family and housing patterns had isolated older people from young people, so that consequently a sense of indifference, of disaffection, even animosity, existed between the generations. Therefore this question illustrates some preconceptions on my part, indicating that I was somewhat off target in anticipating encounters of youth and adults. If one is to believe that these students responded honestly to the inventory, Attitudes Toward Older People, and I have no reason to doubt it, these early adolescents were generally accepting and appreciative of older people and had some concern for their needs. That it was the students' choice to invest their off-campus time helping the elderly appears to confirm that as far as the youngsters were concerned, perhaps they felt a sense of separation, but no alienation existed between them and a generation of older people.

The older people who were helped appeared to enjoy the swirl of productive activity at their homes and the good-natured banter among the students. All of the older people expressed appreciation to the youngsters for a job well done. I have no idea what they expected from individuals, or a group of early adolescents, but the older people must have had a favorable impression of early adolescents, because the Council on Aging had their consent for having a group come to service the house and yard. So, having no evidence that alienation really existed between the generations, this question has little meaning here.

The data collected in this study does not suggest that youngsters and older people were alienated, unless one might say that the very favorable perception of older people indicated in the inventory, Attitudes Toward Older People, suggests an idealization of qualities of a set of "grandparents" and therefore a distance from the elderly. My impression is that this is not a satisfactory explanation of the response of these early adolescents. Several of these youngsters lived with grandparents rather than parents. The sketches (Appendix G) the students made of themselves as 70 year olds are of such diversity that one

can only conclude that older people are seen as individuals rather than stereotypes.

The students did sketches of themselves as 70 year olds as an extension of their response to the inventory of the attitude toward older people. The sketches have been arranged in a series of collages A-F and are to be found in Appendix G. I interpret the sketches as confirming the inventory responses that indicate that the students see older people as individuals. Reflected in the sketches are the dual concepts of the physical consequences of aging and the individual's ego strength. For example, those figures in the park (A) are small, inconsequential people, not firmly rooted in any environment. The students have yet to establish a clear and sharp identity. Their old-age image lacks discernible character in much the same way they probably view their own early adolescence.

In (B) a home, either their own or an institution, these male and female figures have lost some mobility. There is a sense of withdrawal and resignation among the group. Yet other youngsters, though conceiving the physical changes of aging (the loss of hair and a trim figure) view themselves as strong, wise patriarchs (C). The grandmothers (D) do not appear to fare so well as the

grandfathers. Figures D1 and D2 are sedentary, though D1 maintains pride in her appearance while D3 and D4 contrast the dowdy and chic image of grandmother.

In (E) the figures are virile. E1 is sexually active, E2 is functioning at the peak of his profession, and E3 continues to work out in the gym, though debauchery has made inroads on his appearance and mobility.

Finally, in (F) the contrasts of a perceived future are to be seen in F1, a scarcely discernible pair of wings on Cloud 9; F2, one resting in peace; while F3 is a figure challenging the twenty-first century to do him in.

The study was in its second week when students responded to the attitude toward older people and did these sketches.

Though I am aware of the tragic exploitation and preying upon the elderly by early adolescents in decaying neighborhoods of large cities, this study revealed none of such hostility. I was surprised that students of both the pilot and case study chose to work for elderly people. It occurred to me that the choice of the case study group was influenced by the highly successful experience of the pilot study; yet even granting this, there remains for me no explanation for the original choice of the pilot study

group. It is possible that the older people and early adolescents have qualities in common that are not readily apparent. A close look reveals that they both are vulnerable, dependent, proud, and naive. They have an urgency for personal affirmation; they share a sense of beauty. They want to make the best use of the strengths of their respective ages, for youth and the elderly must be both "givers and receivers."

In any sense, I came away feeling that the bridge between early adolescents and adults is less formidable than I had anticipated, particularly if the generations have realistic expectations of each other. In a society that tends toward isolation and therefore toward alienation of age groups, stereotypes must be rejected in favor of mutual understandings of needs and competences.

3a. "What can communities do to encourage meaningful social and political participation on the part of youth?"

In highly industrialized societies youth are urged to excel at school. There are few opportunities to acquire skill not related to academic life. Adolescents yearn for autonomy; few opportunities are presented by the community to try out emerging competences. Bronfenbrenner (1970) describes the highly structured government-sponsored

organizations for Soviet youth. The need to be involved
in the larger community is universal for adolescents, and
though American youth would be turned off by the heavy
indoctrination of the structured Soviet model, they too
need to be needed. To a large degree, the freedom of our
society and the flexibility of community agencies may
cause a gap between them and young people.

It would seem that it is up to the schools to initiate
cooperative efforts for the benefit of youth. In the
planning stages for the pilot study, the Voluntary Action
Center (VAC) of United Community Services was contacted,
resulting in a prompt response from that office. Though
the services solicited by VAC that early adolescents might
perform were limited, the director explained that there
were services, particularly for Council on Aging, that
the students might do. Both political parties welcomed
the participation of the students as did the Sierra Club
and a county hospital for the terminally ill. It is my
observation that service clubs and private agencies think
of joint activities with the school in terms of fund
raising and essay contests, meaning that these agencies
have limited concepts of the competence and potential
services early adolescents can render. On only one

occasion did a community group seek out a group of students, which was after they had been contacted about services that the pilot study might do. The occasion was the arrival of a national political figure during the campaign of 1976. The students eagerly accepted the invitation to greet the visitor, made placards, personally welcomed the political person, and on the site met the mayor of the city and the chairperson of the county commissioners.

Communities have a stake in the political socialization of youth. The Reverend Jesse Jackson contends that volunteer service to the community is an integral part of PUSH for excellence. One might expect quite different acceptance of the participation of youth in political and social concerns in different communities. The Civil Rights movement has given many black youngsters the opportunity of being a part of significant changes. However lacking in taking part in the refinements of policy making, black youth have made use of their presence and vitality to have an impact on issues. Middle class youth, possessing some leisure and material advantages, have had the option to become involved in community affairs. Working class white youngsters, for the most part, lack parental modeling for civic participation and expect to

contribute little. It seems to me that public schools, as the social institution dedicated to developing to the fullest the potential of children of all races and social classes, must rely on the community to help extend the competence of young citizens. Opening lines of communication is a two-way street. Though the school should initiate expanded programs and articulate the limits of students' capacities, agencies within the community should accept as opportunity and obligation a part in orienting young people to civic involvement.

3b. "What is the relationship of public and private agencies and the schools in the development of citizen education?"

In every instance, when approached, the private or public agency responded favorably to the offer of early adolescents as volunteers, though it sometimes took time to find appropriate assignments for them. Also, in every instance, when the early adolescents had completed worthy service, the agency(s) suggested further tasks. The limit to service, then, was placed by the school, and largely hinged on schedule, transportation, and the convenience of cooperating teachers. Later in this chapter a discussion of the role of the teacher/coordinator will give further

insight into the potential of the joint effort of the community and school in developing a viable program of active citizen education.

However, in the short time of the pilot and case study, no serious problems arose; yet over a period of time one could expect the matter of commitment of agencies to be of concern. The educative function of the school/agency relationship would have to remain dominant with no compromise to the temptation to patronize or exploit. The agencies would find that their investment would require considerable time: time for feedback of immediate concerns and time for long-range development of understanding of the needs as well as the potentials of youth. A continuing working relationship for the mutual enhancement of the goals of the agency and the education of young citizens would require an important and enduring commitment of energy.

3c. "What relationship will develop between students and leaders of agencies and the recipients of help?"

Leaders of public and private agencies, from my observation, welcome the services of early adolescents _if_ a school person is responsible for the initial preparation of students for the tasks and if the school provides

transportation and supervision. A letter from the director
of the local Council on Aging written to me states the
favorable acceptance of the labors of the youngsters of
the case study. Those older people who were recipients
of the house and garden tasks had very little time to
converse with the students, as the tasks were accomplished
in whirlwind fashion; yet all (older people) came to the
bus to shake hands and express thanks for a job well done.
The most visible and dramatic response to the service
encounters came from the service the pilot study group
rendered to the terminally ill at Hampton Hospital: The
patients were quietly pleased; the students were ex-
uberant.

In summary, I would say that there exists among
private and public agencies a substantial potential for
cooperative efforts with the schools in citizen education;
the responsibility for getting these activities underway
appears to rest with educators. A well-established and
mutually productive program linking school with community
institutions would necessitate considerable commitment of
resources, time, and energy. Educators should not
countenance the use of students by agencies for public
relation purposes or as a source of cheap labor. Instead,

all concerned must recognize and endorse the educative

function of such activities to be of prime importance.

4. "How will students interpret informal channels of

power in local agencies?"

The step from unquestioning acceptance of what one is

told of the structure and process of public institutions

to a recognition of the good and evil of the impact of the

human condition on these institutions is at the heart of

the adolescent experience. The recognition of the in-

formal originates as thinking goes beyond noting the ob-

vious to the conception of alternatives and motives.

Ignorance of the nature and magnitude of informal channels

of power forever keeps the individual a spectator rather

than a participant in community affairs.

The responses to the Student Perception of the Degree

of Agreement of Significant Adults indicate that students

expect business leaders and union leaders, the wealthy and

poor people, and people in different political parties to

disagree most of the time (see Appendix B). More to the

point, responses to the Student's Perception of Charac-

teristics and Responsiveness of Elected Representatives of

Local Government indicate a generally positive expectation

of responsiveness of elected officials to the petitions of

individuals and informal groups (see Table 3). The students responded to this inventory immediately after having attended a meeting of the county commissioners, when a private agency (Babe Ruth baseball sponsors) and a public agency (representatives of the city-county school system) were making conflicting demands of the commissioners. The students were cognizant of the obligation of elected officials to act fairly when presented with conflicting interests, private and public.

In their journals students were more critical of commissioners who remained silent than those entering into the give-and-take of the conflict. In a geographic area noted for avoidance of public conflict as "not nice," these early adolescents seemed to accept the inevitability of conflict and to approve a vigorous effort for resolution so long as no person or group dominated the encounter or attempted to intimidate the opposing parties.

The concept of informal and formal distribution of power in community affairs is, in the youngster's eyes, "the way things really work" in contrast to "the way it's 'sposed' to be." Street learning of the inner city child brings him sooner to the recognition of political realities than the suburban youngster; yet the incompleteness of

those perceptions can lead to disillusionment (Green) and

cynicism. The school has the opportunity and the obliga-

tion to draw from the experiences of youngsters in their

primary groups to generalize on the essentials of how

decisions are made (uses of resources), the price and

privilege of leadership, the granting or withdrawal of

support, the art of negotiating for priorities, the estab-

lishment of rules by peers, and the strategies for changing

those informal rules.

Reading a recent work of Seymour Sarason has given me

a broader perception of the potential of informal power.

In Human Services and Resource Networks, Sarason describes

social networks and gives an account of the involvement of

high school teachers and their students in research of a

community concern, the quality of water and the effects on

it of local road building. An informal coalition that

came to be known as the Essex network spanned the formal

and informal agencies having an interest in the inquiry.

The research had the advantage of flexibility and also

the opportunity to draw from a broad base of interests.

The resources were multiplied without an increase in cost;

the result was productive for the community and provided

for university teacher trainers, teachers, high school

students, and private agency people to learn, to exchange
ideas, to be recognized for competence, and to contribute
to community concerns--in a word, to be actualized.

In a successful project such as the Essex network's
contribution, the origins of the flow of resources were
unpredictable; they were generated from informal conver-
sation that glimpsed possibilities. The perception of
opportunities involves a different mind set for community
involvement, not that of problem definition mostly con-
cerned with lack of resources (mainly material), but
instead that of seizing opportunities because of the
presence of human resources whose talents and needs are
interconnected. I perceive that there exists, then, two
sides of informal power: one in which traditionalists and
vested interests maintain advantages to self and agency
through behind-the-scenes manipulation, the other making
use of the needs and talents of "who you know" in the
wealth of acquaintances in public and private life. These
linkages can form networks of human resources that in turn
have the flexibility of dealing with ever changing com-
munity concerns. Could it be that early adolescents, in
expanding their consciousness of the structure and
services of community agencies, may through voluntary

participation come to recognize informal power as having the potential for preserving and enhancing the prerogatives of already advantaged people--and on the other hand, cut through the cumbersome folds of bureaucracy to allow direct action on matters of immediate concern to diverse constituencies?

An incident late in the case study illustrates how students may become aware of informal strategies. Some students were invited to a meeting of the executive committee of the Council on Aging to receive a commendation for the services of the group to older people. The first item on the agenda of the meeting was the cost of ambulance service for the elderly. The students overheard the mapping of strategy, the mobilization of resources, people and agencies that could be helpful in achieving the objective of free ambulance service for those over 65. The talk centered about the use of the media and of possible trade-offs with the county commissioners.

Later the students were recognized and asked to extend the gratitude of Council on Aging to all the participating students. As the students were leaving, the person responsible for Meals on Wheels, a federally funded program for providing hot and nutritious meals to elderly shut-ins, followed the students into the hall and asked them whether they would like to volunteer to ride in vans and station wagons to deliver meals to older people. The students were

enthusiastic, and I saw an opportunity for them to reach
another set of older people, the homebound. In serving
these people, the students might gain a perception of the
needs and the courage of people who remain in their own
homes under adverse conditions to retain a measure of inde-
pendence. By extending service to another group, students
might make use of their competence to supply, on a regular
basis, a brief but friendly interaction with an older per-
son, having the role of "giver" in bringing a welcome hot
meal and also words of cheer.

Later I learned of a conflict among private and public
agencies with overlapping services to the elderly. The
director of Council on Aging observed the overture of the
coordinator of Meals on Wheels to the students. Later she
suggested to me that the youngsters might instead invest
time with a private church-related group that had fewer re-
sources for essentially the same service (preparing and dis-
tributing meals to the elderly. The consolidation and main-
tenance of agency boundaries became apparent in this incident.
The role of the teacher/coordinator in helping youngsters
sort conflicting needs could be illustrated by this incident.
I am confident that given the opportunity of assessing the
needs and potentials for volunteer service, early adoles-
cents could make appropriate decisions.

However, there are concerns about early adolescents
and informal power. Is the concept of informal channels
of power threatening to vulnerable youngsters; is it
disruptive of an orderly sense of continuity? Will it seem
to be dishonest to earnestly moral youngsters? It need not
be. Given the authentic and intense investment of caring
adults, both educators and community agency people, early
adolescents may begin to develop realistic and wholesome
concepts of what can be expected of individuals and agencies.
It seems possible that idealism tempered by realism may be
achieved by sharing the complete story with youngsters--not
all black--not all white--but the gray of the human condi-
tion.

5a. "What is the role of the teacher/coordinator in
linking the school with private and public agencies?"

Beyond my own intense experience in linking school to
community, I found some reading and an interview helpful
in defining the dimensions of this task.

Fred Newmann gives a limited concept of the respon-
sibilities of the "community teacher" in his 1975 book,
Education for Citizen Action, projecting a minimum of
coordination for the task. However, the reader must keep
in mind the setting for Newmann's first efforts: Madison,
Wisconsin, a university site with liberal and sophisticated
attitudes. Much of his concern was to convince the public

that the social action projects did have academic sub-
stance. He relied on a citizen's advisory committee to
interpret the project to the community, to advise on
policy, to locate and secure resources, and to provide a
broad base of support. On the basis of my experience, I
agree that a prestigious advisory committee would be
indispensable to any program having continuity.

The community teacher has the onus of seeing that the
special activities of a citizen action group do not create
a privileged group irritating the larger student popula-
tion by disturbing others. Added to this is the in-school
problem of possibly becoming a catchall for students who
find all academics distasteful and who would welcome the
opportunity to "find themselves" in the community. In
other words, the community teacher occupies a position
requiring great sensitivity for in-school and community
relations, and in that capacity serves as a general
facilitator for the endeavors of individuals and groups
of students in the community. The teacher/coordinator
seeking the acceptance and support of community agencies
would attempt to sensitize the cooperating agencies to
the nature of early adolescents. A workshop for agency
people might serve to raise their level of consciousness

by informing them of the long-range benefits that may accrue as a result of youthful participation within community organizations. Participating in the educative process should be consistent with the service orientation of agencies. Fusion, the meeting of the needs of individuals and the organization, is the overall goal to be conveyed to agencies by the teacher/coordinator. A possible model for this fusion function can be seen in the work of Sarason et al. (1977).

I found living exemplars of the community service integrator in Sarason's (1977) account of the role of Mrs. Dewar in the Essex network; and in an interview with Poor (1976), I learned of other lay persons whose concept of the potential of human resources served to initiate a program of internships for high school students in a multitude of service agencies. Sarason aptly described the contribution of a person of influence in the community who "matched" resources with needs for the mutual benefit of the helper and the recipient of help. The broad perspective of Mrs. Dewar saw volunteers as more than people motivated by altruism and more than "objects of utility" (p. 40) by agencies, but instead as individuals bent on self-actualization. Schools occupying a central

position in community life became an integral part of the

matching of isolated community resources with the latent

power of students. Sarason's description of the talents

and commitment of generalist, Mrs. Dewar, is closely

related to that of the key persons who launched a network

of social services in Greensboro, N. C., as related by

Poor, the in-school coordinator of Social Service Seminar

(S.S.S.) for seniors at Page Memorial High School. The

genesis for this successful program began among influential

people in the community. A broad base of support was

secured early, and shortly a steering committee surveyed

agencies to determine need and willingness to cooperate in

an educational endeavor. The success of the program may

be measured by the growth from a select 17 academically

talented group in 1973 to a much larger and heterogeneous

group that now works with approximately 50 community

agencies. Though Poor insisted that credit for the success

of the program must go to the dedicated laymen on the

advisory committee, one senses in her person a sensitivity

to youth and the diverse needs of community agencies, a

contagious vitality, the professional competence that

prepares youngsters for coping with the many faces of

human need, and the flexibility necessary for dealing not

only with clients but also with agency leaders. These are essential qualities for the teacher/coordinator.

The two-hour weekly sessions of the pilot study over an academic semester yielded what I most earnestly sought: the assurance that some community agencies would find the service of early adolescents acceptable and would, in turn, be pleased to contribute to the educative process of developing community awareness among youth. Perhaps people in political headquarters were most conscientious in assuring that student volunteerism was mutually beneficial (and the students responded enthusiastically to this attitude). The headquarters staff carefully set forth a diversity of tasks that students could accomplish and explained the necessity of those tasks in a political campaign. Furthermore, a number of candidates came by to meet the youngsters and to express appreciation for their efforts. As a result, when the case study began, I had more knowledge of opportunities in the community appropriate for early adolescents. It is my belief that the "heady" experience of the pilot study group at Hampton Hospital influenced the case study group to choose to work with older people from among several alternatives. It was a choice they seemed not to regret. I observed a

sense of satisfaction among the group as we returned to
school on the bus.

In summary, it appears to me that the teacher/
coordinator, or community teacher team, for an established
and ongoing citizen action curriculum would have need of
an advisory committee having a broad base and the
capability of handling publicity and general policy
decisions. Finally, the teacher's (s') role is chiefly that
of integrator, a coordinator whose task is a synthesizing
of the interdependent educational demands of individuals
in a culture relying on the resourcefulness of partici-
pating citizens.

5b. "Shall only students who volunteer for the
citizen action course be included?"

An answer to this question is informed by the experi-
ences of Newmann, Mosher, Massey, and Poor as well as my
own experiences with a pilot and case study. Newmann's
initial work in the Community Issues Program, 1969-1971,
was available to all students, grades 9-12, at an
alternative high school. He reports that student evalu-
ations of the experience were positive, and Newmann gained
from the experience ideas for extending a systematic con-
cept of a citizen action program. When he, Bertocci, and

Landsness published Skills in Citizen Action in 1977, the

recommendation was still that the course be offered to

all students, but only for grades 11 and 12. The reasons

for restricting admission to older students, according to

Newmann, are that cognitive ability for formal operations

is desirable for vigorous involvement in public issues.

Mosher and Sullivan's curriculum in moral education

for adolescents (1976, p. 239) was offered as an elective

to grades 11 and 12 in the early seventies. By 1976, he

felt assured that

> adolescents can create genuine student self-government,
> become skillful in conducting and participating in
> democratic groups, and acquire higher-stage moral
> reasoning in so doing. (1977, p. 177)

Massey's students were all volunteer from public and

private schools within one community. Some of his students

were motivated to volunteer because they needed the credit

to graduate and could either avoid summer school or a

postponement of graduation by participating. Some of

Massey's students were foot-draggers who never committed

themselves to community action.

Poor's students are all volunteer; as a matter of

fact, even the greatly expanded program of S.S.S. is

highly selective among volunteers, all of which makes a

comparison of my pilot and case study interesting. The

pilot study (18 students for 15 weekly sessions) was all

volunteer, but the case study (24 students for 7 weeks of

daily sessions) had no volunteers. The all-volunteer

pilot study group was homogeneous in one respect; they had

an urgency to be actively involved with people and to

further the cause of brotherhood. This group functioned

extremely well in a number of situations and chose to

contribute to some service (to stroke victims) that in-

volved a high degree of risk. None of the heterogeneous

case study group were volunteers. Though they were re-

served and often slow to respond to new tasks and method-

ology in the classroom, their academic as well as social

behavior improved. For example, their journal entries

for the first week were sketchy, general, and revealed

little affect. Later entries were more coherent and

mentioned specific observations and impressions. Simu-

lations gave very reticent students the opportunity of

sharing new concepts, of speaking persuasively on matters

of strategy. The case study group was never involved in a

community task involving risk as was the pilot study

group--but that was not a matter of avoidance. The case

study group expressed desire to help at Hampton Hospital

with stroke victims. That this did not materialize was
due to a simple matter of conflict in scheduling.

My feeling is that in originating a program of active
citizen education, students need not necessarily be "volun-
teer" for a substantive and viable project. I predict that
after one semester of an active citizen curriculum on
campus, the administration would be flooded with applica-
tions for admission to such a program. The problem, then,
would be to screen and select students until a staff had
been recruited for an expansion of the course.

5c. "How is the feasibility of the social action
project determined, by students, student-teacher?"

It is very difficult to do justice to this question
with so short an experience in dealing with these choices.
Newmann never relates an unfortunate choice made by stu-
dents in his several years of dealing with social action
projects. He does make clear in Skills for Citizen Action
(1977) that the school must advise students and dis-
associate itself from action projects that are morally
indefensible or potentially harmful to the student or
the community. Massey's students floundered for a time
before committing themselves to an action project (volun-
teer service in park activities for youngsters). Massey

was disappointed that no group in his study chose a controversial public issue to act upon. My feeling is that in the beginning of a program of active citizen education, the projects would be chosen by students with the advice of the teacher. Hopefully, as students became more aware of community needs, agencies, and processes for delivering services, students would choose projects to test their competences on issues having meaning for themselves. The school would, of course, be obligated to withhold sponsorship of questionable ventures.

Further Issues

This study was begun with some preconceptions of civic education as a part of the secondary curriculum in public schools. As one among legions of critics, I knew that civic education fell short of the expectations of professionals and also the public, and I felt that schools could improve this area of instruction. Since then I have read from the diverse work of scholars who take many stances on the place of education in cultures experiencing rapid changes. My attention has been drawn from the studies of curriculum developers to the livelier works of political scientists whose research is enlightening about

the political socialization of youth. The more useful

findings of that research, for educators, deal with how

political learning takes place and identifying the prin-

cipal agents of this learning. These political scien-

tists, though suggesting that schools make use of their

findings and offering suggestions for curriculum reform,

are out of field on the latter, leaving educators, as

always, with the task of providing the link between theory

and practice.

Implications for Further Implementation

The implementation of a citizen action course presents

a number of questions and issues. There is a growing body

of literature about programs involving high school stu-

dents, but virtually none about early adolescents.

Allocation of resources, both of the school and cooperating

agencies is crucial for community action for the young

student. In this section I will deal with some of the

general questions surrounding problems of implementing

programs similar to the case study.

The Role of the Larger Community

Public and private voluntary agencies, in my opinion, are not likely to seek out early adolescents for educational experiences; yet their favorable, though cautious, responses to the overtures of educators for cooperative efforts, in this study, suggest a potential for enriching learning experiences of individual students by expanding the scope and setting for social learning. It is important, therefore, to respond to a number of questions that deal with the what and how of community involvement.

1. What groups of adults and students should be included on an advisory committee to interpret the program to the educational establishment and to the community?

Newmann et al. list the advantages of an advisory group in planning and anticipating difficulties and in communicating and interpreting at the operational stage. The advisory committee in general handled the tasks of public relations, and the group consisted of a small group of teachers, an administrator, community leaders, parents, and students. Poor's steering committee dealt with the functions listed and came from formal and informal leaders of the community, e.g., a city councilman and a priest.

Sarason speaks graphically in terms of the core group of a network: the group, an amoeba-like nucleus of people from schools, colleges, and public and private agencies who joined forces to foster mutual interests and a psychological sense of community. My own inclination for forming an advisory committee for a program of active citizen education for early adolescents would be initially to choose one parent from the working class as well as one professional, one school person from the administrative unit who could deal with public relations, two teachers who have credibility with the staff and also an inquiring philosophy about curriculum, and two students who are active in school and community affairs. I would expect that the advisory committee would develop firm ideas about an optimal composition and would select newcomers when vacancies occurred. Students on the committee could well be chosen from alumni of previous courses. I believe that a broad base of support such as an advisory committee lends would free educators to concentrate on a well-grounded preparation of students and also on seminars for reflections on actions and further charting of objectives.

2. How shall educators deal with the potential of censure from agencies taking exception to social action

by students that conflicts with the philosophy of the agency?

Any school offering courses in active citizen education must embrace a philosophy that teaching young people to be participants in civic affairs is a basic responsibility of education. School sponsorship of student involvement in social action projects of a controversial nature does not violate the neutrality of the school. These basic premises must be accepted by the school and communicated to the community at large early on.

For example, what about possible objections of religious fundamentalists to the heart of the discussions of moral dilemmas, that right is determined by reason rather than dogma? The objection to the schools fostering the notion that right is determined by reasoning is perhaps of concern in only a few regions having large numbers of religious fundamentalists, but it is illustrative of the kind of issues that create tension. The young person in a democracy can expect to be presented with conflicting ideas from the media, peer group, home, and, not the least, the school. A robust society thrives on bold analysis of issues that arise. The schools must, of

course, be sensitive to community norms, but they must never bow to the tyranny of limiting the spirit of inquiry.

3. What are appropriate means for keeping parents informed of program objectives and the progress of their child in the program?

One might expect that the young person's experiences in a nontraditional course would prompt him to share new experiences. A monthly newsletter could inform parents and interested people in the public of the projects underway and the students committed to them. A public message growing out of the communication component could well summarize the investment and the reflections of the students on the collective judgment of their effort, and also the reaction of individuals to the organization and function of significant community agencies, and perhaps the personal stress or gratification in being involved in the community.

Evaluation

On what basis shall individual students be evaluated for their participation in active citizen education?

My own observation is that this model presents unique opportunities for the recognition and reward of talents

and competences overlooked by traditional classroom activities. For example, the ability to persuade others is a critical skill for salespersons, for members of the board, for union leaders, in fact, for any participatory citizen as well as the politician. I am saying that students who may have not succeeded in traditional tasks may be very skillful in advocating, in negotiating, and may show a special aptitude in getting a group to work cooperatively. They may also gain insight into effective personal communication and be able to share this insight with others.

The course fosters these competences, and so students should be evaluated on the development and use of skills that have equally important elements--first, a concept, and second, the application of that concept in a real situation. Grades, though of dubious merit for many, are a continuing reality of the evaluation of students. They are the means of motivating by some teachers and a measure of "how Johnny is doing" in relation to peers, by parents and student . I say that the active citizen education teacher should reward the reflective and productive student with commensurate grades.

Youngsters should be held accountable for an earnest

effort in reaching objectives that he/she or his/her group

sets with the guidance of the teacher. The student should

be commended for keen observation, sensitivity to the

viewpoint of others in interaction, and persistence in

inquiring into process. I would rely on a student's

journal to reveal his concept of structure, process, and

the interdependence of community services. I would observe

the student's contribution to small group work, e.g, moral

dilemma discussions, a group seeking to set priorities

and strategies in simulations, seminars to reflect on the

outcome of community investment, and the small group role

play and discussions that inhere in the guidance/counseling

component. Newmann et al. (1977) offer a chart to document

student proficiency and productivity on seven citizen

action competencies (p. 119). I find the competencies

appropriate, the list of inventories for productivity

helpful, but I have serious reservations about the ob-

jective tests suggested for documenting proficiency of the

competences. I would suggest that students rate them-

selves on the degree of proficiency and then compare this

evaluation with that of the teacher. The evaluation for

the cumulative folder would be fail-pass-pass with

distinction, and a brief summary of the student's progress
in each of the components of the model.

Teacher Education: Pre-service and In-service

The role of the teacher assumed different dimensions
in this study. In the interviews following the case study,
students reported a different perspective of their teacher,
Mr. Gordon. The Mr. Gordon who became a working member of
their group to render services to the elderly--when
pulling on a starter for a balky lawn mower--became a
person whose action revealed an industrious, caring human
being, an image not readily projected in the traditional
classroom. The role of the teacher, as perceived by
students in this study, appears to have changed from that
of dispenser of knowledge and evaluator of responses to
that of coach/conductor, i.e., one having commitment to a
quality performance. By sharing in the tasks, a truly
team effort resulted. The long-standing problem of
motivating early adolescents is addressed by this strategy;
an us effort has momentum not possible in a him versus us
tension.

In an established yet dynamic program of active civic
education, with large numbers of students opting for the

course, how shall the staff be recruited, and how shall they be given appropriate in-service training?

I find this question troubles me greatly, and I am not sanguine about the implementation of active citizen education courses in the near future because of the crucial matter of personnel. Though I can conceive of well-trained English teachers who can competently meet the demands of sender/receiver analysis, persuasive writing and speech, in fact, the broad range of communication skills this course requires, I know of few teachers with a compelling interest in having an impact on community affairs. Certainly, teacher training institutions are not preparing professionals for so broad a task.

There is a concept of teaching/learning in this model, a rejection of a dispenser/receiver of knowledge concept. There is the mutual inquiry of teachers and students. We ponder, we reach out, we examine, we take the leap, we exult in gains, we consider our failures, we reflect on the complexities and values of our experiences before launching a new circle of investment. Hampden-Turner's psycho-social model charts the journey for the teacher and student alike toward an ever expanding realm of civic competence. The flexibility for initiating a program of active citizen

education, of necessity depends on elightened adminis-
tration; the carrying through must be done with the
teachers having the attitudinal qualities of assertiveness
and humility, who can and will genuinely join students in
a mutual search for civic competence. The overriding
concept of mutual quest is a recurring theme of this study.
I have serious doubts that any teacher in this decade can
be adequately prepared for the tasks of implementing this
course. The student/teacher team spirit of learning,
working, and reflecting transcends the usual structure and
demands of teaching.

How can the competence of teachers be improved in the
vital areas of developing strategies for promoting inter-
personal skills and a positive self-concept among early
adolescents?

I believe this model, in a modest way, speaks to this
problem. Counselors are most often confined to an office
to meet the demands of individual students, small groups,
and the administrative needs of scheduling, testing, and
conferring. The weekly sessions of the counselor, Mr.
Holmes, in the classroom of this study resulted in a number
of learning experiences. For one thing, Mr. Holmes got the
feel again of the dynamics of the total classroom, the

nuances of the leading and receding personalities of the students. For another, the students (with no serious problems, or at least no recognized problems) had the opportunity of getting to know Mr. Holmes and of inter-acting with him. He became more human and approachable through the role playing exercises of transactional analysis. One could hope that the quietly troubled youngster would feel that he had a safe entree to coun-seling services. Lastly, the teachers, Mr. Gordon and I, observed strategies in action from one keeping abreast of the refinements of building interpersonal skills and positive self-concept. We were able to continue patterns of interchanges and to be alert to the next step when Mr. Holmes came to the classroom on the following week. To my knowledge, all competent school counselors are overworked. There is, however, a loss to the student population as well as the staff when the resources of the counselor are spent altogether within an office. Because the counselor and the teacher are dealing with the same individuals, it presents a concrete learning situation, far more desirable than summer courses, or after-school workshops when the teacher's response to the descriptions of deviant behavior is a rueful smile. Perhaps the

prescribed strategy for the deviant behavior is just potential misunderstanding. I feel that having the counselor in the classroom on a regular basis offers unusual benefits for enhancing the service of the counselor and an optimum in-service experience for the teacher.

What is the role of teacher preparation institutions in broadening the perspective of teachers who will enter the field of citizen education?

Teacher training institutions assert that they prepare teachers to meet the demand of school systems, who in turn are responsive to public wishes. This rationale hardly takes into account the substantial lag between public awareness of deficiencies and the modification of college curricula. Educators, college professors, curriculum developers, and administrators are obligated to provide professional leadership. They must encourage and help teachers to see themselves, "be both lamp and mirror," to use the words of David Purpel.

There appears to be little linkage between resources of the community and teacher preparation for civic education. It is my opinion that a sound background in the social sciences is only the beginning for the competent teacher of civic education. An internship in a social

agency with a classroom teacher serving as mentor could put the prospective teacher in the two worlds of effective citizen education, e.g., first the classroom for concept building and reflection and second the community where issues must be acted upon.

Flexibility and Scheduling

How is flexibility achieved in the school day in scheduling to provide sufficient time for community work?

The rigidity of the school day for early adolescents is an administrative and pedagogical horror. In the name of equality, equal loads for teachers, and equal opportunity for students, the 50-minute period measures the day, mindless of the different needs for foreign language, science labs, mathematics drill and application, and career exploration. Only the core concept offers any reasonable time slot to the serious implementation of a community action program. A 150-180 minute block of time for a quarter or semester has the possibility of satisfying results. Any less time would be self-defeating. The 105-minute block of time for the case study set a pace that could not be sustained over a period of time.

The Sequence (Evolution) of Acquiring
Civic Competence

When should students in a curriculum of active
citizen education progress beyond volunteer community
service into social action projects?

I think that Newmann et al. have given a good answer
to this question in their recommendation that only students
of grades 11 and 12 be admitted to the course because much
of the curriculum for social action requires that partici-
pants reason at an abstract level. Younger students are
in a transitional stage of cognitive development.

I see a natural progression of civic involvement for
adolescents that takes its cue from the developmental
strengths of the age. Early adolescents begin to move
beyond an egocentric toward a sociocentric orientation
through activities of volunteer service; they begin to know
about and understand the function of local agencies through
visitation, speakers, and the service of themselves or
peers. They begin to conceptualize the process of con-
flict resolution through the safe medium of simulations.
They hone skills of communication to analyze and interpret
the more complex working of human interaction.

The mid-adolescent (14-15) is capable of a higher level of reasoning, the "conditional mode" that Adelson describes (1972, p. 114) as avoiding the absolutism of childhood and instead considering contingencies. His developing intellectual facility generates an interest in the realm of politics. The psychological development of this age senses a growing autonomy; adulthood is just over the horizon and so is civic responsibility. It is a time for focusing on a larger sphere of political awareness, the state and the nation. This student who can get a work permit can also move beyond peer group volunteer service to internship as an individual. Here is the opportunity to judge and be judged as a single person adapting to the realities that he is now able to recognize. The first faint stirring of ideology is taking place in his psyche.

Finally, the adolescent proper (16-19), having made the transition from the concrete to abstract mode of thinking, and having done an apprenticeship as a group and later an individual volunteer, is ready to test a maturing civic competence in the arena of conflicting public issues.

Conclusions

Prevailing social concerns of the late twentieth century prompt one to ponder the regularity and magnitude of the swing of the pendulum of public attitude of what education is basic for youth in a democracy.

The consequence of national shame of the late sixties and early seventies has been a mighty backlash to "simple" and "conservative" values. The cheerful and optimistic American spirit suffered great loss under the multiple blows of (a) an extended war that scarcely could be justified as in the national interest and that created a deep division among citizens, particularly the young and older citizens, (b) an imperialist presidency, insulated from the needs and values of the people, that ended in disgrace to the office, (c) the expenditure of large sums of money and verbiage for equalization of educational opportunity, which seemed not to yield expected results, and (d) a continuation of the civil rights struggle from the level of glaring injustices such as voting, representation, and public accommodations to the less visible but abrasive level of housing and the availability of jobs with a future and positions of real decision making rather than token management.

If one concedes that busing has brought emotional upheavals into the school day that disrupted learning and caused the children of the seventies to have gained fewer of the skills of literacy and "numeracy" than those of the sixties, then better strategies must be devised to help youngsters acquire basic skills of reading comprehension, accurate computation, and articulate verbal and written communication. However, I suggest that this definition of basics is too narrow, since it avoids the basics of social consciousness. In concentrating on the three R's, educators run the risk of becoming slaves to the limited and astringent perspective of the test makers. Excellence in education is more than turning out highly skilled artists, engineers, and technocrats. We have yet to devise instruments to measure the concepts and behaviors of social consciousness that are essential to a sense of community. Is it not basic to the health of this society to have knowledge of and respect for the complexities and subtleties of our multicultural society and the will to be a participant in making just decisions for the collective good?

If educators are truly to be "lamps" to society, then they should initiate curriculum in civic education that

makes use of the community as a laboratory for social learning. There is in the Poor account of the S.S.S. at Page High School a success story that began with community leaders. Sarason seems to say that viable and almost limitless programs for an enhanced sense of community come from unpredictable sources within the community. I believe he would opt for the motivation of informal leaders, unfettered by constraints of bureaucracy, to initiate a program of active citizen education in the public schools.

Many questions remain; many more will be unearthed if researchers probe the potential of early adolescents to be active, inquiring, and competent. This modest study has merely taken a small step toward using the resources of the school to more closely link the individual to his community.

The model in this study is not one of political socialization for conformity; the mutual inquiry of teachers and students assures openness. Though it accepts and makes use of the tradition of volunteerism, it does not aim to maintain the status quo. On the other hand, it is not revolutionary; the activism is not radical, bent on tearing down the structure of local institutions, but instead, encourages activism within and for the enhancement

of community service. Bringing young people into community agencies does create a healthy tension, there being the potential for failure as the generations interact. This model requires of sponsoring adults a philosophy of extending to the young the facts, the logic, the quest, and the truth of the culture through mutual experiences and the application of that philosophy with patience and persistence.

This model has relevance, not only for the explicit application to citizen education for early adolescence, but also as a model for education in general. The model blends the basic principle of combining experience and reflection in a meaningful context. It tries to construct a nexus between the individual and society. It is appropriate that the model is based in the public school, since it is the public school which has the responsibility to support the basic structure of our society, whose contract is represented in our Constitution. The health, the resilience of society in an age of rapid change is dependent on a participating electorate, and that is the intent of this model.

My quest in addressing the major issues of this dissertation began with some basic assumptions of mine of the

interwoven needs and responsibilities of the individual citizen and his society. My assumptions are that:

1. A democratic society is worthy of preservation and enlargement because of its inherent commitment to justice, human dignity, and equality.

2. Elected officials of democracy derive the power from the consent of the governed.

3. The governed constrain incumbent officials, keeping them responsive to the electorate by possessing civic competence.

4. Each new generation is inducted into the civic culture of its system.

5. In democracies, the schools should be the principal institution for developing civic competence, or politically socializing youth.

6. Civic competence is an extension of personal competence.

7. Early adolescents, engrossed in the quest for identity, require experiences both in school and in the community for developing the essence of civic competence, that is, a sense of self and a sense of community.

The commitment to a simultaneous thrust toward these mutual goals is well explained by the following words of Weller (1977):

One's sense of self and personal identity are largely
a function of what one is willing and able to do.
Risking new challenge and actively operating on the
world around us provide both a context and a push for
growth . . . . In actively dealing with the world we
learn about ourselves in new and powerful ways. How
we feel about ourselves is directly related to how
well we learn and our ability to cope and grow, but
it is through challenge and active coping that we en-
large the basic sense of self. (p. 11)

A Personal Note

My growth, the enhancement of my perspective as a consequence of this quest, has not come in a calculated and even progression or with the grace one might expect of a mature person. Instead, the uneven experiences, the vacillating emotional peaks and valleys have been reminiscent of my own and long ago adolescence. Once defined, the study has controlled me, rather than I controlling it. A reading acquaintance with a number of scholars has stirred my heart and mind and sent my spirit soaring. The urgency I felt for communicating the truths and insights that have emerged for me in pursuance of this challenge--and my sense of inadequacy in sharing these ideas--has raised doubts about myself. It has been a humbling experience, in the sense that I am more aware of my shortcomings--and at the same time, I feel immense gratitude for the opportunity for taking this journey. I am more a part of a larger world, a unique world that Mead describes as having never been before--and will never be again. I have a sense of the generativity that Erikson describes as the virtue of the age, "caring" for not only our children but our ideas also.

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APPENDIX A: PREPARATORY MATERIALS

<u>Parent Consent Form for Pilot Study</u>

Ramsay Junior High School

September 10, 1976

To the Parents of _____,

    Your child has been contacted about participating in a pilot study for my doctoral dissertation. I am on leave until January 1977 to complete my course work at U.N.C.-Greensboro.

    The pilot study involves working with fifteen 8th grade students in the area of Social Studies. The group will meet with me for two periods every Friday to participate in an action oriented citizen education program. The purposes for the students are to (1) elevate awareness of governmental, economic and cultural forces in Charlotte-Mecklenburg and (2) encourage personal competence. It will be necessary to make a number of field trips. If you wish your child to participate, I request a permission from you for all the necessary trips.

    Only those students whose parents and teachers consent to the two period Friday class will be selected for the study. I will be responsible for a grade to the teacher who releases a student to participate. Attached is a tentative schedule and the permission form.

Billie Bourgeois

Calendar of Major Events of the Pilot Study

9-3   Made Administrative Arrangements

9-10   Meeting with Students

9-17   Chose participants, Coordinated schedules

9-24   Orientation

10-1   Community Awareness, Met Mrs. Walter Mondale and local government leaders at the airport

10-8   Students met with coordinator of Volunteer Service Center

10-15   Volunteer service at Democratic Headquarters

10-22   Volunteer service at the Democratic Headquarters

10-29   Discussion of Moral Dilemma

11-5   Volunteer service for Mr.Hayden through Council on Aging

11-12   Discussion and decisions on further service projects

11-19   Volunteer service for the Sanders and McGows through Council on Aging

12-2   Volunteer service at the Hampton Hospital

12-11   Volunteer service at the Hampton Hospital

12-18   Evaluation

Month of January, at scheduled times produced the public message.

Letter to Parents of Case Study Students

Ramsay Junior High School
March 30, 1977

Dear

I am doing the case study for my dissertation in Mr. Gordon's first and second period Social Studies class in which your child _____ is a student. It is a six-week study focusing on citizenship education with emphasis on active participation in local concerns. The group will make several field trips to see the County Commission, City Council, and School Board in session, and hopefully a trip to Raleigh to sit in on committee meetings of the legislature. Competence in communication is a necessary part of effective citizenship, so critical listening, writing, and speaking will be stressed along with picture taking, audio and video taping. A strong sense of self with realistic knowledge of one's effectiveness in interacting with others is important. Mrs. Lee and Mr. Holmes will participate in the guidance phase of the study.

The students will make a choice of a volunteer service, to be done once a week within school hours in the community. Possibilities are (1) tutoring primary students, (2) being companions and helpers to elderly patients at the hospital in Huntersville, (3) make a survey of solid waste for a recommendation to the legislature on a House bill, (4) restore and extend the nature trail on Ramsay campus.

Citizenship is the overall goal of Social Studies. This study will not take your child from required tasks to his/her detriment but is designed to enhance the concept of local affairs and the opportunity to influence those affairs.

I welcome your comments.

Sincerely yours,

Billie Bourgeois

Parent Consent Form for the Case Study

Ramsay Citizen Action Project

_____ has my permission to participate

in all of campus activities of the Ramsay Citizen Action

Project beginning April 12 and ending May 20. I realize

there will be field trips and volunteer citizen action

tasks within Mecklenburg County. I understand that the

project leader and teacher, Mrs. Bourgeois and Mr. Gordon

will provide general supervision and evaluation of project

activities and that parents and other school patrons will

be encouraged to view a "Public Message" prepared by the

project students to relate and interpret their experiences.

Parent or Guardian's signature_____

Date_____

I will respond to a questionnaire similar to the attached

one when the project ends, giving my opinion of the value

of this project to my child as a maturing citizen.

Yes_____ No _____

Questionnaire for Parents of Case Study Students

Please respond as follows: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree somewhat, 3 - agree somewhat, 4 - strongly agree

1___My student has talked to me about his/her experiences in the citizen action project.

2___My student seems more confident and able to communicate effectively with others.

3___My student is more at ease with adults.

4___My student has shared the experience of field trips and visitors with me.

5___My student reports satisfaction in volunteer activities.

6___My student appears to have knowledge of how decisions are made, and how things get done in Charlotte and Mecklenburg County.

7___I think my student may want to participate in community affairs.

8___My student's attendance has been good these six weeks.

9___My student's grades have improved these six weeks.

10___My student is eager to talk about what is right or wrong about people's behavior.

11___I think the project has had a positive effect on my child as a student.

12___I would like my student to have more influence in the community as he/she matures.

Please list the better experiences of the project.

What experiences were less worthwhile?

APPENDIX B: EVALUATION MATERIALS

Self-Appraisal Inventory

Secondary Level

1. School work is fairly easy for me.
2. I am satisfied to be just what I am.
3. I ought to get along better with other people.
4. My family thinks I don't act as I should.

5. People often pick on me.
6. I don't usually do my share of work at home.
7. I sometimes feel upset while I'm at school.
8. I often let other people have their way.

9. I have as many friends as most people.
10. Usually no one pays much attention to me at home.
11. Getting good grades is pretty important to me.
12. I can be trusted as much as anyone.

13. I am well liked by kids my own age.
14. There are times when I would like to leave home.
15. I forget most of what I learn.
16. My family is surprised if I do things with them.

17. I am often not a happy person.
18. I am not lonely very often.
19. My family respects my ideas.
20. I am not a very good student.

21. I often do things that I'm sorry for later.
22. Older kids seem to like me.
23. I sometimes behave badly at home.
24. I often get discouraged in school.

25. I often wish I were younger.
26. I am usually friendly toward other people.
27. I don't usually treat my family as well as I should.
28. My teacher makes me feel I am not good enough.

29. I always like being the way I am.
30. I am just as well liked as most people.
31. I cause trouble to my family.
32. I am slow in finishing my school work.

33. I often am not as happy as I would like to be.
34. I am not as nice looking as most people.
35. I don't have many friends.
36. I feel free to argue with my family.

37. Even if I have something to say, I often don't say it.
38. Sometimes I am among the last to be chosen for teams.
39. I feel that my family always trusts me.
40. I am a good reader.

41. It is hard for me to make friends.
42. My family would help me in any kind of trouble.
43. I am not doing as well in school as I would like to.
44. I find it hard to talk in front of the class.

45. I sometimes feel ashamed of myself.
46. I wish I had more close friends.
47. My family often expects too much of me.
48. I am not very good in my school work.

49. I am not as good a person as I would like to be.
50. Sometimes I am hard to make friends with.
51. I wish I were a different person.
52. People don't usually have much fun when they are with me.

53. I am an important person to my family.
54. People think I am a good student.
55. I am not very sure of myself.
56. Often I don't like to be with other kids.

57. My family and I have a lot of fun together.
58. There are times when I feel like dropping out of school.
59. I can always take care of myself.
60. Many times I would rather be with kids younger than me.

61. My family doesn't usually consider my feelings.
62. I can't be depended on.

Student Perception of Civic Competence (S.P.C.C.)

WRITE IN THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE

STRONGLY DISAGREE 1	DISAGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	AGREE 4	STRONGLY AGREE 5

_____ 1. Right now I feel that what I do in my community makes a difference.

_____ 2. People my age can influence the choices of the school board.

_____ 3. Once I set a goal for myself, it is hard for me to change.

_____ 4. I feel so strongly about goals that if I fail in one attempt, I try another approach.

_____ 5. I do well to take care of my own affairs without getting involved in community affairs.

_____ 6. As I become an adult, I expect to have more influence in my neighborhood and city.

_____ 7. I feel that adults appreciate the efforts of students to make the community a better place to live.

_____ 8. Adults care about the aims of students and are willing to work with them.

_____ 9. Adults want students to do what suits them rather than cooperate in working with student aims.

_____ 10. Decisions are made democratically at local levels of government.

_____ 11. It is important to belong to a group that thinks as I do, if I want to influence community decisions.

____12. If I knew I could influence community affairs, I would not care to do so.

____13. Politics is a dirty word; I do not care to be involved.

____14. Local government would be better with student input.

____15. Some areas of Charlotte-Mecklenburg have more power than others.

____16. Each area of Charlotte-Mecklenburg should be equally represented on the County Commission, City Council, and School Board.

____17. I would like to be involved in public affairs.

Student Perception of Elected Officials

How would you describe your _____?

1.	Friendly	: : : : : :	Unfriendly
2.	Warm-hearted	: : : : : :	Cold-Hearted
3.	Weak	: : : : : :	Strong
4.	Popular	: : : : : :	Unpopular
5.	Rich	: : : : : :	Poor
6.	Cares about me and my family	: : : : : :	Doesn't care about me and my family
7.	Does things for selfish reasons.	: : : : : :	Does things for the good of all people.
8.	Pays attention to complaints.	: : : : : :	Doesn't pay attention to complaints.
9.	Can have their decisions changed by ordinary people.	: : : : : :	Can have their decisions changed only by powerful people.
10.	Run by a few big and powerful groups.	: : : : : :	Run by people just like ourselves.
11.	Gets things done.	: : : : : :	Often doesn't get things done.
12.	Can be trusted.	: : : : : :	Can NOT be trusted.

Student Interest and Participation in Civic Affairs

Name_____ Date_____

Here are some things which young people say they do in their own communities. If you have done any of these things within the past year, put a (✓) in the Yes box. If no, put a (✓) in the No box.

	Yes	No
Listened to a political party broadcast, or looked at a political telecast.		
Tried to get elected in your school to be a club chairman or secretary, or class president, or something like that.		
Helped collect money for a good cause.		
Borrowed a book from the library to understand more about current affairs.		
Read a book about the United Nations.		
Found out something for yourself about how the city council or county commission does its work.		
Asked your parents questions about different political parties.		

Student Beliefs in "Rights and Freedoms"

of Diverse Groups

Name _____   Date _____

There are lots of different people in our nation. Do you think they
should all have the same rights and freedoms as everyone else or
should they be treated differently? Please put a check (✓) for
every group to show how YOU think they should be treated.

They should have	More rights and freedoms than every- one else.	Exactly the same as every- one else	Fewer rights and freedoms than every- one else	I don't know.
Lawyers				
Religious leaders				
Discharged prisoners				
Black people				
Artists				
Communists				
Factory workers				
Leaders of big business				
Military leaders				
Tramps				
People with anti- American views				

Student Perception of Who Helps Decide

What Laws Are Made

Name_____ Date_____

How much do these people help to decide which laws are made for our nation: Very Much, Some, Very Little, or Not at all? Put a check (✔) for each person or group of people listed below.

	Very Much	Some	Very Little	Not at all	I don't know
Rich people————					
Union leaders_____					
The President_____					
Newspaper editors_____					
Church leaders____					
The average person_____					
A member of Congress_____					
Some big companies_____					
High military officials____					
Radio and TV commentators____					

Student Perception of the Degree of Agreement

of Significant Adults

Name _____   Date _____

Do all adults generally agree about what our government should do or
do they sometimes disagree? Below you will find different groups of
people in each question; please tell us how you think they agree with
each other about what the government should do, putting a (✔) in the
right column. At the top of the columns you will find the following
headings:

> Mostly agree
>
> Agree about half the time
>
> Disagree most of the time   about what the government
>   should do.
> I don't know

	Mostly agree	Agree about half of the time	Disagree most of the time	I don't know
Men and women				
Business leaders and union leaders				
Newspapers and the people in Congress				
Middle-class people and working-class people				
People of different religions				
Well-to-do people and poor people				
Different political parties				
Radio or TV commentators and the people in Congress				

Student Perception of Behaviors of a Good Citizen

Name _____   Date _____

Imagine that you had to explain what a good citizen is, or what a good
citizen ought to do. Please read each sentence, then put a (✔) under
the heading "Good citizen" if that is what you mean by a good citizen.
If the sentence does not help to explain what you mean by a good
citizen, put a (✔) under "No." If you are not sure, put a (✔) under
"Not sure."

A good citizen	Good citizen	Not Sure	No
Obeys the law			
Is always polite			
Votes in every election			
Is loyal to his family			
Works hard			
Joins a political party			
Knows a good deal about how our tax money is spent			
Has good table manners			
Studies hard to pass an examination			
Pays his taxes regularly			
Keeps up with what is happening in the world			
Tries to change things in the government			
Gets other people to vote in elections			
Stands up when the national anthem is played			
Shows respect for a funeral			
Belongs to a labor union			

Attitude Toward Older People Inventory

WRITE IN APPROPRIATE RESPONSE

STRONGLY DISAGREE 1	DISAGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	AGREE 4	STRONGLY AGREE 5

_____ 1. Aging means a slowing down process.

_____ 2. "With age, comes wisdom."

_____ 3. A prevalence of older people creates a pleasant residential neighborhood.

_____ 4. Older people are boring when they talk of the "good old days."

_____ 5. All older people require the same needs.

_____ 6. It's good to have young and old living in the same residential unit.

_____ 7. Older people should be allowed to work as long as they are competent, regardless of age.

_____ 8. Older people lack ability to change.

_____ 9. Older people insist on giving unwanted advice.

_____10. Most older adults are emotionally disturbed.

_____11. Older people are no easier or harder to understand than younger people.

_____12. Older people need the same degree of love and understanding as younger people.

_____13. More older people than younger are disagreeable and argumentative.

_____14. Most older people are fun to be around.

_____15. Older people don't care what their residential areas look like.

_____16. Each older person is a unique individual.

_____17. Our political system suffers because there are so many older people in public office.

_____18. People at age 65 have the same problems as people age 80.

_____19. Once you reach 60, you should begin to withdraw from society.

_____20. By age 80, one should have withdrawn from active participation in public affairs.

_____21. After age 65, one should not participate in sexual activity.

_____22. When an older person can no longer function independently, he or she should be removed from society by permanent institutionalization.

_____23. An older adult should not concern himself/herself with sex.

_____24. When an older person no longer seems to be contributing to the community, he/she should be rehabilitated for re-entry into active community life.

_____25. It's silly for a 60-year old to seek a college degree.

_____26. "You can't teach an old dog new tricks."

_____27. A retired individual's experiences are often valuable when shared in family, school, or community programs.

_____28. Children have an obligation to take care of their aged parents or grandparents.

____29. Neither formal nor informal education has to stop at age 65.

____30. The dying process should be a dignified one.

Questions for the Student Interview

at the Conclusion of the Study

1. What activity has been most interesting to you?

2. Would you care to take part in a similar study?

3. Has the study changed your relations with other class members?

4. Do you feel that the activities fostered a feeling of community? How?

5. Do you think the experiences of this study will affect your thinking or behavior four years from now? How?

6. Has the community been affected by this study?

7. How would you compare this study to other civic education you have had?

8. What activity has been most meaningful to you as a person?

9. What activity, if any, has been difficult or lacking in meaning?

10. If you were planning a course for active civic education, what activities would you keep? Leave out? Add to?

11. How has this class been different from your other classes at Ramsay?

12. Have you had other classes like this one? Tell me about them.

13. What was the role of the teacher? The student? The counselor?

14. If you had the choice, would you have participated in this study?

15. What did you expect of this course?

16. In your estimation, has this course been a success or failure? Why?

17. Do you feel that you know more now about how things get done in your community?

18. Do you feel that you could join with others in influencing public affairs? How?

19. Is it important to consider what is right or wrong before getting involved in public affairs?

20. How would you define community now?

APPENDIX C: CASE STUDY MATERIALS

Kohlberg's Moral Dilemma of Heinz

and Student's Response Sheet

In Europe, a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that the doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost him to make. He paid $200 for the radium and charged $2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about $1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and broke into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife.

1. Should Heinz have done that? Was it actually wrong or right? Why?

2. Is it a husband's duty to steal the drug for his wife if he can get it no other way? Would a good husband do it?

3. Did the druggist have the right to charge that much when there was no law actually setting a limit to the price? Why?

Answer questions 4a and b only if you think Heinz should steal the drug.

4. a) If the husband does not feel very close or affectionate to his wife, should he still steal the drug?

   b) Suppose it wasn't Heinz's wife who was dying of cancer but it was Heinz's best friend. His friend didn't have any money and there was no one in his family willing to steal the drug. Should Heinz steal the drug for his friend in that case? Why?

Answer questions 5a and b only if you think Heinz should not steal the drug.

5. a) Would you steal the drug to save your wife's life?

b) If you were dying of cancer but were strong enough, would you steal the drug to save your own life?

6. Heinz broke into the store and stole the drug and gave it to his wife. He was caught and brought before the judge. Should the judge send Heinz to jail for stealing or should he let him go free? Why?

Gordon-Bourgeois   1 & 2 Period

Name_____   Date_____

1. [ ] right?   [ ] wrong?

    Why?

2. [ ] yes   [ ] no

    [ ] yes   [ ] no

3. [ ] yes   [ ] no

    Why?

4. a [ ] yes   [ ] no

    b [ ] yes   [ ] no

    Why?

5. a [ ] yes   [ ] no

    b [ ] yes   [ ] no

6. [ ] Send him to jail.

    [ ] Let him go.

    Why?

A Checklist of Values

by

Dr. Milton Rokeach

_____a. A comfortable life

_____b. An exciting life

_____c. A sense of accomplishment

_____d. A world at peace

_____e. A world of beauty

_____f. Equality

_____g. Family security

_____h. Freedom

_____i. Happiness

_____j. Inner harmony

_____k. Mature love

_____l. National security

_____m. Pleasure

_____n. Salvation

_____o. Self respect

_____p. Social recognition

_____q. True friendship

_____r. Wisdom

Community Awareness Assignment

Survey of the Downtown of Your City

Suppose you have come to Charlotte for the first time to find a job. You know no one. You arrive at the bus station with $50.00. Where do you find a place:

1. to buy a newspaper?

2. to take a nap?

3. to eat?

4. to be alone?

5. for emergency medical care?

6. to report your mislaid wallet?

7. to phone your family?

8. for free entertainment?

9. to worship?

10. to make friends?

What could be done to make downtown Charlotte a more hospitable place?

APPENDIX D:

REPORT OF THE ACTIVE CITIZEN EDUCATION GROUP

AT RAMSAY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

<u>Report of the Active Citizen Education Group</u>

<u>at Ramsay Junior High School</u>

The Active Citizen Education Group considered several opportunities for volunteer service in the community and chose to work with the elderly. The Council on Aging welcomed our offer and put us in touch with a number of people who might need the service. Limitations of time and transportation and adult supervision dictated the number of people we could serve.

On April 25, twelve youngsters and Mr. Gordon arrived at Mrs. _____'s home at 1330 Cheshire. Her home is an attractive brick house. The grass needed cutting. Her mower would not keep running, and much valuable time was lost until a neighbor brought his mower. The girls helped in the house, vacuuming and dusting; the boys cut grass and trimmed shrubs. Another ten students went with Mrs. Bourgeois to the home of Mrs. _____ at 2621 Rose Avenue. Her house and yard were as neat as a pin. The students commented that they could see nothing to do. But the grass was cut, the hedges trimmed, the gutters swept and washed down, and all the outside windows were washed. Mrs. _____ was limping from a recent fall from her four-foot porch into a gardenia bush. Both were a bit worse for the accident. In less than an hour the work was done, tools cleaned and returned, and bags of clippings ready for the trash man.

On May 4, Mr. Gordon and half of the class began to help Mrs. _____ on 1532 Thriftwood. Mrs. _____ lives in a small brick house. She keeps small children. Her yard was filled with play equipment, and the equipment was moved so that the grass could be cut. Before this group finished the task, several older people came by to see whether the students would work in their yards also.

Meantime the other students and Mrs. Bourgeois went to the home of Mr. and Mrs. _____ on 1419 Enderly Road. He is terminally ill. She is a lively and attractive person. Their home is a well kept brick, the yard manicured. Our

task was to clean the windows, screens, and awnings. All necessary tools were provided. The work went very well, everyone being jolly. For a wonder, no one got "hosed." Work finished, we picked up the other crew and were rewarded with cake and punch at Mrs. _____.

The students writing in their journals said they had fun doing the work, but they had some doubt that the work needed to be done. There·are a number of the students, both black and white, who live in poorer housing than the recipients of their service.

We were not able to reach Mrs. _____, our next scheduled call (we had the wrong number and she was not listed in the telephone directory), so we phoned Mrs. _____ at 1409 Plato Circle. She said she had enough work for all of us. Her front yard was filled with flowers. The work to be done was in the back. Unfortunately there were not enough tools to go around; however, the students took turns and did very well. Mrs. _____ is quite old, a gray-haired, slight woman. Her home is a modest asbestos shingle bungalow. Mrs. _____ moved cautiously, but had a lively wit. She was a great sport, and the students enjoyed her. The back was overrun with weeds. It took great effort to cut through them so that the mower could follow. One fellow, who had stood on the sidelines at other places, joined in·the task, acknowledging that this work really needed to be done. We were not able to finish the entire back because we did not have enough tools. Mrs. _____ thanked us, and we departed in a gay mood. Back at school, the students in unison said, "Thank you for a good field trip." There seems to be growing feeling of comradeship among the group.

On May 26, with the sky overcast we went to the home of Mr. and Mrs. _____ on Druid Circle and Mr. and Mrs. _____ on Statesville Road. We were warmly greeted (the former couple had received help of the pilot study in the fall). Mr. Gordon worked with a crew at the former's, and the other crew worked with Mrs. Bourgeois across the street at the latter's. Mr. _____ is 80 and had great difficulty in breathing because of asthma. He brought out tools for us. It was disappointing that his mower was in the shop for repairs. The students did a great job on the

hedges, removed grass and weeds from the flower beds, and swept the gutters clean. The girls offered to help in the house, but Mrs. _____ declined.

From observation, it appears that this age student finds satisfaction in helping older people. Working in groups can be fun. Communication between the elderly and emerging adolescents begins tenuously and warms up as the exuberance of youth complete vigorous tasks with dispatch. A work crew of six to eight would be ideal. Short periods of intense work suit this age. They need to have their own tools for sizing up and carrying through on a job. Working in yards is a good choice for emerging adolescents, because they already have some competence in that area. Helping the elderly is also a good choice, because the need is obvious and because the elderly show their appreciation.

APPENDIX E:

SUMMARY OF THE INTERVIEW WITH JANE POOR

Summary of the Interview with Jane Poor

Page High School, Greensboro

12-8-76

The idea of a Social Service Seminar (S.S.S.) for high school students began among laymen. Joanne Bluethenthal, now on the Greensboro School Board, and Jim Scheer, a priest with United Community Services, were among the initiators. Community leaders, parents, and students discussed the possibilities and formed a steering committee, which made an assessment of private and public agencies to determine which agencies would accept interns.

The program began in 1973, with 17 well-screened, academically talented seniors. Page is the only high school in Greensboro with the program. By now, 35 to 50 agencies participate in the program. The list is found on page 6 of the Appendix.

The program requires 10 hours of participation per week, 2 hours in seminar and 8 hours in an agency. The term begins with a 2 1/2 week orientation at the school and in the community.

A part of this orientation is going into the community to help to observe the reaction of people being helped. Decision making and coping with a situation is emphasized. In positions of service, students learn about themselves, their leadership potential. The experience of survival in an outward bound type of retreat further the maturation and decisions about service to one's community and goals for life.

There are prerequisites for the course (Appendix, page 3). Application is made; students indicate areas of interest, then go for interviews. Matching students with agencies is one of the more demanding aspects of the work. Students are responsible for transportation. They keep a log; a discussion of those activities is the heart of the seminar.

Toward the end of the semester students begin an analysis of their own participation and of the Social Service Seminar. _Dynamy_, a private firm from Worchester, Mass., has done an evaluation for S.S.S. every year.

Students have gone from S.S.S. into Independent Study at Page, doing research in two areas relating to their internship. Guilford College accepts this Independent Study for credit.

APPENDIX F

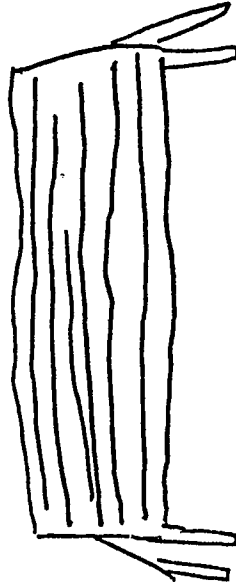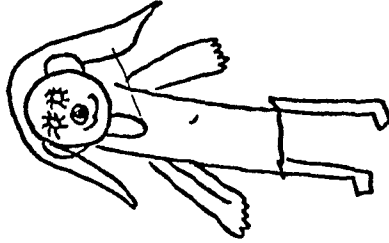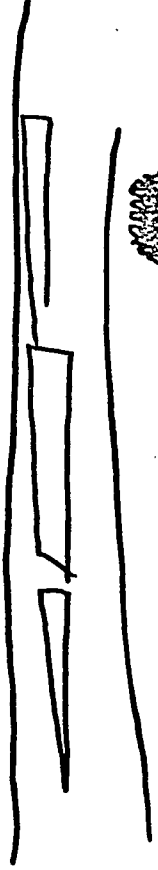CLASS PROFILE: STUDENTS OF THE CASE STUDY

Class Profile: Students of the Case Study

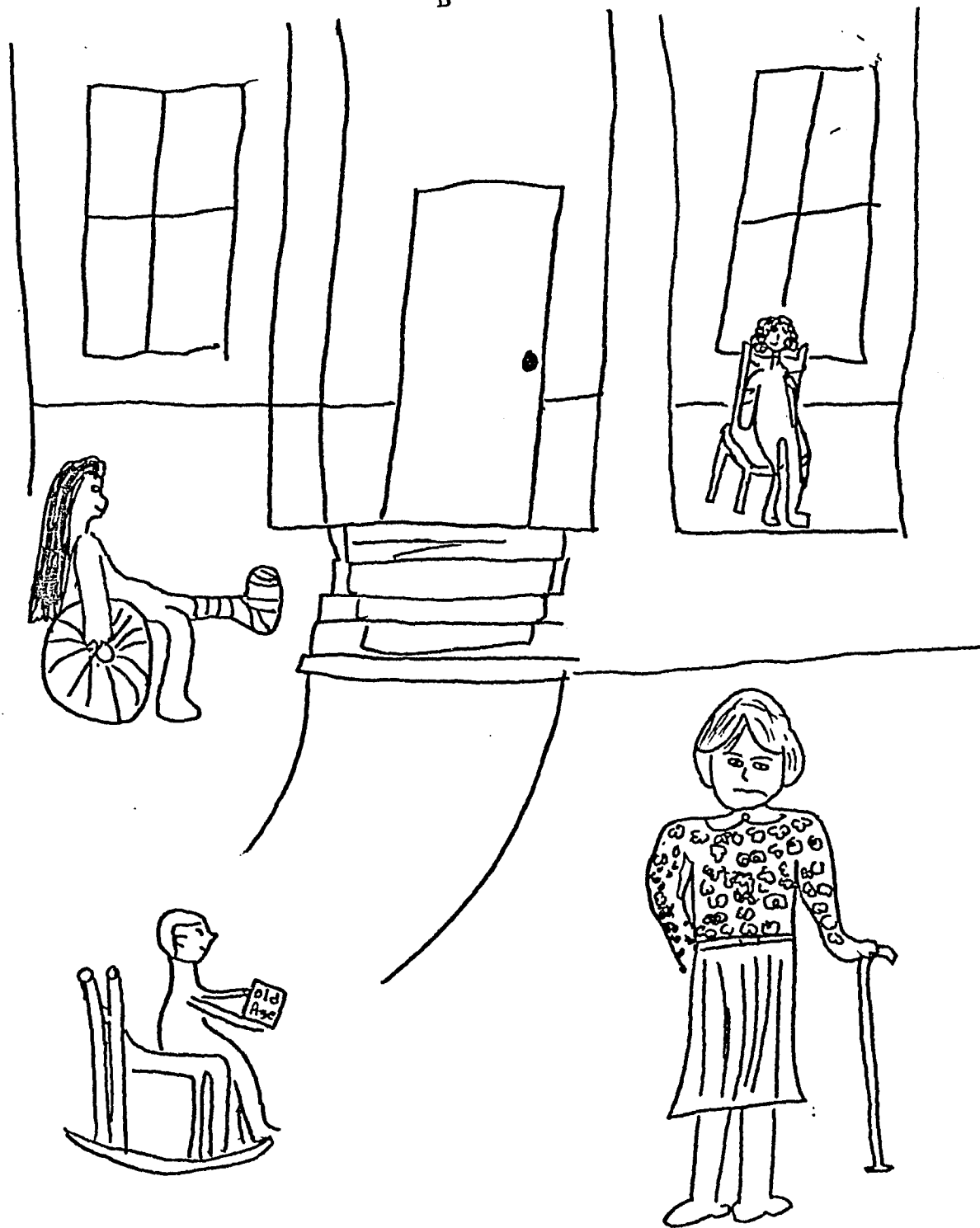| Name (initial only)	Race	Sex	I.Q.	Grade '76 LA	SS	Parent Occupation
A.	b	b	n.a.	D	F	Seamstress
A.	w	b	n.a.	B-	C	Brickmason
B.	b	b	n.a.	D	D-	Army
C.	b	g	94	A	B	Steelworker
C.	b	g	92	A	B	Truckdriver
D.	w	b	85	C-	D	Retired Truckdriver
D.	b	g	n.a.	B-	D	Clerk
D.	w	b	116	A-	A	Body repair
G.	b	b	102	B+	D	Truckdriver
H.	w	b	n.a.	C+	B	Sales Representative
J.	w	g	100	A-	B	Truckdriver
L.	b	b	n.a.	B-	D-	Mailclerk
Mc.	b	b	n.a.	A-	D	Maintenance
Mc.	b	b	n.a.	B+	C	Teacher
Mc.	w	g	n.a.	C-	F	Factory Worker
M.	w	g	91	B	B	
M.	w	g	86	D	D	Steelworker
M.	b	b	75	C-	D-	Aide to Social Service
P.	w	g	91	A-	B-	Hardware Storeowner
T.	b	g	80	C+	D	Maintenance
T.	w	g	96	A-	A-	Salesman
W.	b	g	82			
W.	b	b		C	C	Construction Worker

av.
91.5

n.a. - not available
LA - Language Arts
SS - Social Studies

APPENDIX G: COLLAGES

293

Free dom Park

A

B

C

D
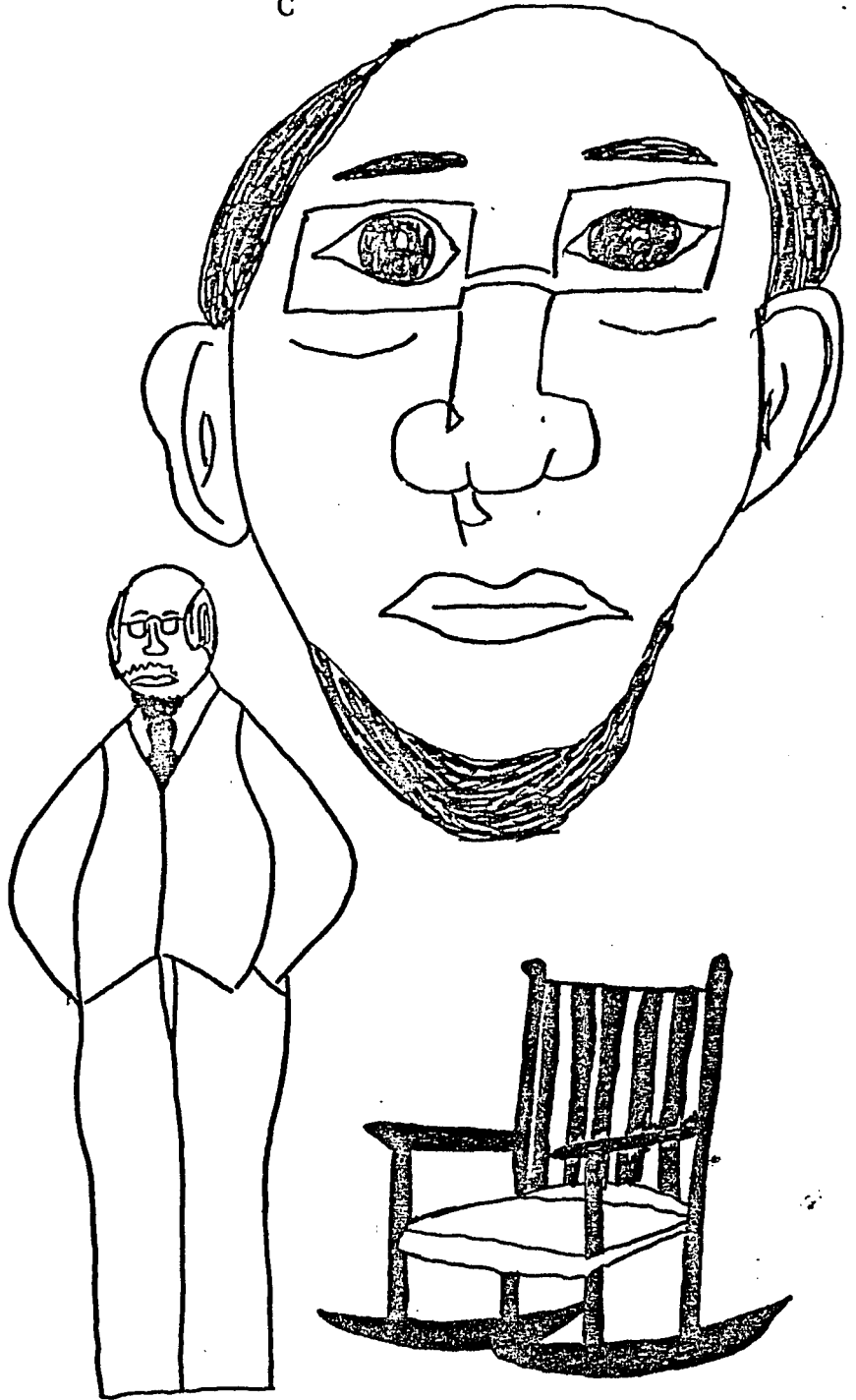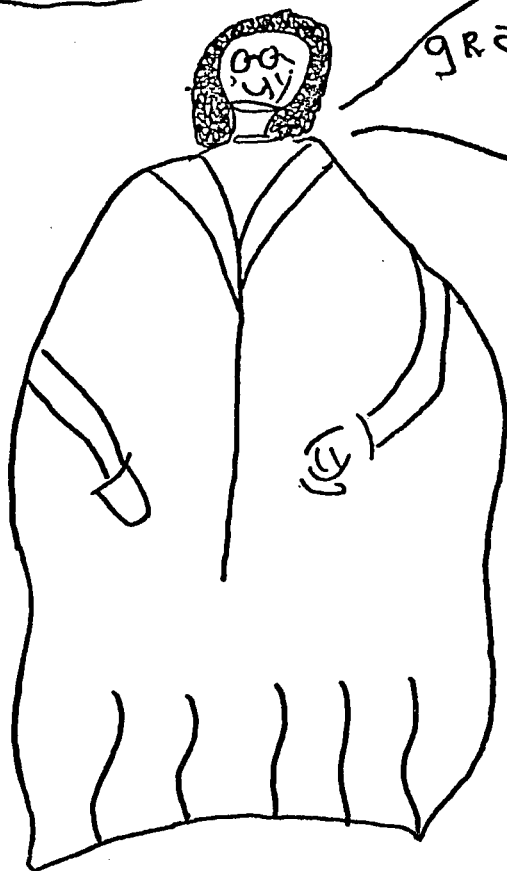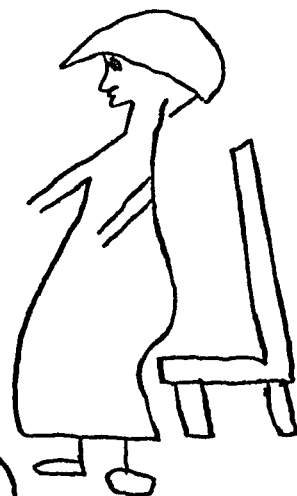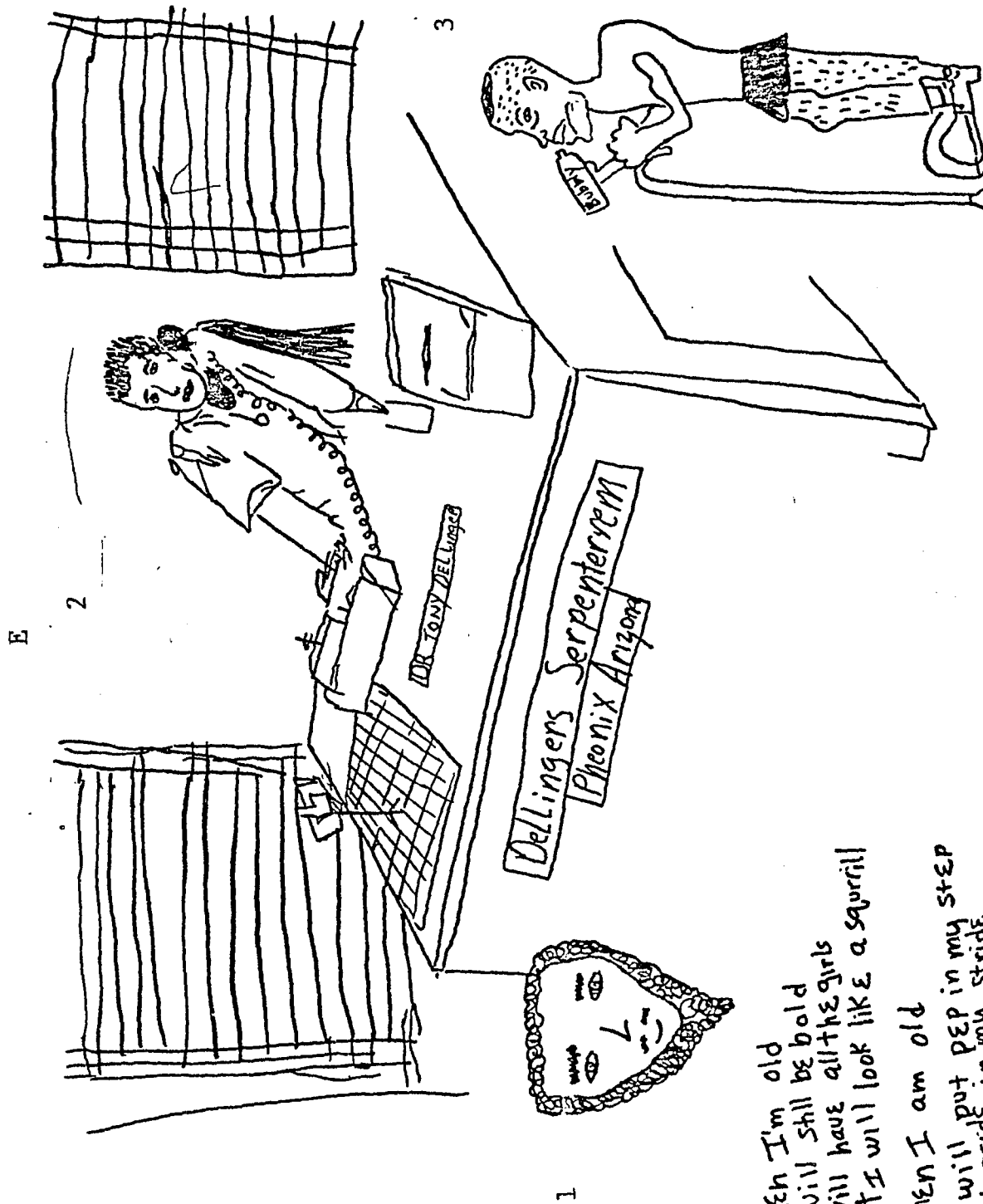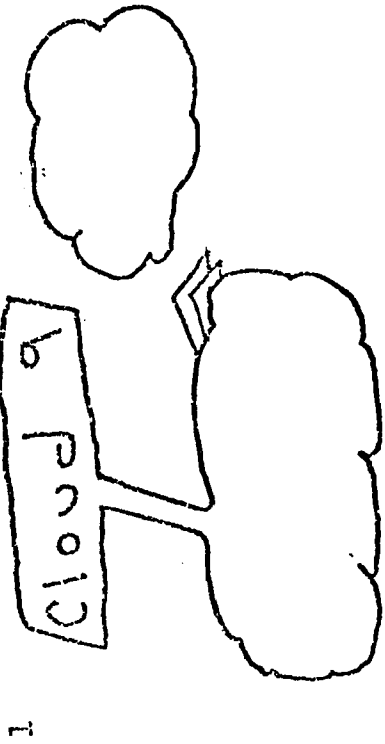
I'm a grandmother now!

this is me when I'm 70 years old

E

2
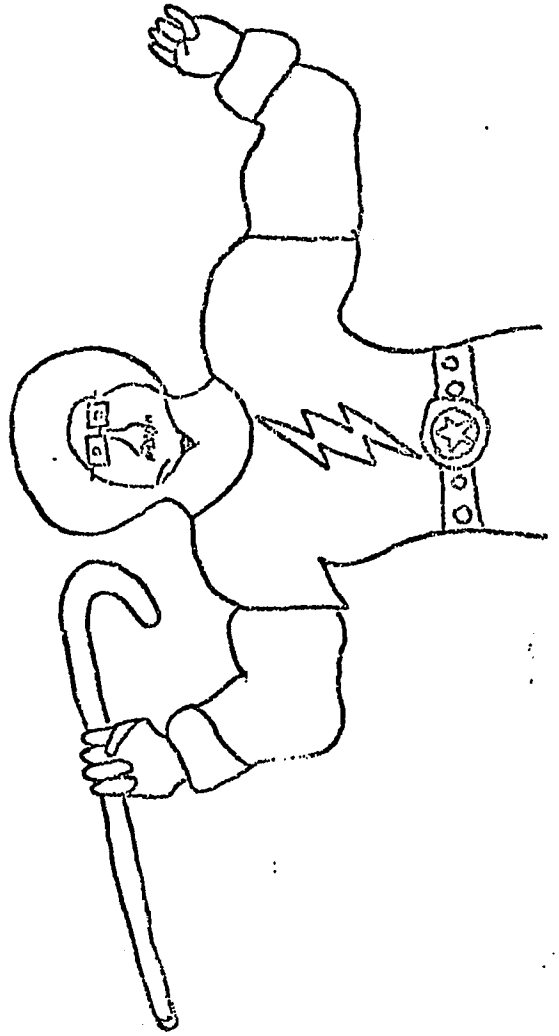
3

Dellingers Serpentervem
Pheonix Arizona

DR Tony DELLinger

When I'm old
I will still be bold
I will have all the girls
but I will look like a squrril

When I am old
I will put PEP in my step
and pridE in my StridE

1