

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 048 405

UD 011 348

AUTHOR Radcliffe, Donald V.; And Others
TITLE Motivation and the Disadvantaged Trainee: A Manual
for Instructors.
INSTITUTION Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical
Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO OE-37068
PUB DATE 70
NOTE 60p.
AVAILABLE FROM Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government
Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (GPO HE
5.237:37068, \$.60)

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.65 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Disadvantaged Environment, Early Experience,
*Economically Disadvantaged, Employment
Opportunities, Employment Problems, Individual
Development, Industrial Training, Instructional
Materials, Job Training, *Motivation, *Motivation
Techniques, Reinforcement, *Teaching Methods,
Trainees, *Training

ABSTRACT

Chapter One of this manual includes a definition of "disadvantagement," and discussion of implications for manpower requirements, distribution of the disadvantaged, employment conditions and outlook, early environment, predominant acquired characteristics, and response to training. Chapter Two discusses concepts of motivation, including drives, incentives, threat, stress, and reinforcement. Chapter Three, "Trainee Motivation," discusses the trainee and the training environment, basic motivators, incentives and responses, and stimulating motivated action. Chapter Four, "Instructional Methods, Techniques, and Materials," considers selected instructional methods, special techniques, and instructional materials. Chapter Five discusses motivation potentials, motivation in exploratory training, motivation in skill training, and practical examples. Chapter Six, "Occupational Growth," includes discussions of the need for growth through continuing education, stimulating desire for growth, rewards of growth, and life goals as motivators. References and a bibliography are included. (JM)

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Motivation and the Disadvantaged Trainee

A MANUAL FOR INSTRUCTORS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION
& WELFARE

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U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Office of Education
Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education

Superintendent of Documents Catalog No. HE 5.237:37068
U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1970

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402—Price 60 cents.

foreword

The major role in stimulating motivated action on the part of the disadvantaged trainee remains with the manpower instructor. It is essential that the instructor become so effective as a teacher that he can convince the disadvantaged trainee there are successful ways to cope with a threatening world. The training situation sets up the mechanism the instructor will use, but it is the instructor who must prove to the trainee that an occupational skill can provide gratification of many of his needs—from the provision of food to self-fulfillment in work itself. For a trainee who has never held a regular job and who has minimal skills, the task of convincing him that work is the *only* means to a safe and purposeful life can be difficult—and in many cases it is impossible. He must learn that work is *one* answer to the problem of unemployment and that there is no magical way of achieving the skill needed to make continued employment possible except through serious management of his time and efforts. In the final analysis this depends upon individual trainee motivation.

The role of the instructor is a most important one. It is his task to provide the trainee with some skills and life goals toward which to work. The instructor has the challenge of primary contact with the trainee; he has also the reward of seeing his own efforts reflected in the growth of his trainees.

This publication has been developed to serve as a guide for manpower training instructors and other staff members charged with the specific task of making the manpower program an effective arrangement for attracting, holding, and training the disadvantaged. It is hoped that the concepts of motivation and teaching and learning techniques described in this manuscript will suggest ways that staff members can handle contradictory situations and cope with trainee cultural differences, encourage cooperative interaction between ethnic group participants, and, at the same time, fulfill the difficult task of achieving a major manpower program objective—bringing the trainee up to job-entry capability.

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acknowledgments

The Office of Education acknowledges with appreciation the review of this manual by selected leaders of work groups at the Conference on Curricular-Instructional Materials and Related Media for the Disadvantaged Adult in the 1970's. The Conference, held in Cherry Hill, N.J., was sponsored by Montclair State College, Adult and Continuing Education Resource Center, Upper Montclair, N.J., and supported in part by a Special Project Grant from the Office of Education to the Bureau of Adult and Continuing Education of the New Jersey State Department of Education.

This manual was developed under the direction of Milton Goldstein who served as the project director. Donald V. Radcliffe prepared and wrote the manuscript with the assistance of Lavon Rasco and Merle Kaminsky. Special acknowledgment is due H. H. Katz who developed many of the training methods described herein. All are with the American Institute of Engineering and Technology, Incorporated.

The following consultants assisted in developing the outline and providing direction and review of the content of this publication: William McCurrine, Executive Director, Greater Lawndale Conservation Commission, Chicago, Ill., and Thomas Shaughnessy, Associate Professor, Business and Public Administration Center, George Washington University, Fort Monroe, Va.

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the disadvantaged

Though each disadvantaged individual has his own peculiar problems, many disadvantaged persons share common characteristics. For this reason, the instructor must be prepared to deal with both the general nature of the group as well as with the special concerns of the individual.

The instructor who wishes to help the disadvantaged trainee achieve meaningful status as a worker and citizen needs more than a compassionate attitude toward the trainee. He needs sympathetic understanding of the unfortunate environmental conditions which produced the trainee. The instructor also needs insight into the trainee's concept of himself and of his place in the particular world in which he lives.

The purpose of this manual is to present certain concepts of motivation applicable to the disadvantaged trainee and to suggest how these concepts can be applied to help the trainee become a productive worker and citizen.

DEFINITION

The term "disadvantaged individual" will be used in this manual as it has been defined by the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. The definition is stated as follows:

A disadvantaged individual is a poor person who does not have suitable employment and who is either (1) a school dropout, (2) a member of a minority, (3) under 22 years of age, (4) 45 years of age or over, or (5) handicapped.¹

The five basic combinations of the definition are:

- Poor school dropout without suitable employment
- Poor minority member without suitable employment
- Poor youth without suitable employment

- Poor older worker without suitable employment
- Poor handicapped worker without suitable employment

Clearly, any one individual might meet several of the tests at once; e.g., the poor, unemployed, Negro, handicapped, teenage dropout.

Meaning of Terms in Definition

Member of Poor Family. A person is deemed "poor" for purposes of the definition of disadvantaged if he (she) is a member of a family which (1) receives cash welfare payments, or (2) whose annual net income in relation to family size and location does not exceed the following criteria:

Family size	Income	
	Nonfarm	Farm
1	\$1,600	\$1,100
2	2,000	1,400
3	2,500	1,800
4	3,200	2,200
5	3,800	2,700
6	4,200	2,900
7	4,700	3,300
8	5,300	3,700
9	5,800	4,100
10	6,300	4,400
11	6,800	4,800
12	7,300	5,100
13 or more	7,800	5,500

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration.

All persons living in one household who are related to each other by blood, marriage, or adoption are regarded as one family. An individual living alone or in group quarters is considered a family.

NOTE: Footnote references that appear in the text of this manual are listed at the end of the chapter in which they are used.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS

The continuing decline of industry's need for unskilled or semiskilled workers has generally left those without skills in a difficult employment situation. The inability of the disadvantaged person to meet the industrial requirements for greater occupational and employability skills hinders him as a worker and citizen.

At the same time, the annual needs of industry for skilled workers are not always met, and a situation is created where jobs are unfilled and large numbers of disadvantaged workers remain unemployed.

Need for Training

In January 1968, almost 3 million Americans were unemployed, despite the fact that 7½ million new jobs had been added to the Nation's economy in the 4 preceding years. By May 1970 the unemployment figure had risen to about 4 million. It is expected that no matter how many new jobs are created in the future, an average of 3 million Americans will continue to be unemployed at any given time unless a solution is found for the problems of the hard-core unemployed.²

Many disadvantaged persons are hampered by lack of skills, inadequate education, transportation difficulties, and other job disadvantages. Without specific training, most will not be prepared to meet even minimal requirements for job entry. Skill training enables workers to master machines and to qualify for work in occupations with a potential for future advancement. (See figures 1 and 2.)

DISTRIBUTION OF THE DISADVANTAGED

The conditions under which the disadvantaged presently live and the ways in which they are distributed are directly related to the environment into which they were born and to the accident of their heritage. There is a strong tendency for the disadvantaged person to be so tied to his environment that mobility upward or outward is extremely difficult. The disadvantaged individual usually can be most easily understood in terms of what he has been rather than what he may yet be. For this reason ethnic and special groupings afford a convenient, though not always precise, means of examining the distribution of the disadvantaged.

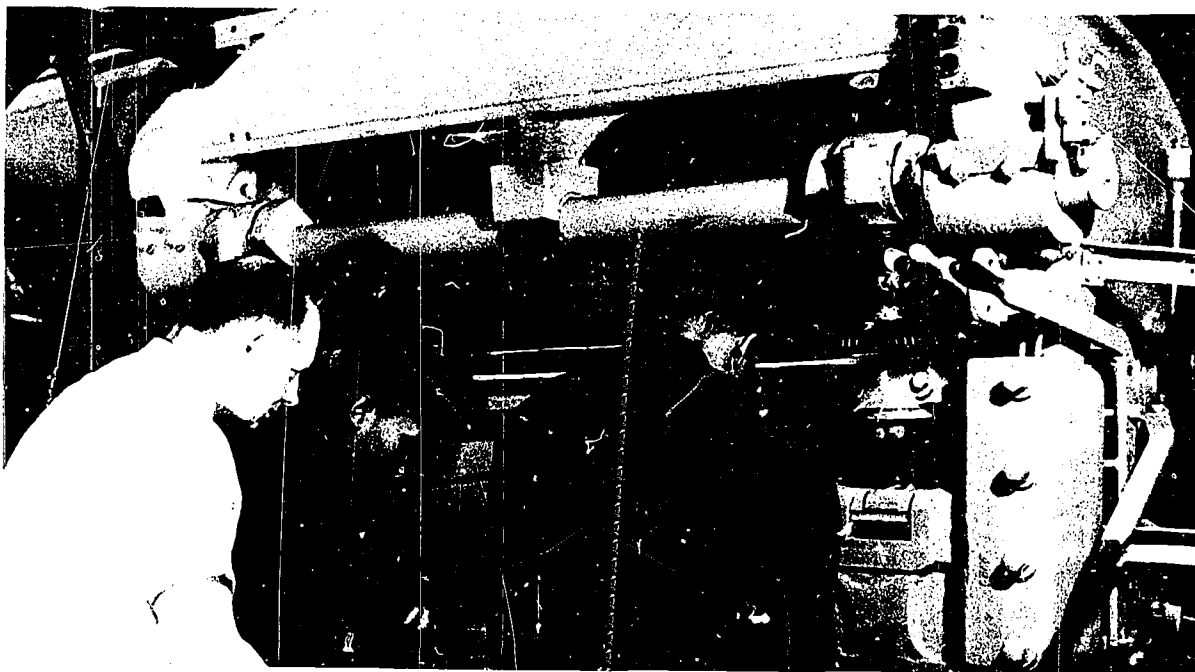


Figure 1.—Training allows the disadvantaged to master machines and join the ranks of needed workers.

Ethnic Groupings

The main ethnic minority groups in the United States are Negroes, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, American Indians, and Orientals. Almost all are economically disadvantaged because of discrimination; most suffer from limited education and language barriers, though their problems differ both in kind and degree. Discrimination is a common factor reducing their chances of advancing into fields of work which might offer opportunity for better economic conditions. An important aspect of manpower training programs is concerned with overcoming language barriers. (See figure 3.) Further concerns center around the task of creating empathy between ethnic groups and majority culture members—considered by some to be a basic problem in stimulating disadvantaged members of these groups to learn understandings and skills they need for economic well-being and individual growth in American society.

Negroes: The picture that is frequently presented of the disadvantaged Negro living in the urban ghetto is an incomplete one. While it is true that urban Negroes make up a substantial portion of the disadvantaged group, other ethnic minorities also suffer disadvantages. They are generally disadvantaged for the same reasons, but their family relationships and heritage may make for very different ways of living. For example, centering the family around the father is very common among Spanish-speaking ethnic minorities as opposed to the matriarchal structure of many Negro families.

Negroes, who make up about 92 percent of the nonwhite population, have made substantial gains in employment, education, and income during the 1960's. However, the gap between the incomes of blacks and whites is widening, and the average Negro male with a college degree earns no more than the average white male with 8 years or less of education. Nonwhites, mainly Negroes, make up 10 percent of all households, but 27 percent of poor households.³

In 1966, more than half the Negro population (double the proportion of whites) lived in the South where educational attainment and average incomes are generally lower than in other regions.⁴ Although Negroes have been migrating from the rural South, much of this movement has been into major industrial cities where they have had difficult adjustment problems, partly because of the shrinking employment opportunities in unskilled manual jobs.

The extremes of Negro poverty are principally centered in two groups. About half a million poor

Negro families, or 10 percent of the total, have lived all their lives in rural areas with very limited opportunities for improvement in education, employment, housing, or income. A similar number of Negro families live in poor neighborhoods of large central cities.

Mexican Americans: Until recently the Mexican Americans in the United States lived almost entirely in the Southwest, with about 80 percent concentrated in Texas and California. The Mexican American population in the Southwest increased from 3.5 million in 1960 to an estimated 4.6 million in 1967, and will reach 5 million by 1970. About 85 percent of the population were born in the United States, and the vast majority live in widely scattered cities.⁵

Mexican Americans share the difficulties of other minority groups. Language and physical characteristics set them apart from the rest of the population. They tend to live in segregated communities and have limited education and an above-average rate of unemployment. They are employed for the most part in low-status low-paying jobs.

Mexican Americans have a heritage of strong family ties and zealously guard the role of the man in the family. They tend to be proud of their heritage.

Puerto Ricans: Although they are American citizens, predominately of the white race, Puerto Ricans share with other minority groups the problems of low educational attainment and language barriers, unemployment rates much above the national average, and the difficulties of finding work in the higher status, higher-paying jobs.

Two-thirds of Puerto Rican migrants and their children are concentrated in New York City. Ninety percent of the New York City Puerto Rican high school graduates in 1966 received only a general diploma—considered by some to be a certificate of attendance. Almost two-thirds of Puerto Rican children in New York City schools are retarded in reading. This is not surprising since, of some 227,000 Puerto Ricans in New York City schools in 1967, about 100,000 did not speak English.⁶ Language barriers frequently prevent them from fully utilizing educational resources, seeking work, and holding jobs.

American Indians: About two-thirds of the 600,000 American Indians still reside on Indian reservations.⁷ A number of off-reservation projects have been designed for them under the Manpower Development and Training Act. These have had little impact on training of reservation Indians.

One-third of American Indians usually are con-



Figure 3.—Spanish-speaking trainees are helped to overcome language barriers.

centrated in the cities, where they are subject to serious handicaps of poor health, deficient education, lack of marketable skills, high unemployment, and low income. Many older American Indians were educated in their youth on reservations that were seriously lacking in educational facilities. Many younger American Indians have attended public schools, and the trend now is away from attendance at special Indian schools.

Oriental: Persons of oriental background constitute another minority group. Socially they tend to be concentrated together, especially in cities, and their lives are very closely centered in single neighborhoods or communities. The most serious handicaps to which they are subject are deficient educational facilities, low income, and unfamiliarity with the English language.

Minorities Within a Minority

Disadvantaged persons, white and nonwhite, have certain features in common such as lack of basic education and occupational and employability skills that tend to make them an identifiable minority within the society. Certain members may also have indi-

vidual characteristics that further handicap them in their efforts to find and hold a job.

Prison Releasees: Many releasees of Federal and State prisons are numbered among the disadvantaged. Each year these releasees face formidable barriers when seeking work. An even larger number of releasees, many of them teenaged youth, leave local correctional institutions in cities and towns where modern training programs are, for the most part, inadequate or unavailable. The occupational skills of older releasees likely are incomplete or outdated. Many younger persons entered prison before they had an opportunity to acquire work skills and are therefore unprepared to return to the world of work. At least one-third of the more than 100,000 persons released from State and Federal prisons each year, and one-third of the large numbers released from local and county jails and workhouses now return to prison as repeating offenders.⁸

Other forms of antisocial behavioral patterns, such as alcoholism and drug addiction, severely interfere with training and employment. These are often beyond the ability of the instructor to correct directly, but he is in an excellent position to alert the counsel-

ing and administrative staff to their existence so that referrals for special assistance or therapy may be made.

Handicapped: There are between 500,000 and 800,000 handicapped persons in the Nation who could benefit from rehabilitation or employment services each year but who are not now adequately served.⁹ There are only estimates as to the number who should be classified as truly disadvantaged, but the mere fact of severe physical or mental impairment raises barriers to training and employment. However, proper training can enable most handicapped persons to hold meaningful jobs and to perform work needed by the Nation. (See figure 4.)

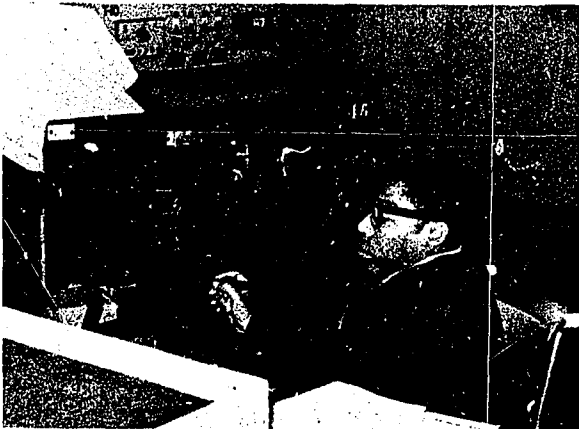


Figure 4.—Physical handicaps need not be a bar to meaningful occupational training.

Inadequate medical services and inability to utilize transportation often contribute to the difficulty of reaching handicapped trainees through manpower training programs. The current definition of "disadvantaged persons" has been expanded to include those who have physical, mental, or emotional handicaps which could, without proper educational assistance, prevent the trainee from achieving specific Manpower Development and Training (MDT) goals.

Generally, screening will have eliminated those trainees who require more assistance than is available in the manpower training program. However the instructor should be alert for cases in which handicapped individuals are not making the progress that should be expected. These cases should be referred to the counselor or administrator for special assistance by outside agencies or specialists.

Older Workers: Older persons may be disadvantaged by the mere factor of age, and seriously hindered in

seeking work. The services needed by older trainees may range from confidence-building and simple upgrading of skills to more complete programs of basic education and occupational skill training. Older workers comprise about 38 percent of the labor force and, as a group, they enjoy a very high rate of employment. As trainees, they usually have some work experience with which to reinforce training. (See figure 5.)

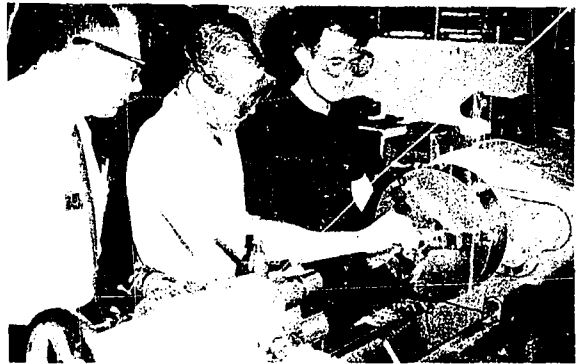


Figure 5.—An older worker demonstrates his skill to instructor and younger worker.

However, once a worker over 45 is displaced, he has great difficulty becoming reemployed. He faces a number of barriers to employment, such as the possible obsolescence of his skills, a possibly limited education, and a general preference on the part of employers for younger workers.

The Age Discrimination Act of 1967, which became effective in June 1968, is intended to protect workers between the ages of 40 and 65 from direct age discrimination. The act applies to employers of 25 or more persons and to employment agencies and labor unions. Its purpose is to prohibit arbitrary age discrimination and also to provide for examination of institutional arrangements, such as compulsory retirement, which work to the disadvantage of older persons.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AND OUTLOOK

Disadvantaged workers who are jobless or underemployed have a difficult task at any time, but in periods of economic prosperity the impact of unemployment is even more strongly felt. The skills demanded for employment may seem unattainable to the disadvantaged person who is blocked from productive employment by barriers such as poor health,

lack of education, lack of training, and a *general feeling of hopelessness*.

The disadvantaged person then finds himself in an ironic position. As general economic conditions improve for others and affluence becomes more general, his own situation grows more acute. He then even loses the hope that better times will improve his lot.

Underemployment

To picture more exactly the economic condition of the unemployed, it has become necessary to revise the traditional means of defining the unemployed as those persons who are jobless and actively seeking work. The broader, more useful concept of subemployment was introduced in 1967 to bring in the quality of employment as represented by the level of wages.

The new subemployment measure includes two new and distinct groups—workers unemployed 15 or more weeks during the year and those who made less than \$3,000 for year-round, full-time work (taken as a proportion of the entire labor force with a week or more of work experience during the year).¹⁰

The evidence is overwhelming that any meaningful count of the disadvantaged—the subemployed—in poverty areas of the country's metropolitan centers would greatly exceed the half million found to be unemployed there in March 1966. A reasonable, and probably minimal, estimate of subemployment in these poverty areas would be 1.5 million.¹¹

The problem is not limited to urban areas. Farm technology and increased productivity in agriculture have, for many decades, been forcing farmworkers off the farm or into underemployment and poverty. The persistent problem for rural workers is underemployment in terms of irregular work and low earnings, rather than a total lack of work.

Projections

The labor force in the next decade, as projected by the U.S. Department of Labor, will reflect an overall increase in the number of workers to about 100 million by 1980, as compared with a present total of about 80 million.¹²

There is every reason to believe that the jobs of the future will demand as great or greater skills as those of the present. Suitable training of the disadvantaged becomes even more critical as greater skill levels are required and as the competition for jobs becomes more intense with the influx of large num-

bers of workers into the labor force. A number of major internal changes will occur, some with direct implications for certain groups of the disadvantaged as the following examples indicate.

Young Workers: Largely as a result of the enormous numbers of births during and after World War II, the number of teenagers in the work force continues to rise. Workers under 25 total over 20 million in 1970, over 22.5 million by 1975, and over 24 million by 1980. Youths under 22, who constitute a major portion of the disadvantaged at present, may expect increasing competition from within their own age group in the next 10 years.¹³

Women: Since World War II, adult women have made up a very large proportion of the increase in the labor force. This trend is expected to continue as nearly 22.5 million women aged 25 and over are in the labor force by 1970. By 1975, this total will have risen to over 24.7 million and to more than 27 million by 1980.¹⁴ (See figure 6.)

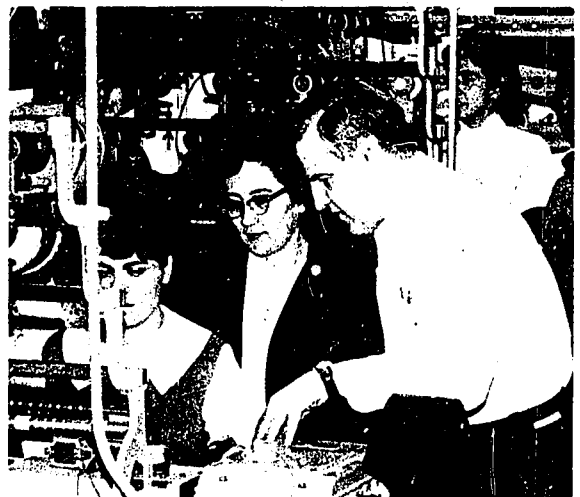


Figure 6.—Coil winding, an occupation being taught to these trainees, requires patience, concentration, and finger dexterity.

Men: Males over 25 years of age number more than 43 million by 1970, more than 46 million by 1975, and more than 50 million by 1980. In the age group between 45 and 64, which constitutes a major age range of the disadvantaged, men workers number about 18 million in 1970 and more than 18.6 million by 1975; then their numbers will drop to about 18.4 million by 1980.¹⁵

EARLY ENVIRONMENT

Economic disadvantage with its related handicaps is not peculiar to race or geographical region, but affects all races, all sections of the Nation, city and country alike. Despite the many ethnic groups and varieties of culture patterns, economic and other contributing deprivations, particularly of the early environment, have created characteristic effects upon those people unfortunate enough to be disadvantaged.

Family Structure

Economic and social disadvantage strike first and most seriously at the family structure—often causing its disintegration. Historically in Western societies, the family has been patriarchally structured, with the father as provider and figure of authority and the mother as center of affection. A supportive, affectionate, and respectful rapport exists between parents. The children are given definite responsibilities.

When the father is unable to secure substantial employment to fulfill the living demands of the family, tension and frustration follow. Too often, this leads to parental strife and breakdown of the family unit. The resulting matriarchal organization of the family is particularly evident in the disadvantaged Negro population, but other groups, such as the Appalachian whites, with strong patriarchal organization also tend to disintegrate when disadvantage occurs. This is particularly true if the family moves into an urban area without substantial income for day-to-day living.

Thus the family of the disadvantaged frequently is in a state of flux. Deprived of a stable group of individuals to provide security and affection, disadvantaged children tend to grow up suspicious, resentful of help, and hypersensitive to the general pressure of living. Adaptation to the usual learning environment may be quite poor, and motivation for school learning difficult for the instructor to stimulate.

Family Interrelationships

It has been recognized that the disadvantaged family tends to be "in-group." The disadvantaged individual greatly values family life. A communal, cooperative attitude, functioning in part as a means of protection against the threatening "out-group," is generally characteristic of the family unit.

However, as unemployment occurs, resulting in inadequate provisions of food, shelter, medical care, and basic needs generally, the stability of the family

unit breaks down. The mother and father tend to quarrel more over rearing practices of the children. Lack of *definite* responsibilities and crowded, noisy (often disordered) living quarters force the children out into the streets where strife further leads to instability in human relationships.

Absence of Models

Denied the daily experience of parents and peers who are given a chance by society to be successful in filling the role of worker, the child lacks a proper model to follow. Particularly important is the role the father plays. If he is denied substantial employment, and lives on the fringe of the labor market, the child cannot identify with the values of the worker, and in addition finds it difficult to believe that study for such a role is rewarding. The daughter suffers if the mother is forced to work at times when she is needed in the home to supply day-to-day familiarity with the values the growing daughter requires.

The disadvantaged trainee does bring to the training center particular values and occupational models however. The instructor must recognize that these models are not middle-class oriented, but relate to his own peer experiences and upbringing.

Absence of Typical Goals

Absence of models results in absence of typical goals. The child from both affluent and poor homes who never experiences from parents and older workers a respect for work as a productive and meaningful activity will come to think of work as unpleasant and only to be performed in order to survive. Time spent on the job will be miserably spent, and the worker will find relief only when the work day is over.

Motivation is at a low ebb with the trainee who cannot see the value of long-range goals and even thinks of self-improvement as resulting in more difficulties and frustration for him. He has no childhood memories of constructive talk about the office or factory. Neither does he have memories of working with his father's tools to reinforce the instructor's efforts. This trainee has little constructive knowledge of labor unions and office or shop groups. Layoffs, strikes without compensation, and a general state of uncertainty characterize his limited evaluation of labor.

These attitudes which are generally held by the disadvantaged trainee emphasize the need for progressively integrated training programs and the use

of short-range goals which lead to realization of final incentives of skill proficiency and job entry.

Value System

The trainee's early environment is characterized by general deprivation, rejection, change, and lack of stable constellations of people from which to take bearings and build a value system.

In his attitude toward learning, the disadvantaged person tends to concentrate on the practical. In his home environment, there were probably few books or magazines. Knowledge to him has become valuable only as it contributes to employment, thus the minimum knowledge necessary to get and hold a job determines his interest in it. He is thus practical rather than intellectual in orientation. He is concerned with the immediate and the tangible rather than with the distant and the abstract. He likes excitement and motion, and must be "shown." In both *designing* and *presenting* materials for greater motivational effect, these attitudes must be taken into consideration.

PREDOMINANT ACQUIRED CHARACTERISTICS

Acquired characteristics are identifiable in the disadvantaged. Though it is not the instructor's job to act as counselor, he will be able to establish greater rapport with the trainee, and thus greater trainee responsiveness to instruction, if he is capable of recognizing acquired characteristics which predominantly reflect the trainee's attempts to preserve his integrity.

Submissiveness

Submissiveness implies meek acceptance of the rule or influence of another. Many disadvantaged persons believe that an unrewarding style of life is inevitable and inescapable. Repeated failure in previous positive attempts to correct conditions of disadvantagement have made the trainee apathetic to change; he appears to prefer the acceptance of the existing unpleasant, familiar condition rather than engage in an unknown endeavor which might by chance result in improvement. When such a trainee reaches employment, he prefers the steady job which pays less and offers little possibility for advancement to the job which might offer the possibility of promotion at the expense of immediate uncertainty.

The meaning of an overt act, however, is not always obvious. Submissiveness can reflect only a

temporary withdrawal from involvement. Apparent apathy might camouflage hostility waiting for a safer moment for expression. Both attitudes reflect the trainee's acknowledgment of failure. Defeatism must be eliminated if learning is to take place.

Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness of the disadvantaged is a common and disturbing expression to the affluent. However, unlike an apathetic attitude which implies acceptance of defeat, display of aggression indicates not just the trainee's frustration at being thwarted in his attempts to achieve his goals, but a refusal to accept the unpleasant condition.

Parents of disadvantaged children commonly permit and encourage them to fight when angry. Because experience has taught some of these parents that there is no one to whom they can appeal for protection in time of danger, aggression becomes a frantic gesture to protect oneself. On the one hand, the aggressive individual may provoke a dangerous situation in order to try out his capability to cope; on the other hand, the aggressive act might be an irrational attempt to destroy the aggressor, or the supposed aggressor which—to the disadvantaged trainee—could be the instructor.

Certain disadvantaged trainees thus tend to feel hostile toward all authority which they feel has suppressed and thwarted their lives. Such disadvantaged persons are particularly aggressive with police, whom they see as the embodiment of authority which has determined their unhappy condition. It is important to remember that aggression indicates energy to be directed, not drives to be stifled with reprimand and punishment. Punishment is not only ineffective in handling aggression, but aggravates it.

Defensiveness

A statement the disadvantaged trainee often makes is that he "has a poor memory." The instructor, knowing that poor memory may stem from mental blocks thrown up as protection from potential danger, must devise instructional approaches to circumvent these blocks. It is not difficult to see that the disadvantaged trainee may often tend to reject involvement in a society which has so often rejected and humiliated him. However, this alienation may not be an entirely hopeless situation.

Anxiety

Rejection and social isolation may be the cause of most of the trainee's anxiety. It is this feeling of being

rejected and alienated which has led him to low expectations of success which, in turn, have destroyed his ability to appreciate long-range objectives.

One particular value of special training situations is that threats presented by normal school environment are minimized. Nevertheless, tension will result, and the instructor should be observant of symptoms of anxiety so that he can help eliminate the cause. The trainee's frustration can be expressed in many ways—from sarcasm to lethargy to actual physical illness.

Feelings of Inferiority

One of the most visible acquired characteristics of the disadvantaged is his feeling of inferiority. Lack of self-confidence stems from a history of past failures. He has come to feel that it is impossible to achieve status according to middle-class standards. He knows that he is lacking in educational and social experiences for a position in the middle-class world. Even his family has little confidence in his ability, or has become indifferent to it.

This chronic tendency to self-depreciation, to acceptance of a limited view of himself, necessarily hinders the learning process. The necessity to present instruction in segments the trainee can handle successfully is apparent. The smallest success should be commended. Correction should always be presented in a positive manner. Rather than stating to the trainee, "You did that wrong," the instructor should take the approach, "Let's try it again this way."

Low Frustration Tolerance

A particularly significant characteristic of the disadvantaged trainee is his low frustration tolerance. The incapability of the trainee to endure frustration and threat is frequently not evident until the moment of tension occurs. His apparent self-confidence only conceals his inner fear. Never should too much pressure be put upon the trainee in the shop or in the classroom. Nothing can demotivate the trainee quicker than being faced with difficulties he feels he cannot solve.

The observant instructor is aware of the trainee's frustration level. He knows that by sincere approval and by presenting challenges to the trainee so that he can deal successfully with them, the trainee's confidence is gradually built up, and his capability to work under pressure without frustration is extended.

Short-Term Persistence

The disadvantaged trainee lacks the more integrated pattern of organization of advantaged trainees.

His concept of time and space reflects the threatening and disordered life he has been forced to live. He tends to look at life in unrealistic, illusionary terms. In a sense, this unrealistic perception of the world is childlike in its tendency toward fantasy. At the same time, it reflects the disorder and fear which results from living in deprivation and danger. Because he lacks the capacity to hope, it is difficult for him to set up a long-range goal or to accept the goal as worthy of achievement once it has been set up. The trainee's demand that each moment be rewarding, however, can be used to great advantage by structuring a training program which is pragmatic and organized in progressively ordered segments.

RESPONSE TO TRAINING

Disadvantaged trainees bring to the training center characteristics and values that are very different from those of the middle-class and more advantaged groups. They normally do not respond to formal training in the same way.

Nor can motivated action be stimulated in the same way as in the more advantaged trainees. The key to the kind of special training that is required is to be found in an understanding of the early environment and acquired characteristics of the disadvantaged trainee discussed in the preceding section.

Reaction to Conventional Training

One of the general characteristics of disadvantaged individuals is a history of failure in conventional education. More often than not, the disadvantaged person has failed or dropped out of school long before completion. There probably was less incentive to continue and less pressure exerted by the family to complete 4 years of high school.

As a result, the communication skill level achieved in school by most students was probably above the level acquired by the disadvantaged. The employability skills that are a byproduct of conventional education for most students are probably also lacking in the disadvantaged. Basic illiteracy and an inability to cope with the problems of rural and urban living often leave the disadvantaged person unable or unwilling to avail himself of conventional training that may be offered.

In addition, conventional education is often seen by the disadvantaged person as a part of the "establishment" that has failed him before. He may look upon the long-range goals and delayed rewards of

conventional education as too distant and too difficult for him to achieve. He probably will display apathy or even hostility to any training program that seems to be the same as the schooling where he failed to succeed in the past.

Special Training Requirements

Effective programs for the disadvantaged individual must be built around the elements that will provide him with the necessary occupational skill training and, in addition, the employability skills that will enable him to get and hold a job. This is not easily achieved, particularly with the individual who is extremely disadvantaged.

A desire must be instilled in the individual to proceed day by day on a course. The achievement of the goals of skill training and employment must come about through the efforts of the trainee which are stimulated to action by the instructor and the rest of the skill center or training project staff. The instructor, as the skill center team member closest to the trainee, generally is the one best able to initially set in motion the following necessary sequence of events:

- Establishment of communication with the trainee.
- Winning the confidence of the trainee.
- Stimulating the trainee's determination to advance himself.

Special Problems Of The Disadvantaged: An understanding of the early environment and acquired characteristics of disadvantaged persons will give the instructor some clues, in a general way, to the behavior of disadvantaged trainees. However, the very practical problems of daily living may also have an appreciable effect on the performance of trainees, particularly early in training.

Frequent tardiness or absence often becomes a serious problem with certain trainees. Some latitude is usually advisable to the extent permissible by program regulations. For example, early in training the disadvantaged may be expected to have some difficulty with coping with public transportation and organizing their new daily schedule.

The instructor, who usually is charged with most of the recordkeeping that is necessary, should be alert for indications that certain trainees have special problems outside the skill center that are hampering their progress in training. Trainees who are chronically late or absent should be given such assistance as is practical by the instructor and referred for additional counseling when necessary.

Some Reasons for Tardiness or Absence: These are some actual excuses as given (and spelled) by disadvantaged trainees which might not occur to one unfamiliar with the practical problems of the poor:

"The reason for my absence on 9-13-68 was due to no money to get to school. I had to wait until 330 that day to go downtown because I couldn't borrow carfare before then."

"I tried to keep my baby from being sent up for adoption."

"I have a statement to go to the community house to pick up food."

"My residency wasn't long enough, and I had to go to the welfare office to talk about it."

"The reason for my absent the rioting and looting was on the westside setting fires to houses and shooting bad transportation to of getting backward and forward. I was afraid to leave home and let my children by themself."

"I had apporntmint with my caseworker."

"My parole officer said to be at home because he couldn't make it any other day."

"The reason why I was late cause I have to get my kid up early in the morning and take them to the babysitter, and they be still slept."

"Couldn't get a babysitter." (Investigation showed one of the woman's older children had stayed home from school for 53 days to act as babysitter, and she was afraid "he might get too far behind.")

"Went for carefare, had no food to eat, lost some of the carefare, and had to see a parole officer about my wife."

"I had to stay home to let the exterminator in."

Types of Training Needed: Disadvantaged persons typically lack basic education as well as marketable job skills. They frequently also lack the mobility to travel to locations where work is available and the employability skills necessary to function as desirable employees and coworkers. Training, then, is usually required in at least three general areas: (1) communication skills, (2) employability skills, and (3) skill training.

Communication skills may be offered during the prevocational exploratory phase of training and carried over into the occupational skill training phase. Trainees are assisted in achieving a reading and writing capability of a minimum English word vocabulary and a literacy level of at least the sixth grade and upward insofar as possible.

Employability training is offered to make the trainee capable of operating in situations outside his community, e.g., to get to training or employment.

He is also taught such work virtues as punctuality, attendance, dependability, and the ability to take and follow orders. He is also taught how to get along with other persons in order to be an acceptable coworker.

Skill training provides the formal occupational skills that qualify the trainee to actually perform the tasks of the job. They should be broad and flexible enough to enable him to grow with the job and, when necessary, make job switches or transfers to other occupational areas in the future.

Staff-Trainee Relationships

The trainee has three basic relationships—with administrator, counselor, and instructor. His response to training is greatly dependent upon these relationships, particularly his motivation to continue and complete training. The instructor-trainee relationship is pivotal because the instructor is closest to the trainee on a day-to-day basis. However, the administrator, counselor, as well as the instructor, form a team with the trainee which, with the trainee at the center, seeks to cooperatively advance the trainee through the completion of the program and out into employment.

Role of the Administrator: The administrator usually defines his own relationships with trainee, counselor, and instructor. He might restrict his participation largely to administrative duties, or he might become closely involved in the progress of individual trainees. An understanding of the general role of the administrator will enable the instructor to know what kinds of assistance he can look for from the administrator.

Administrative responsibilities which indirectly affect the trainee's motivation involve integrating the school into the community as a civic contribution. The administrator often establishes liaison with civic organizations and with local industry in order to locate part-time and full-time jobs for the trainees. He seeks funds from industry and government sources to help in subsidizing new and better programs. Daily, close-working relationships with the Employment Service are essential.

The duties of the administrator which more directly concern the motivation of the trainee involve selective hiring of teaching and maintenance staffs. He coordinates all views relevant to the training center and develops the institution's objectives and basic methods of achieving those objectives. He is responsible for the physical facilities, and must always assure cleanliness, orderliness, safety. The effective-

ness of instructional techniques are his responsibility. He continuously seeks out and creates better instructional procedures, and stimulates the staff to experiment in the attempt to discover more effective methods. A primary concern of the administrator, particularly in integrated programs, is scheduling so that the program in which the trainee enrolls is so structured that it fulfills the trainee's objective in achievable steps.

Ideally the administrator should be familiar with and concerned over the trainee's personal and instructional problems. The simple act of a friendly greeting in which the administrator calls the trainee by name can greatly encourage him. The administrator can also encourage the trainee by devising ways to get the trainee's family approval of and interest in his work at the center.

Role of the Counselor: The counselor helps the trainee to identify and solve emotional and practical problems which may interfere with his learning process. If the trainee is disturbed by financial problems, the counselor tries to refer him to someone who can be of help to him. If his problem is emotional, the counselor applies his training and personal understanding to alleviating the problem. If the problem is severe, he refers the trainee to a source of additional help. By remaining continuously supportive and available for consultation at any time, he can in a brief time usually help the trainee develop a more mature and positive attitude.

In addition to individual consultation, the counselor arranges group counseling at regular intervals to provide the alleviating and supporting effects which result from discussing anxieties and fears with peers. Evaluating and working out solutions to such problems as job attitudes, employer-employee relationship, laws and customs build the trainee's self-confidence so that the counselor can gradually shift responsibility for solving problems to the trainee himself. The trainee's consequent success encourages him to apply his energy more diligently and consistently in the classroom and shop.

Role of the Instructor: The primary function of the instructor is to *make things happen* to the trainee through motivated action. The instructor must be a trained observer able to judge progress and difficulty, and able to lead the trainee through the program. He also serves as a model for the trainee who *may* have no other models. The disadvantaged trainee often comes to identify with the instructor and copy his behavior.

To fulfill his difficult job, the instructor must

function on many levels. His primary problem, as far as stimulating the trainee is concerned, requires him to work between extremes. He must meet the trainee on equal terms, as person to person, but always keep professional objectivity. He must define the degree of orderliness necessary for the learning situation but not demand regularity without regard for trainee limitations.

The instructor should be properly strict but never punitive. He must possess a thorough knowledge of his subject, yet present his knowledge and experience to the trainee in simple and practical terms. His instructional methods should avoid *unnecessary* repetition and oversimplification, yet employ a level of instruction the disadvantaged trainee can understand.

The instructor should expect more of the trainee than the trainee can accomplish in order to stimulate progress, yet not expect so much that the trainee is *demotivated*. In the classroom and shop he must communicate to each trainee a personal and honest concern, yet never lose rapport with the class as a whole. Handling such contradictions characterizes the instructor's difficult job of fulfilling the manpower train-

ing program objective of bringing the trainee to job-entry capability.

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concepts of motivation

"Motivation may be defined as goal-directed behavior, or behavior that produces a desired outcome. Motivation for the learner in prevocational, exploratory and vocational training is productivity—steady, as intensive, and as near to capacity as possible.

"Disadvantaged persons need strong motivation to acquire academic skills. Some Manpower Development and Training (MDT) trainees have this motivation when they enter a training program. Others may have only a spark of it. Still others may be in the program because of pressures from outside sources such as parents, welfare counselors, or trainees who have graduated. Whether this motivation remains at a high level or even continues at all is determined largely by the instructor-trainee relationship.

"One of the first considerations in keeping or developing strong motivation within the trainee is to help him establish a reasonable and attainable goal. If the trainee is illiterate, his goal may be to learn to read and write. The trainee is the important center of training who is moved by the instructor and the instructor's knowledge. In the final analysis, true motivation comes only from inside the trainee. It does not come from the force of an instructor, but it can be stimulated by him."¹

DRIVES

No concept of motivation is accepted by everyone, primarily because of the complexity of man. Is man, for instance, capable of controlling and determining his feelings as well as his thinking? Or is he an organism driven by inner impulses which he cannot control and, for the most part, cannot define?

For the past 50 years, a prominent explanation of motivation has been the "drive" concept. The term "drive" has come to refer to different drives which motivate the individual toward or away from particular goals. The commonly accepted view is that

these drives are caused by imbalance within the body which induces physiological and psychological reactions which seek to reestablish the inner equilibrium. Drives have been categorized in many different ways. A useful means of examining drives is described in terms of their hierarchy of values.²

Physiological

Physiological drives are concerned with tissue needs—with the physical life of the organism. They stem from chemical conditions of the body, caused by such imbalanced states as hunger, thirst, extreme temperature conditions, and fatigue. Arousal of physiological drives within the body motivates action to remove or resolve the imbalance. A hungry person, for instance, is motivated to find food; in a state of hunger, all of his capacities, in fact, are directed toward satisfying this drive.

Psychological

All behavior cannot be explained by physiological drives. Man's social needs, his needs to understand realistically himself and his environment, his need for a healthy and happy concept of self, and his curiosity and creative impulses cannot be proved to evolve from tissue needs.

In dealing with the disadvantaged trainee, it is not so important to classify drives according to some academic yardstick as to consider them in the order of their importance to the trainee and the ability of the instructor to deal with the emergence of these drives.

Safety

With the disadvantaged trainee, as well as other persons, drives range from physiological drives intent upon establishing a sense of physical well-being upward to self-fulfillment. This means that physiological

needs must be gratified before the individual will devote himself to fulfilling "higher" needs including psychological needs. With the trainee who suffers hunger, for instance, the entire concern of thought and deed is to gratify that hunger; if he is in such a state, skill training will be impossible.

Once the trainee's physiological needs are gratified, the next order—safety needs—emerges. As the trainee was dominated by physiological needs when under pressure of a chemical imbalance caused by such deprivation as hunger or fatigue, he now becomes dominated by the drive to *feel* safe. If he is sick or in pain, a state which disrupts the healthy rhythm of life, a need for protection, for reassurance, manifests itself. The trainee's world, by virtue of his disadvantaged state, has not been as orderly, as predictable, as organized as the world of the middle-class trainee. Therefore, he does not react as the middle-class trainee does who is driven by the need for safety. Overreaction by the disadvantaged person, in his desire for safety, might range from violence to total withdrawal.

Belongingness and Love

Once physiological and safety needs are gratified, the trainee's need for love and belonging emerges. Again, since the disadvantaged trainee has frequently been deprived of these goals, his attempts to achieve them will probably be overly demonstrative. Since his previous attempts have too often resulted in failure and rejection, he is overly sensitive to disapproval as well as to approval. His reactions to disapproval might range from hostility to withdrawal; he might regard approval with suspicion or as a psychological contract from which he expects too much.

Self-Esteem

Only after the trainee's physiological, safety, and love and belonging needs are gratified can the drive to feel self-esteem emerge. At this point the trainee's attitudes and interests particularly reflect his concern for social approval. He wishes to affiliate himself with others, and shows concern for a particular social status and a degree of prestige within the group. He becomes more concerned about his concept of self, and aspires to greater proficiency. Because he is overly sensitive to frustration, the instructor can play an important role at this point. By helping the trainee keep to a realistic level of aspiration and by praising

his positive accomplishments, he can help the trainee reach the level of self-actualization.

Self-Actualization

In order for the trainee to feel a sense of contentment and well-being, he must be working at a job which he can do and which he feels is right for him. When a training program can prepare the trainee for the right job, and help him get it, the trainee will be motivated to apply himself at work with persistence and industry. If he feels ill-fitted for his job, or does not like it, no salary or management-approval can keep him employed.

Application of Drive Concepts

It is not the instructor's job to play the role of counselor, but his success in dealing with the trainee will greatly depend upon his understanding of the trainee's motivation. If he is able to isolate the drive which is motivating the trainee, such problems as absenteeism, inability to concentrate, hostility, and fluctuations of temper which interfere with the trainee's learning in the training situation can more likely be corrected.

It should be emphasized that there is no simple formula which holds the key to understanding motivation of the trainee, and the instructor should always recognize that each trainee is a distinct and different individual, though the disadvantaged condition implies certain generalized characteristics. The instructor should particularly remember that the actual act can be delusive in its meaning. A destructive act, such as kicking a wastebasket down a corridor, might seem to indicate that the trainee is basically destructive. In actuality the act might reflect the trainee's intense dislike of authority he thinks is working to his disadvantage, and be one way of defending himself against that authority.

Evaluation

During the time the drive theory has dominated the scene, objections have been raised against it. It has been argued, for instance, that drives cannot explain all activity. Such objection to the theory does not prove it invalid. In fact, extensive research indicates that it offers a practical approach to motivation which is particularly workable with the disadvantaged person. If his maladjustment results from deprivation of basic needs and those needs can be determined, it becomes possible to help him break old, destructive patterns and to build new, more productive habits.

INCENTIVES

Trainees pursue incentive goals in the search for gratification. The disadvantaged person frequently does not try to achieve incentives in socially accepted or practical ways. The objective of the training institution, and particularly of the instructor, is to help him learn to do so. Familiarity with the disadvantaged trainee's attitudes toward certain incentives, and of his ways of seeking them, is necessary if the instructor is to help him develop constructive methods of achieving these goals. Incentives are commonly divided into two types: primary and secondary.

Primary Incentives

Primary incentives are goals with inherent value. Food, for instance, directly gratifies the primary drive hunger; water satisfies thirst. Some primary incentives are sex, affiliation, achievement, and power.

Sex: It is far too simple to think of sex incentive as sexual relations. Sex is a broader term, encompassing the sexual development of the individual. A brief description of the individual's growth makes this point clear. The child's sex life begins at birth. From birth until the child is about 2 years old, he looks almost entirely to the mother for love, security, and sustenance, and she naturally becomes the object of his love—particularly of his sexual interest. At the age of about 2, out of rivalry with his father for his mother's affection and attention, and unable to supplant his father, he begins to copy what he thinks are the attractive traits of his father—to "identify" with him in order to take his place with the mother.

This attempt leads to his gradual acceptance of the father's values and attitudes. Thus the influence of the father sets the style of his behavior, though other men and women also contribute. Gradually, the child becomes more capable of standing alone, and gradually develops attributes which are his own. Through increasing success in dealing with external influences, there is built up within him a self-system. If this growth has been normal, he will be normal. But if for some reason the son does not identify with the father and, on the contrary, rejects him because the father is not worthy of admiration, or because the father rejects him, then the son will choose to emulate an actual or imaginary substitute. If he rejects the father and finds no substitute, he tends to over-identify with the mother.

Thus his inability to cope more satisfactorily is, to some extent, "built-in" and difficult to overcome.

Many disadvantaged Negroes' homes lack a confident, working father for the children to identify with. In disadvantaged families which are patriarchally oriented, as Appalachian white and Puerto Rican, failure of the father to hold a decent job which pays adequate wages likewise destroys the children's opportunity to develop confident and capable attitudes toward work and love. Not all disadvantaged people, by any means, have poor home lives, but the generalization that characterizes the disadvantaged (white and nonwhite) home life as unsettled has been too amply documented to ignore.

The importance of the sex incentive to the disadvantaged trainee indicates that to establish the most responsive relationship with the trainee the instructor must to some extent fill the type of role the trainee's father probably did not: that of a rational, kind, fair, honest mentor who is, above all else, supportive and approving.

Affiliation: It is a truism that men like to band together, but the disadvantaged individual particularly requires the feeling of acceptance and approval that belonging to a group provides. Why is this need so great in him? Extensive studies of factory situations reveal that, when workers have no understanding of or control over the environment in which they work, they tend to group together in order to defend themselves against a system which does not regard them as individuals. When the same workers are permitted to associate freely with one another in break periods, and when management begins to show interest in them and to permit them more control of their working environment, production increases immediately.

The great need for the disadvantaged person to consider himself part of a group becomes clear. If he has lived in an oppressive environment which continually attacks his ego, he necessarily turns to others like himself for the approval and recognition not forthcoming from the middle-class society. The collective self-evaluation that the disadvantaged make of themselves is seldom accurate by middle-class standards, but it is supportive. The origin of most gangs is similar to the formation of clans, tribes, and even nations in this respect. Necessity of survival against a common enemy drives individuals together for self-protection. Healthy dissolution of gangs or groups hostile to middle-class society occurs only when the members of the gang become healthily integrated into that middle-class society.

The instructor can use this affiliative tendency in disadvantaged trainees to the trainees' advantage.

First of all, the feeling among trainees that they are "all in the same boat" tends to dampen possible conflicts which might result from race, color, and so on. A group of trainees wishes to think of itself as one. If the instructor can, through sincerity, understanding, and helpfulness, be accepted by that group as necessary to it, his job will be greatly simplified and his instruction will receive greater response.

Achievement: What is the achievement-driven individual like? First, the desire for successful performance is intrinsic with him. For him, achievement is an end in itself. Money, so important in American life, has value mainly because it is a measure of the quality of his achievement. The "achiever" is thus not driven by the profit motive but by the desire to achieve well and to do so against respectable odds. Because he cannot tolerate a problem relevant to him remaining unsolved or unfinished, he does not hesitate to "plunge in" to try to achieve complete solutions to problems. His independence is usually reflected in a choice of profession which offers frequent indications of his success. He learns from, rather than becomes daunted by, failure. Thus he develops a realistic view of himself and the world in which he lives. He then uses this knowledge for further achievement.

It is obvious that the achievement incentive is seldom dominant in the disadvantaged. Whereas the achiever is gratified as much by the *means* to the end as by the end itself, the disadvantaged individual sees little value in the middle-class abstract way of thinking, and thus does not appreciate the means. At the beginning of his training, and for a long time afterwards, he sees the means only as a way to get to the end, and he would prefer the end without the means. Having experienced a life in which things have not worked out, he is motivated to seek immediate rather than distant rewards.

It is evident that to stimulate an achievement incentive for the disadvantaged trainee, the instructor should provide specifically defined goals; frequent reinforcement in the form of verbal praise of work well done and, whenever possible, actual created products as feedback to reinforce the praise; a businesslike manner toward work itself; and the necessity that it be performed on time and with precision.

Power: There is no doubt that the power drive exists in the disadvantaged. Police and citizen officials who have held conferences with leaders of street gangs and social groups point out that disadvantaged

spokesmen demonstrate great capability for political strategy—as much capability to make decisions as educated, ranking officials do. Tact and acuteness are requisites in negotiating with them. Certainly, jockeying for power goes on within gangs.

The frustrating character of the power incentive to the disadvantaged is that he has two directions to direct it. He must fend for safety within his own group and also in the outside world. The instructor needs to be continuously aware of this fact, because he must be always alert to the attempts of the trainees—individually and collectively—to "put him on" or "put him down." Once the trainees recognize that they can hold power over the instructor in these ways, the instructor loses the capability to instruct them. If he can combat such attempts with humor, understanding, a calm temper and firmness, the attempt of the trainees to assert their power can result in admiration for him and responsiveness to his instruction.

Secondary Incentives

Secondary incentives are goals which have values that are learned, or acquired, such as the knowledge that money can buy food. The disadvantaged trainee usually has learned certain values which are not admired by middle-class society. The instructor, as well as all personnel involved in the trainee's program, must work to help him develop different concepts of such secondary incentives as prestige, security, and money.

Prestige: Prestige is that rank, respect, and justice the individual expects and to which he feels entitled. Prestige exists in most societies, primitive as well as civilized. In fact, many animals recognize rank; chickens, for instance, have their pecking order in which each hen enjoys the right to peck her inferior and she, in turn, pecks a chicken further down the line.

The symbolic content assigned to the prestige-symbol by the disadvantaged trainee usually reflects his instant success orientation or short-range way of looking at life. A trainee might view a term in a certain prison as a prestigious badge, as a more advantaged individual might refer to having attended a certain university. Money becomes important because of the flashy clothes or big car it can buy rather than the security it could afford if saved.

Security: The disadvantaged trainee does not generally talk about security, possibly because he feels that safety is something he can never have. His

great need for security, however, is reflected in his tendency to see the function of the institution he is a part of as parental. This attitude generally motivates him either to demand more protective power from the institution than is proper for the institution to give, or to become fatalistic and passive about the general unhealthy condition he is in.

On the one hand, if he demands an unreasonable degree of protectiveness from the institution, he is hypersensitive and hypercritical toward it, and believes it poses a continuous threat. With such a trainee the instructor quickly realizes that he must be continuously careful not to demotivate the trainee by any tone of voice or gesture which the trainee might interpret as insincere.

On the other hand, a security-minded trainee can feel that he is incapable of altering the course of his life. Stimulating him to learn is particularly difficult for the instructor, because he has no hope that tomorrow will be any better than today: "Why go to the trouble of studying?" he seems to ask himself. "It won't make any difference in my life." Reflected here is the circle of poverty expressed in the formula: "X" equals a 10-year-old boy; "Y" equals a 17-year-old young man; X sees Y study, achieve graduation, and academic success; X sees Y able to get only a menial job, and he reasons, "So why try?" Thus life comes only to have value for X in terms of the *present moment*.

Money: The use of money as an incentive for the disadvantaged trainee should be particularly clarified. On the one hand, it would seem that the money incentive is the most important of all. This is true to the extent that it is highly unlikely that a disadvantaged trainee will participate in a training program if he has no money or too little to provide basic necessities. However, the important point is that money has no intrinsic value. Like other secondary incentives, money has only the meaning assigned to it. The meaning the disadvantaged assigns to it is its capability to purchase those objectives which can gratify, or alleviate his immediate practical needs, and provide him with an immediate sense of prestige. The abstract value of money, such as its ability to provide security and station, means little to the disadvantaged trainee. He considers it a means through which he can exchange his labor for the basic necessities.

Too much subsistence can demotivate the disadvantaged trainee as much as too little. If his subsistence pay, for instance, matches or almost matches the salary he will make on job entry, he questions

the need to prepare for a job. One institution ran an experiment with the money incentive. Twenty-two hard-core unemployed men in an MDT project were observed. Their ages ranged from 22 to 27. All had been gang members and had served at least one term in prison. One-half were married. The men were in such straits that they had to live on their MDT allotments. When sufficient work skills had been developed about midway in the program, the training institution arranged that the group work as part-time welders to supplement their income. The supplementary wage was attractive to the trainees at first, not for its purchasing power, but because the paycheck proved to the trainees that they could hold their own in the world of industry. Proof that the money did not hold primary value as money was indicated by the fact that some men, despite great need, held their first check for several weeks before cashing it. They would periodically take the check from their wallets, show it to newer trainees, and brag about it. Additional proof was demonstrated by the fact that, after proving they could hold their own in the world of industry, some trainees quit their part-time jobs in order to have more time to devote to their training.

Application of Incentive Concepts

In the application of these concepts to the disadvantaged trainee, the instructor should keep one important fact in mind: the history of man does not characterize him as a fundamentally destructive creature. Basically the trainee wants an active, free life without excessive pain, a life in which he can experience good health, sexual activity, and economic security among friendly people. He wants to be an integrated being, confident in his identity, and occupying with respect and dignity a place among his peers in which he can feel his proper value as a human being with respect and dignity. The trainee's actions become destructive, or diverted, when he is acting out of an old pattern developed when he was unable to fulfill his basic needs in a natural, free, and normal way.

THREAT

Threat implies harm to relevant goals and values. The stronger or more serious the motive which is endangered the greater will be the threat. The significant factor which characterizes threat is the individual's evaluation of anticipated danger. Past ex-

perience has conditioned the disadvantaged person to live in a constant state of expectation of danger. The chronic condition has created a hypersensitivity which tends to make him evaluate the world about him in terms of his limited experiences.

It is essential that the instructor become so effective as a teacher that he can convince the trainee that there is a successful way to cope with a threatening world. The training situation sets up the means to be used and enables the instructor to convince the trainee that a skill can provide gratification of the trainee's needs, from providing food to self-fulfillment in work itself. For a trainee who has never held a regular job and has minimal skills, the task of convincing him that WORK is one means to a safe and contented life can be difficult, and in many cases impossible. The trainee must be convinced that WORK is one answer to the problem of unemployment, but that there is no magical way of achieving the skill to make continued employment possible except through *serious management* of his time and effort.

STRESS

As stated earlier, a primary problem in working with the disadvantaged trainee is dealing with his tendency to evaluate situations in which he finds himself as potential threats. This attitude, which stems from past failure in coping with his environment, has made the trainee hypersensitive and suspicious. Stress refers to the way the individual copes with anticipated or actual danger. A discussion of some characteristic ways the disadvantaged trainee does so will be helpful.

The trainee's response to both threat and stress can be summed up in the phrase *low frustration tolerance*. Because of a low frustration tolerance, the disadvantaged trainee tends to overreact to potential and actual threat or danger. Overreaction may take several forms. If he feels frustrated or blocked from achieving his goal, he may become aggressive. Though controlled aggression directed against the actual threat can be desirable, the disadvantaged person tends to evaluate threats unrealistically and to direct his aggression at something which is not the real source of danger—at the instructor, for instance.

It is extremely important that the instructor, in order to stimulate productive efforts rather than permit wasteful efforts, create a protective situation for the trainee, approve of him as a person, and present new knowledge so that it no longer appears to the

trainee to be a threat but, on the contrary, a means to deal with danger.

REINFORCEMENT

Far more than the middle-class individual, the disadvantaged person must be reinforced along his path of training. Without reinforcement to assure him that he is on the right track and to give him confidence that he can make it, there is a strong possibility that he will not complete training. Thus reinforcement is one of the most important aspects of the training technique. No other person will have more opportunity to reinforce the trainee than the instructor. There are two types of reinforcement: *positive* and *negative*.

Positive Reinforcement

Though each trainee presents his own special problem, demanding his own particular type and degree of reinforcement, certain workable generalizations can be made. Though the trainee, by nature of his disadvantaged state, is hypersensitive and to varying degrees immature, he should always be treated as an adult. The instructor must *never* relate to him in any way that characterizes him as childlike.

Accurate diagnosis of deficiencies and appropriate assignment of remedial work contribute to the motivation of the learner. Because of the practical intent of the trainee's program, prevocational and basic education should be directly related to the trainee's vocational training goal.

Instructional methods also have important motivational value. A variety of instructional techniques should be provided. Occasional use of programmed material with its small steps of learning, normally resulting in correct response by the trainee, give him a feeling of success. The feedback of progress, whether through the use of programmed materials or such devices as progress charts, are essential learning devices.

The instructor of MDT trainees must be able to create within the classroom, shop, or laboratory the kind of atmosphere which promotes self-confidence and the desire for self-improvement on the part of the trainees. Learning must be desirable and pleasant. The adult learner must feel that he is learning something worthwhile and important at every session whether in the shop or in the academic class.

Negative Reinforcement

As the term implies, negative reinforcement works to decrease or extinguish motivation. Some of the more common negative reinforcements are embarrassment, ridicule, negative criticism, slow progress, futility, disappointment, boredom, and dislike of the student role. Still another form of negative reinforcement is insincere praise. The hypersensitivity of the disadvantaged trainee makes him especially acute at detecting insincerity in others—especially in the instructor and other training staff personnel.

Application of Reinforcement Theory

The attitude of the teacher should show sincere concern and respect for each individual trainee. With a group of MDT students, it is not enough for the instructor to talk to them as a group to tell them that he is concerned with the class acquiring a certain amount of knowledge and passing tests. Each student must be assured that the teacher is primarily concerned with him and his problems, his goal, his objectives. An occasional smile and a genuine, sincere interest will have more effect upon the trainee than many words. The adult trainee soon learns the true attitude of the instructor toward him. He will reflect that same attitude. As the instructor feels about his students, so they feel about him.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented some guidelines to help the instructor recognize and deal with some motivational problems of the disadvantaged. The instructor should always remember, however, that the educational attack upon the problems of the trainee cannot be reduced to any formula. In the long run the instructor must rely upon his own ability to gain insight into the trainee's world and upon his own sincerity and understanding to formulate methods to help the trainee make his training program a success. The instructor does have one thing in his favor. Despite the trainee's reticence, or possible fear that he will be placed at a disadvantage, he usually enters his training program with great hope. The instructor is in a particularly important position to help the trainee realize this hope and his goals.

REFERENCES

- 1 Leslie J. Van Etten. "Some Guidelines for Teaching MDTA Classes With Emphasis on Basic Education" (pamphlet). Phoenix, Ariz.: Van Etten, 3013 N. 9th Ave., 1967.
- 2 The discussion of the hierarchy of drives in this section is based on Maslow, Abraham H. *Motivation and Personality*. New York, Harper & Co., 1954.

CHAPTER III

trainee motivation

A good social structure provides an environment which enables the individual to constructively express his motives, or drives, without inhibiting constraints. In such a world the individual can develop his own *ego*—his own capacity for self-regulation and for coping, adapting, perceiving and guiding his behavior in accordance with the potentials and requirements of his environment. A good society is composed neither of an impulsive and impetuous citizenry, nor of an overly inhibited and repressed citizenry, but of men and women who are controlled, rational, efficient, and realistic.

Though cultures differ, it can be generalized that healthy growth requires that needs be fulfilled in a consistent manner free of excessive threat. If an environment is inconsistent and irrational in its demands, continually posing threats which thwart life with pain and danger, the individual likewise develops attitudes which are inconsistent and negative. The disadvantaged person usually grows up in an environment where activities follow no time order, where survival makes practice of law and order difficult, and where development of his capabilities are thwarted. He comes to consider life as a moment-to-moment affair with the past an unpleasant memory and the future too uncertain to plan for.

THE TRAINEE AND THE TRAINING ENVIRONMENT

The obligation of the training center is to create for the disadvantaged trainee an ordered, consistent world which presents a series of constructive challenges. Success in progressively more complex challenges, reinforced by rewards and praise, establishes self-confidence which frees the individual from anxiety so that his energy and intellect can be directed toward self-improvement by learning a skill—an achievement good both for the trainee and for society.

BASIC MOTIVATORS

No matter how ideal a training environment may be, the trainee's purposeful application of his time, energy, and intellect toward achieving a skill must stem from his own motivation. He generally cannot be coerced or flattered with praise or money into completing a training program. So far as the trainee is concerned, the training center is simply one more situation he has entered in which he will experience failure. He evaluates it on the basis of past experience with regular schools in which he experienced rejection, humiliation, and failure. Certain strategy must be used to stimulate and to guide him.

Even when the goal is clear, as in vocational training, motivation to achieve that goal is seldom initially strong in the trainee. Unlike the middle-class student, the disadvantaged trainee has not been motivated to hold a distant objective in mind and work toward it with persistence and confidence that at a proper time he will achieve the objective. Most dropouts occur within the first few weeks of a program. A means which is appealing to the trainee is needed to get him past the first difficult weeks.

Money

The most effective initial incentive is money. Because money has no intrinsic value of its own but contains only the meaning attached to it, its value can gradually be changed from its purchasing power to its ability to give its possessor prestige, status, recognition, and a sense of accomplishment of work well done.

The method of instruction should be so designed that after the allotment gets the trainee into the shop, he is skillfully led to relate more intrinsic values to the money than purchasing power.

A chart of the first months of training presents a visual statement of the variations in trainee interest.

(See figure 7.) The typical effects on trainee interest of a part-time job is represented. The time element, of course, varies with the individual group and the particular training program.

In this hypothetical situation, graduated students were invited into the shop to speak to the trainees at appropriate times during the first month of training. By identifying with these graduates, the trainees began to realize that, if other men had successfully completed the training program, they could also do it. Personnel from industry were also invited to discuss job opportunities, bringing the reality of future jobs closer. Next, the trainees were taken on class trips into industry where the actuality of the working situation was reinforced.

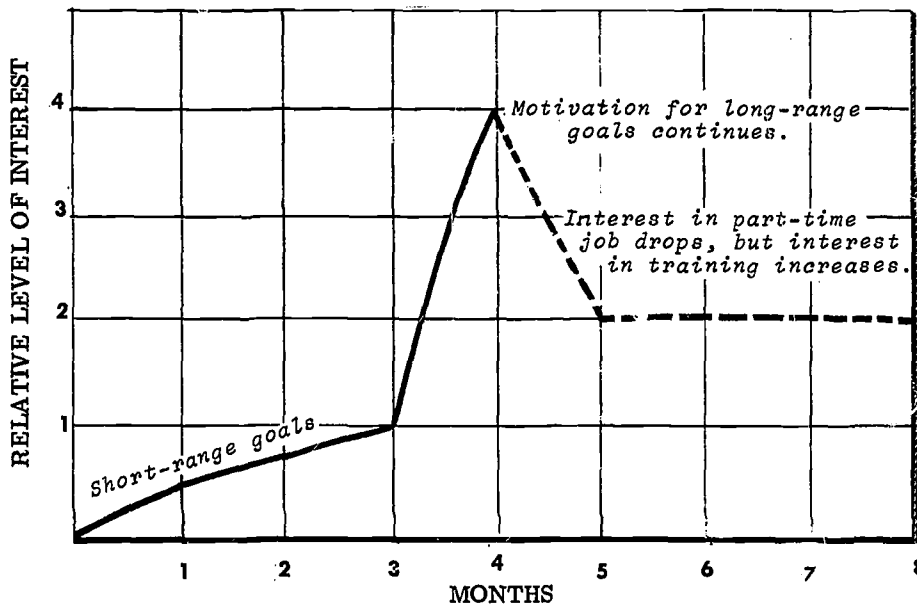
In a few months the trainees' interest in the training program began to lag. At this point the trainees were placed in industry in part-time jobs relevant to their respective skills. An important moment arrived when the men received their first check—a personal check which they had earned through their own labor in a typical working situation. The check took on value beyond its purchasing power. It proved to the men that they could be approved of because of

their own merit. They began to identify it with the skill they were learning, which one day they would see as negotiable as money.

Having proved to themselves that they could hold their own, the trainees later began to lose interest in the part-time jobs which, after all, did not pay very much. However, as interest in the part-time jobs dropped, the incentive value continued. Realizing the importance of the instructor and the knowledge he was able to transmit, they began to show more perseverance and a longer attention-span in their training.

Prestige

Money to the trainee is not an end in itself; its value is in the meaning the trainee assigns to it. As the instructor helps the trainee develop a skill, he should always encourage the trainee to regard as negotiable not the salary the skill will earn, but rather the skill which earns the salary. Once the trainee begins to see the skill in this light, he begins to feel valuable himself, and to want prestige. Because prestige is related to dominance, the trainee might at



1. First month: graduated students and industry personnel speak to trainees.
2. Second month: trainees visit industry.
3. Third month: trainees given part-time job. Trainees' interest increases greatly.
4. Trainees' interest in part-time job drops, but motivation factor of job continues.

Figure 7.—Chart of trainee interest early in training.

this time develop hypercritical attitudes toward the other trainees, the instructor, and the training center generally.

Status

When the need for prestige results in a hypercritical attitude, the instructor should recognize that it reflects the trainee's need for status, for the place he feels he deserves among his fellow trainees and with the instructor. Such overly assertive behavior indicates progress despite its lack of tact.

Recognition

If such a problem occurs, it should be dealt with wisely. To rebuff or humiliate a trainee at this point of development will destroy all motivation to continue to try to release his aggression in socially acceptable ways. The instructor should subtly help the trainee get appropriate recognition from his class and applaud the merit of his ideas if not the manner of his presentation. Then the trainee will come to accept a functional rather than a dominant role in the class.

Others

Money, prestige, and recognition are by no means the only initial motivational approaches to establish readiness for learning in the trainee. They should indicate to the instructor, however, that the trainee always acts out of his own concept of himself. Thus his behavior should never be a matter of reprimand but a key to ways of getting him more involved in his program. In this way, hopefully, he becomes sufficiently motivated to do efficient and competent work for its own sake.

INCENTIVES AND RESPONSES

Though money is important as an initial incentive to motivation, the power of money alone cannot keep the trainee attending the program any more than "pep talks" and "boot-strap advice." Neither can merely clarifying a long-range goal induce participation, for the disadvantaged trainee is unlike the middle-class student who, once a long-range goal has been established, will settle down to a preparatory plan involving years of study. Faced with obligations which may include a family, the trainee is pressured by the need to make money quickly. Yet he does not have the knowledge of a skill or trade, and frequently not even the numerical and verbal proficiency to learn

a trade or skill. To aggravate the situation further, the disadvantaged trainee's past life has usually been a history of failure. His initial reaction is to look for quick, magical, nonexistent solutions to his problems, and to estimate his own capabilities inaccurately. In other words, the distant, final objective has almost no motivating power initially. Thus for a long time, many intermediate goals which lead progressively toward the long-range incentive must be set up.

Short-Range

To dramatize how short-range goals can give the trainee the progressively tangible rewards necessary to keep him working for a long-range goal, a hypothetical case can be given. A trainee wishes to be a TV repairman. He is 23 years old, reads at a third-grade level. In addition to academic disadvantages, he is unemployed and has a family to support. An ideal program would first build up the trainee's reading and math skills to an appropriate level. While doing this, and because the prevocational training has little direct relation to electronics and hence supplies little motivation, he is given a part-time job as a tester in a factory. As he progresses in his training, he is given a succession of jobs which progressively utilize his increasing knowledge of mathematics, writing, and employability skills, and develop his interest in electronics—jobs such as electrical inspector and electronics assistant.

Long-Range

Each change in a well designed program represents to the trainee a tangible step forward and reinforces his self-confidence in his ability. Once having completed prevocational work, the prospective TV repairman begins TV training directly. By now he is probably working in a television repair shop as a helper. Though the hypothetical program might be impractical in its entirety, its progressive, step-by-step character is applicable to MDT training programs. In such a program, the instructor is a necessary factor. With a positive attitude, knowledge of attractive job alternatives, and capability to help the trainee learn new skills and new self-understanding, he becomes a crucial part of the trainee's progress.

STIMULATING MOTIVATED ACTION

Though various devices might be used to get the trainee into the training environment and to help him over the first difficult days, what motivates him to

pursue his goals will be his day-to-day identification with the instructional materials and with the instructor. Procedures which accomplish this purpose involve the total picture and are difficult to formulate. However, certain guidelines can be used by the instructor which when practiced together help the trainee develop a state of readiness.

Approach to the Trainee

Because of past school experiences the disadvantaged trainee is failure oriented as far as formal learning is concerned, and he tends to identify the instructor with his past school difficulties. To counteract the trainee's negativism, the instructor's basic approach to him should be sincere and positive. The instructor should let the trainee know that HE not only believes the trainee can produce, but that HE expects more of the trainee than the trainee expects of himself. The instructor, in turn, must reward the smallest step forward the trainee makes, and be alert to praise him honestly whenever possible. He should not pretend that the trainee's work is satisfactory when it is not, yet he should not offer criticism which demotivates.

The instructor's positive attitude should be evident in dramatic, outgoing class presentations which should hold the trainee's interest and help him forget the loud, confused, disordered environment in which he lives.

The instructor's approach must also be warm and outgoing so that he communicates a personal and honest concern about whatever the trainee feels important, yet without losing rapport with the class as a whole.

Instruction in the shop and laboratory ordinarily becomes less formal as the program progresses. As the trainees become better acquainted, they tend to establish cliques and small groups, and a certain amount of "kidding around" should be expected. In this atmosphere, and with the necessity of his being outgoing, it is easy for the instructor to be caught off guard. A delicate balance must be established between rapport and familiarity. The high degree of familiarity with which trainees address each other must not be construed as an invitation for the instructor to do likewise. The class expects him to be warm and friendly, but also to be impersonal and businesslike, establishing boundaries and rules which are orderly, firm, and fair.

Trainee as Instructor's Assistant

There usually cannot be too much individual in-

struction. In this one-to-one relationship the instructor can teach material in terms of the particular trainee's ability and receptivity. The trainee-instructor identification process is simplified. However, the instructor should always communicate a sense of fairness and total lack of favoritism.

One way to handle the problem is to give much of the individual instruction in conference with the trainee outside of formal class time. One center devised a different procedure for handling the problem. The method provides opportunity for each student in turn to occasionally be an instructor's assistant. This usually results in an effective equalizer and total class motivator. Trainee "A" is separately taught a special skill, technique, or operation requiring less than a half hour to grasp. "A" then teaches "B" and "A" is evaluated in the performance of "B." Then "B" teaches "C" and so on. Thus, each member of the group has the motivational advantage of being an "instructor." This method also helps develop verbal and communication skills because each man must pass on his learning to another.

Variety in Lesson Planning

The trainee hungers for and needs the ordered world he never had—a world marked off by stable boundaries of time and place. However, past experience has made it chronically difficult for him to follow ordered paths, whether they be chronological, emotional, or geographical.

On the one hand, assignments must be clearly made, promptly taken up, evaluated, and returned. On the other hand, the hop-scotch manner of the trainee's thinking and his short attention-span demand variety, change, and action. Thus the instructor must preplan his class and shop periods with scrupulous sense for timing, so that something is always happening. He must always be in motion. He speaks, asks the trainee a question, demonstrates, asks the trainee to demonstrate after him. He plays one role after the other, and has the trainee act out his feelings. He should occasionally employ relevant jokes and the unexpected to break the trainee's tension. However, all of this motion should evolve naturally out of the concepts being presented.

Thus the trainee's short attention-span demands that all complex or long procedures be broken down into segments, and that the direction of the class period not pursue a single course for any extended period of time. This incapability of the disadvantaged trainee to concentrate in middle-class frames of reference for extended periods is utilized in teaching skills

in an integrated manner. By use of increments and continuous cross references and by use of short successes, the trainee is motivated to pursue his long-range goal.

Integrating Separate Skills

There are two primary reasons for teaching the trainee skills in an integrated manner: (1) the technique utilizes his short attention-span, and (2) in life situations skills are seldom used separately.

A manual of one center deals with *Numbers for Work, Money, Living, Printing and Numbers*. The title indicates integrated content. The title page also states what the lesson contains: "Objectives, Word Study Sheets, Text and Instruction, Check Sheets, and Job Sheets." The second page lists 14 general areas of information the trainee can expect to learn. The "You Will Learn" page is, of course, what is ordinarily the Table of Contents. It should be noted that the title page and the "You Will Learn" page clearly tell the trainee what he will find in the manual. The manual proper begins with the word study sheet shown in figure 8.

Note that (1) a critical word is presented with its meaning, its phonetic spelling, and its derivation. (2) The word "graphic" introduces the concept of graphs which, in turn, opens the way to a description of three kinds of graphs. Note that the graphs dramatize money—Joe's income and its management. (3) The term "graphic" also leads to graphic arts and suggests the field of printing. Note also that the method of presentation should be highlighted by varied type, sizes, illustrations, and so on.

The concept of numbers is thus presented in terms of work, money, and living skills. As the lesson proceeds, each concept will be extended, developed, and tested by a check sheet which the trainee works out. As extension of these originally introduced concepts occurs, there is repetition and reiteration of the basic ideas—a gradual building-up of desired frames of reference. For instance, the next study sheet introduces the concept of mass production and interchangeability (illustrated with the common screw), a third study sheet introduces the concept of progress (illustrated with the automobile, which uses screws, and other interchangeable parts) and printing (illustrated by various kinds of printing type). Other concepts which are introduced are measurement (use of rulers, the different geometric forms, and how to determine area, volume, and so on),

history and theory of printing processes, and history and printing of money.

Throughout the presentation of these concepts, every attempt is made to show their interrelation to one another and their relevance to the day-to-day living of the trainee. This method of presenting concepts to the trainee and this almost crude method of constructing his workbook are necessary at first. As he gradually acquires more and more capability to handle various skills, more conventional texts and methods of presentation can be used.

Formality and Informality

Though a list of specific ways to stimulate motivated behavior in the disadvantaged trainee can be extended indefinitely, general guidelines for dealing with the disadvantaged trainees can be suggested. Generally the instructor should try to keep an atmosphere of purposeful but flexible order. The necessity of relaxed formality is important because it is only in such an environment, which is characterized by clearcut and reasonable concepts of values and procedures, that the trainee can learn. One cannot learn well in a state of disorder and disorganization. Order is necessary to provide the hope of success which is usually lacking in the lives of the disadvantaged. Hope is the most necessary factor in motivation, for if the trainee cannot hope, he cannot have confidence in his ability to achieve, and thus he loses all belief in the practical value of study and work.

At the same time the instructor must be something of an extrovert, making his dynamic presence continually felt so that the trainee has an example to follow, a conception of character toward which to strive. In this way the disadvantaged person can be stirred to accept healthier and more constructive points of view.

Developing Trainee Readiness

The instructor must not only get the trainee actively involved in the learning process, but he must also stimulate in him a state of readiness for learning. Readiness means a condition rather than a simple attitude or impulse. It is no simple matter to bring the trainee to a state of readiness for learning when he faces the prospect with doubt and suspicion. This is particularly true in teaching abstract subjects such as basic English and math because the instructor does not have the goal of vocational training to which he can relate these basic skills. In addition, the trainee's negative attitude toward

NUMBERS FOR

Work
Money
Living

WORD STUDY SHEET NO. WORDS ARE TOOLS

WORD

1.

GRAPHIC

(graff ik)

MEANING

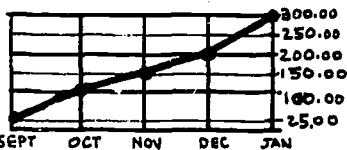
Our English language has a lot of words that come from other languages. So far, we have used many words that we borrowed from Latin. Can you remember some?

The word "graphic" comes from the old Greek language...it was their word meaning "to write". The "lead" in the pencil you use to write with is called "graphite".

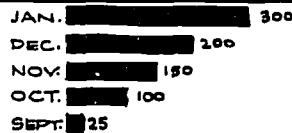
You should know that the word "graph" is a special kind of drawing which gives facts in a picture, with a few words and numbers.

The "graphic arts" include painting, drawing, writing, and printing - one of the important graphic arts.

3 KINDS OF GRAPHS SHOW US HOW MUCH MONEY Joe Williams SAVED.



1 LINE GRAPH: Money Joe saved from Sept. to Jan.



2 BAR GRAPH: Money Joe saved from Sept. to Jan.

Each symbol "\$" means \$25.

Month	Symbol Count
SEPT.	1
OCT	4
NOV	6
DEC.	8
JAN.	12

3 PICTURE GRAPH: Money Joe saved from Sept. to Jan.

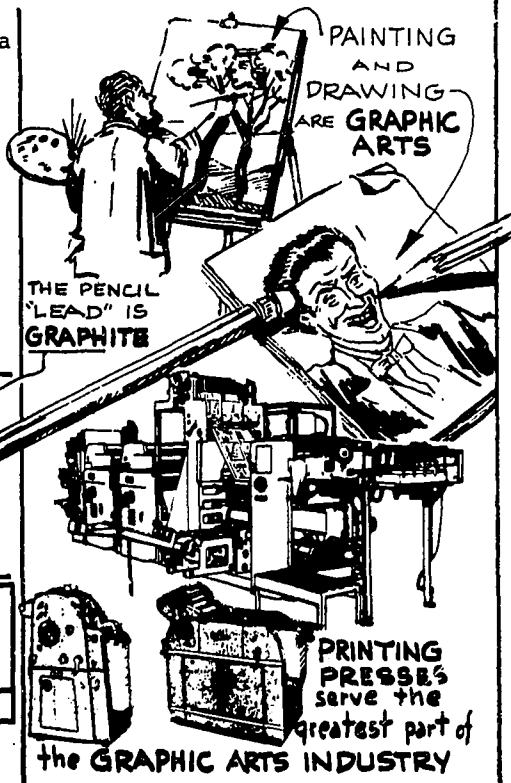


Figure 8.—Word study page shows that words are tools.

learning verbal and numerical skills must be overcome. The problem of establishing readiness in the trainee may be approached by stimulating the trainee to grasp and appreciate concepts involving value of education, personal growth, and vocational development, and others.

Participation: Stimulating the trainee to grasp and appreciate goal related concepts is difficult. This is especially true of a concept such as citizenship because the trainee does not identify with his society, and perhaps feels hostile toward it. Yet a basic objective of prevocational and basic education is to help the trainee appreciate and feel a part of his society. It is because he does not feel part of it that he does not want to learn about it. The instructor's problem then becomes one of finding a point of entry.

Though the trainee may not believe himself to be a powerful member of society, he does recognize that he is a member of his training class—which consists of a small community of his peers. A creative instructor can use the trainee's personal involvement in his class to teach him a great deal about democratic and responsible participation in that environment.

In his small class, each trainee can watch the group's operation: 1. He can see and judge for himself the effectiveness of a leader. 2. He can find out for himself that a group works better if there are rules and established procedures. 3. By participating in policy discussions, he can understand the need for compromise and adjustment when there is conflict. 4. He can find his own criteria for judging how well the group is functioning—how well it is serving the interests of its members.

The idea of the class as a partly self-governing group begins to appeal to the trainee. As the instructor gradually introduces new procedures which increasingly reflect those used in more formal organizations and governmental bodies, the trainee comes to evaluate his own past more closely. He finds that meaningful rules work better than haphazard methods. After the first few weeks, during which the trainees get to know one another, they are sometimes given the chance to elect temporary class officers and a student council. This provides an opportunity to determine the qualities necessary in leaders and to learn about democratic procedures for conducting an election.

As the trainees discuss the purposes of their group, they become interested in the relationship of their interests to the organization of society generally. The

instructor is able to lead the group to conclusions necessary to support the democratic process—including the need for rules of procedure to get things done, the need for each person to be respected and heard, the need for all to listen and participate in government.

With administrative cooperation, the instructor can help trainees learn about the ways in which a citizen, or group of citizens, can evaluate and work toward educational and training goals. Part of the activity of a class may be planning its own participation in school events such as open houses and graduation. A class can make and enforce rules of its own. A class newspaper can be published which will help teach the rights and limits of free speech, responsibility for complaints, accuracy and effectiveness of reporting, the necessity for rational thought, and the dignity of the printed word., e.g., the class may wish to discuss school policies and conditions, reach a collective decision, and present its petition to the school administration through the student council. Most of the requests will be simple to grant, and are likely to lead to improvement. Such success encourages the trainee to participate more in his society.

Negative Attitudes: To the hostile trainee many issues such as citizenship and the participation of all groups in society have great meaning and importance. He often expresses them, however, in a negative sense. He feels strongly involved in the issues, and expression of his feelings can be loud and persistent. When thoughts and emotions are held rigid, the mind is closed and feeling is expressed destructively. The instructor when possible should encourage the hostile trainee to express his negative attitudes. Expression of them may reduce their intensity. The structure of his beliefs and attitudes become more flexible, and it becomes possible for him to take in new ideas and rearrange old ones. He is likely to be the one to raise the issues for discussion, presenting the instructor with the opportunity to put across a more logical position. This must be done without dogmatism and with acceptance of the trainee's position, though perhaps with reservation. For instance, to the young nonwhite trainee who criticizes the Bill of Rights, asserting that it was written by and for white men, the instructor can agree that the Bill of Rights was written by white men and has been a very good thing for them, but that it could be just as good for the nonwhites if applied in their behalf.

The hostile trainee believes in justice; his hostility

is a reaction to what he sees as injustice. This fact enables the instructor to get the trainee to see that the principles of justice are good but that fairness in carrying out of those principles is dependent upon participation of *all* men in the political process so that laws become available to *all*. When the trainee begins to feel he is part of the group, he more readily understands the positive side of law and order; i.e., the primary purpose of laws is not to limit freedom, but to assure the welfare of the group as a whole and the members individually. By using the trainee's recognition that freedom is not absolute, that one member of society cannot be permitted the "right" to injure another, and that the general welfare assures individual welfare, the trainee can be made to appreciate concepts of law and order necessary for learning as well as for living.

Verbalizing: Encouraging the trainee to verbalize not only releases his hostility but makes him more receptive to more rational ideas and healthier attitudes. The act of phrasing his ideas increases his skill in using language effectively, and thus his ability to deal with concepts.

Much has been written about the inability or unwillingness of the disadvantaged trainee to think in abstract terms, to deal with concepts, and to verbalize. The instructor should be aware that the problem is chiefly that the disadvantaged trainee is limited in thinking and speaking in "middle-class terms." Within the context of his own environment, the disadvantaged person is capable of complete verbalization. Because he has grown up in a different environment from the middle-class person, he has experienced life in different terms and has consequently developed a different vocabulary and different verbal patterns. Because the disadvantaged trainee is more oriented to physical action, to the external world, to practical and tangible effects, the instructor must take this into consideration when communicating with him.

In all phases of training, examples should be chosen primarily from the trainee's daily life rather than

from middle- or upper-class life. A disadvantaged woman is much more interested in learning about numbers when she sees the application of saving a dollar in buying food, just as the disadvantaged man will apply himself to the study of numbers if he can be made to see the subject as a necessary supplementary tool to the motor skill he is learning.

ACKNOWLEDGING PROGRESS

The instructor might ask: How will training change the trainee, and how can this change be recognized? Some of the indications of progress on the part of the trainee are:

- The trainee will not only work more happily and with longer attention-span and greater intensity, but will gradually feel and demonstrate more satisfaction in the work itself.
- The trainee will become more and more individualistic and self-sufficient. Though he might need and ask for help, he will begin to risk standing alone in handling learning problems.
- He will become more relaxed in his study and work. Time will begin to lose its sense of urgency. There will be a greater consistency in his moods. He will be able to wait longer periods for completion of tasks, and will need less reinforcement and fewer rewards to spur him on.
- As he becomes more proficient and individualistic in his work, his relationship with his fellow trainees may become more natural and warm and, hence, less dependent and suspicious.
- He will begin to develop an awareness of, and concern for, areas beyond himself, such as his school, his community, the Nation, and the world at large.

As these positive changes become evident, the instructor should communicate that progress to the trainee at every opportunity. The acknowledgment of progress is important to the trainee.

instructional methods, techniques, and materials

The effective stimulation of the disadvantaged trainee to motivated action centers around the shop and lab because that is where his primary interests lie. The disadvantaged trainee almost always looks to shop work as the most important area of training, perhaps the only important part. However, much more than mere interest and attendance in the shop are required to enable the trainee to successfully progress through the total training program. Conventional methods are likely to fail due to communication gaps which exist and which will develop between the disadvantaged trainee and the instructor. Therefore special methods and techniques must be devised that take into account the general characteristics of this group.

SELECTED INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS

Attributes of disadvantaged trainees that most directly influence the selection of instructional methods, techniques, and materials are:

- *History of failure.* Repeated failures in school and society usually have left the disadvantaged person with a defeatist attitude and the extreme need for motivation to learn.
- *Negative attitude toward school atmosphere.* Disadvantaged trainees typically were unable to meet the demands of conventional schooling in the past and dislike anything that reminds them of their school experience.
- *Immaturity.* The inability to start and finish tasks, the failure to assume personal responsibility, and insecurity are deficiencies that must be overcome if the trainee is to make satisfactory progress.
- *Dependency.* Past failures may lead disadvantaged trainees to place a low value on their

worth as individuals. This, in turn, tends to make them seek sources of strength in other persons. Instructors often are selected to serve as models and examples.

- *Suspiciousness.* Past life experiences have often made the disadvantaged person distrust even well-intended overtures on the part of others. Methods and techniques must be employed that provide successes quickly and therefore proof of their value to the trainee.

Supervised Practice

Disadvantaged trainees often begin at a low level of performance and each step in training may require extensive practice for its mastery. The amount of practice that is desirable becomes an important judgment on the part of the instructor. Too little practice may likely lead to errors that the trainee translates into failures, resulting in loss of motivation. Practice beyond one or two perfect performances should be encouraged. (See figure 9.)

Some trainees like repeat practice, because it is pleasurable to repeat a successful performance and a reinforcement of achievement. Even after mastery of a task, some practice review is often necessary for trainees who are likely to forget or who have difficulty in concentration. At this point, practice becomes "brushing up," but its importance should also be pointed out to the trainee. On the other hand, too much practice may lead the trainee to believe that he is not moving along and making progress. Extended practice also leads to trainee boredom and a loss of interest in training.

Practice must be supervised to insure that the trainee works up to his potential and to correct errors before they become ingrained. The trainee may be uneasy with supervision that is too close. However, the trainee must be shown that checkups are a necessary part of industry, and he should be taught to



Figure 9.—Practice sharpens newly acquired skills.

expect them and to understand how he may benefit from them.

Rest

Except in very strenuous occupations, worker fatigue is usually much more mental than physical. The need for rest is very real, but it is usually not required for purely physical restoration. The meaning of a pause is usually more important than the pause itself, because it indicates to the trainee that the instructor has an interest in his health and well-being.

Fatigue, however much emotional it is in nature, does cause efficiency to drop, and, ideally, rest periods should be scheduled just before this drop. If the instructor waits too long, recovery from fatigue will be quick at first but will soon slacken. This will be reflected in the amount of work done, errors, accidents, and inability to solve relatively simple problems.

Whenever possible, trainees should have regular breaks. This is particularly important when a shop or class session is long. Here the situation is largely the same as that of industry and business where it is

recognized that workers adjust effort to the time programmed and to the amount of work expected. The instructor, therefore, should schedule breaks to achieve maximum efficiency in training, just as industry programs breaks for the greatest efficiency and output.

Image and Performance

People tend to see themselves as others evaluate them. In recent tests a group of teachers were told their classes were either below average, average, or above average in ability. In reality the groups were all about the same. However, over a period of time the so-called superior groups began to perform in a superior manner because their teachers consistently expected excellence, while allegedly inferior groups began to act like slow learners.¹

The disadvantaged trainee may perform poorly because he is accustomed to having few demands of a creative nature made upon him and because neither he nor others believe that he is capable of accomplishment. However, a trainee who can visualize himself in the role of worker-in-training has taken a long

stride toward success as a trainee. An instructor who can help the trainee achieve that self-image has gone a long way toward breaking the pattern of repeated failures and poor performances. The establishment of a good, sharply defined self-image becomes a useful instructional method.

Step-by-Step Training Projects

The image that the trainee has of the training program may be almost as important as the image he has of himself. Conventional schooling has little appeal to the trainee, and the long view of occupational training, while desirable, may seem impossible of achievement.

At the same time, a trainee who is presented only with simple tasks and short goals may doubt the capability of training to provide him with marketable job skills. On the other hand, a trainee who is shown only the more formidable steps and distant goals may be overwhelmed and defeated before he starts. By breaking up the training portions into job units or projects, the instructor brings the program and its objectives into perspective and presents them to the trainee in segments that he can visualize in his mind and achieve with his hands.

Short-Term Projects: These projects can be most applicable to tasks or goals that are readily accomplished. Such job units keep the trainee moving forward and reinforce the feeling that he is making progress in training, thus providing the quick and repeated successes he needs for continuing motivation. Short-term projects also allow the instructor to introduce the concept of due dates and meeting deadlines, as well as a sense of the demands of time that are often unfamiliar to the disadvantaged trainee.

Long-Term Projects: These are best introduced later in training after the trainee has been able to master and consolidate at least a small reserve of short-term accomplishments. Typical long-term projects are the learning of a process that involves the mastery of more than a single tool or proficiency in some element of basic education.

When a long-term project is undertaken, it is important that the instructor constantly keep the greater rewards of the more distant goal in view. The confidence that arises from the achievement of short-term projects serves as the impetus to engage in longer-term work. However, instructors must be realistic and sometimes be willing to settle for a portion of the total when trainees first attempt long-term proj-

ects. On the other hand, long-term projects, once achieved, give the trainee feeling that there is purpose to his training and that it can prepare him for a job in industry.

Strengthening Memory

An instructional unit on memory assistance is desirable, preferably about midway in the program. The disadvantaged trainee often feels that he has a poor memory. He is unaware that this incapability to recall is related to a lack of frames of reference with which to make associations, especially those of an academic nature.

Memory assistance may be implemented by practice involving concentration, repetition, and the consolidation of past learning to provide a base on which to build recall. Encouragement and assurance that he can improve his memory is necessary. Trainees can even be helped to learn unrelated material by making artificial associations. In this case the associations must be made in terms with which the trainee is very familiar. Such training gives him tangible evidence that training is both useful and able to build on itself.

Teaching for Transfer Training

In the traditional sense, teaching for transfer is usually beyond the ability of the disadvantaged person to achieve, at least during most of the relatively short training program. However, the disadvantaged trainee can be provided with a sense of relating one skill to another, and this gives him a flexibility as a worker that he can achieve in no other way.

The disadvantaged person usually has a poor perspective of time and events, and he tends to live and function in the present. The past has little appeal, and he has learned to distrust the promise of the future. The instructor can help overcome this tendency by making constant associations between old and new material, and material yet to come. This enables the trainee to look back to recent training and forward to new applications.

In teaching for transfer training, the instructor usually must go from the concrete to the abstract in order to illustrate a generalization. Then he indicates how that generalization may be applied to a different concrete situation. Finally he presents the same principle in different contexts.

As an example of transfer training, a trainee learns in prevocational welding what left- and right-hand threads are. This leads to the introduction of thread

terminology. This information is transferred to machine shop where he learns to order, modify and cut threads. Further transfer occurs in small engine repair where he makes a practical application of threading by using threads in the assembly of parts.

Environmental Factors as Method

Environmental factors such as heat, light, noise, and physical surroundings contribute to or detract from learning in ways that are generally well known. At the same time, environmental factors can serve as an indirect method to indoctrinate trainees into the atmosphere and expectations of industry.

The training center shop should be as much like its industrial counterpart as possible. Plant-like work stations should be evident in the shop from the first days of training. Procedures should be as industry-related as possible and scheduling should follow the pattern of those that are typical of plant operations.

In addition, instructors should require trainees to maintain standards of neatness and care of work stations, equipment, and finished products as they are in the plant. Such precautions also serve the interests of safety and the conservation of materials—two other important industrial considerations.

Discussions and Questioning

Discussions and questioning provide the instructor with a means of imparting information, making assessments, and drawing trainees together in small or large groups. (See figure 10.) Discussions and questioning in a relaxed atmosphere can also serve as important motivating factors, because such activity tends to build respect and rapport between the instructor and the trainees. Despite the fact that there usually is less discussion and more “doing” in the vocational setting, the value of verbal methods of training should not be overlooked.

Trainees often give a revealing picture of their attitudes, development, and progress during discussions that involve other persons. They may feel less on their guard than when they converse directly with the instructor about themselves. Monopolizers and nonparticipants display the extremes of involvement, but the extent to which any trainee participates is meaningful.

Discussions may be extended to include other training classes in an effort to increase social skills. They may center around the visits of outside speakers from business or industry to give the discussion an added

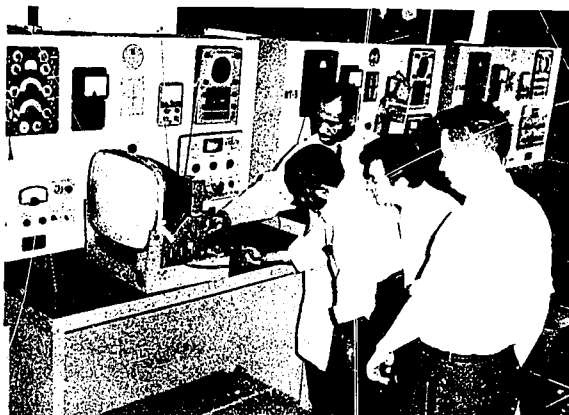


Figure 10.—Discussions and questioning work well with small groups.

dimension. Questioning a group allows the instructor to judge the relative initiative and responsiveness of each trainee.

Testing

Overreliance upon formal testing in the early training phase is discouraged in manpower programs for disadvantaged trainees. His past experience with conventional tests and reports generally demonstrated his underachievement and failures in school. Examinations and report cards, unless highly modified in format and purpose, will almost surely cause a loss of motivation.

A continuing assessment and evaluation of trainee progress from intake to graduation is necessary, however, to insure correct initial placement and maximum progress. Testing in manpower programs should be informal and directed toward evaluating the trainee in terms of his own potential and performance. (See figure 11.) Little emphasis should be placed on grading, and direct comparisons between trainees are to be avoided.

Some motivational stimulus may be generated if the trainee understands that tests indicate his work is important enough to be judged. Simple but infrequent testing also implies an interest in the progress of the trainee.

Properly structured testing can serve to make the trainee aware of his assets and the ways in which he may build on them. The disadvantaged trainee typically has a varied work history with a number of partial and fragmented skills which he cannot properly describe or evaluate. Informal performance tests

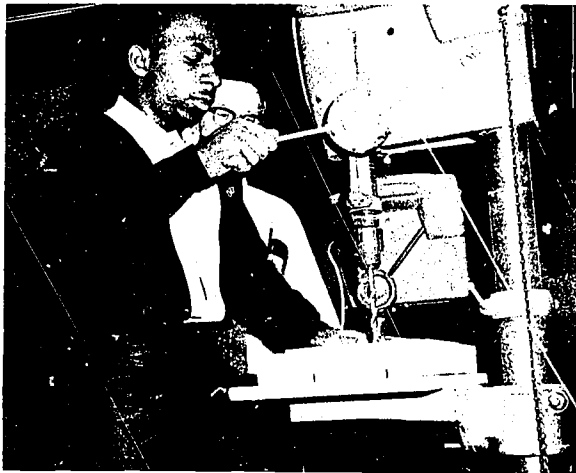


Figure 11.—Observation and assessment is preferred and often supplements formal testing.

in the shop or lab in which skills are manually displayed generally are more truly representative of the trainee's progress than conventional written tests. Constant use of check sheet tests at the end of each lesson unit are usually suitable for trainee evaluation because they demand an overt response *from the trainee* which reinforces learning and provides him with a means of judging his own work.

Structured testing is most effective where trainee performance is tested via task-related production "projects" on an individual or team-crew basis. The trainee is thus judged on his ability to produce a satisfactory result, item, unit, or part.

Answers should be easily located in other pages of the text, and the trainee should turn to the answer if necessary. Questions should be structured by reading levels and may repeat text or instruction statements word for word. Fill-in blanks are useful, and some letters of a blank may even be filled in for the trainee. True-false questions, like verbal yes-no questions, may unduly deflate trainees and, in any case, have too much of the element of chance. Recall questions generally are too difficult. Also, recall may demand too much skill in generating words and sentences.

Basic Instructional Operations

Instructors who are unfamiliar with the limitations of many disadvantaged trainees may underestimate the need for teaching basic and fundamental concepts which can be taken for granted with advantaged students. Such concepts as opposite, right- or

left-handed, and the visual representations of ideas often are not an ingrained part of the disadvantaged trainee's general knowledge and working concepts.

A trainee may perform the mechanics of a task without understanding the very elemental ideas that are involved. He may achieve a mechanical proficiency without seeing the operation in the context of its general applications. This may severely limit his ability to handle more than routine and repetitive assignments. A trainee's motivation is increased when he finds that he is able to understand the principles of a task as well as its mechanics.

Instruction is needed early in training that will assure trainee understanding of fundamental ideas. One such method involves reducing the total actions and operations of trainees to component status.

Thought Operations: A useful way in which trainee activity can be analyzed is to reduce each procedure to a set of components, sometimes called "thought operations." A thought operation involves the step taken and the implicit or explicit thinking that is associated with it. This technique allows the instructor to present a procedure in very elemental terms and to check the understanding of the trainee at a very basic level. The instructor avoids accepting mechanical proficiency as evidence of mastery of a task. He also satisfies himself that the trainee is helped to make mental associations with physical acts.

For example, the instructor should frequently ask the trainee such questions as: Can you do that another way? Can you start at the opposite end? Why do we use this particular tool? What happens if we reverse the piece of stock in the machine? What is different about this machine thread and that machine thread? When you press harder, why does the tool bit bite deeper into the metal in the lathe? If the lathe turns faster, does the bit work easier? Why?

Motivation Measure—A Pat on the Back: Just as a procedure can be reduced to components of thought operations, it is useful to think of the motivational aspects of training in equally simple components. It is not enough to be generally aware that the disadvantaged trainee needs reassurance, successes, and an occasional pat on the back. The disadvantaged trainee also needs immediate and continuing motivational stimulation that arises out of his own successful accomplishments at the moment. He has little confidence in deferred benefits or the culmination of present effort in future rewards.

Every short learning step that is mastered by the

trainee contains a certain element of motivational stimulus for him. Thus, any concept of a motivational measure, while it cannot be precisely defined, is useful as a concept because it keeps the instructor's attention consciously directed to it.

An instructor has frequent opportunities to increase the motivational stimulation that arises out of a step in training. A trainee gains a certain amount of motivational stimulus by the successful accomplishment of a task. But the measure of this stimulus may be raised significantly by such observations on the part of the instructor as, "That work would pass on the job" (if it is true), or "You'll be doing that very same thing on the job before long."

In practice, thought operations and motivation

measures find their implementation rather naturally as basic extensions of the standard four-step method of instruction, a description of which follows.

Four-Step Method

The limitations of disadvantaged trainees necessitate the use of instructional methods that provide thorough preparation of the trainee, demonstration by the instructor, tryout by the trainee, and checking to determine the degree of proficiency attained. The four-step method is designed to provide all these elements and is thus most appropriate for instructing the disadvantaged.

A procedure presented through the four-step in-

FOUR-STEP METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

1. Preparation Step

Put the trainee at ease.

Describe the job and find out what the trainee already knows about it.

Get the trainee interested in the job.

Place the trainee in the correct position to observe and do the job.

3. Try-out Step

Have the trainee do the job and correct his errors.

Have the trainee explain each key point as he does the job again.

Make sure the trainee understands.

Continue until you are sure the trainee knows the job.

2. Presentation Step

Demonstrate and explain one important step at a time.

Stress each key point.

Instruct clearly, completely and patiently, but no more than the trainee can master.

4. Follow-up Step

Check to see if the trainee has learned the job.

Put the trainee on his own and let him decide when he needs help.

Check frequently, encourage questions.

Taper off coaching until final checking indicates the trainee has mastered the job.

Figure 12.—Four-step method is well suited for training the disadvantaged.

structional method is accomplished in the following sequence of steps:

- Preparation of the trainee.
- Demonstration of the operation.
- Tryout by the trainee.
- Followup or checking for proficiency and quality of final product.

Properly done, the four-step method (1) takes into account both the relative assets *and* limitations of individual trainees (2) guides trainees through the procedure at a suitable pace and makes almost certain their eventual mastery of the procedure, (3) almost certainly guarantees the motivational stimulus that success brings and (4) lays a good foundation for instruction at the next level. (See figure 12.) Early in training, the concepts of thought operations and motivation measures can be employed to make the four-step method quite elementary and within the reach of even the most disadvantaged trainee.

Whole Method

The disadvantaged trainee—like many others—is impatient. He wants to know *immediately* what he has to gain by learning the job at hand and by completing the program. He doesn't think in abstractions. He is anxious to see the finished product right away, and he resists plodding along on a small part of a process. If he must plod, he wants to know where the work leads.

In teaching by wholes, the instructor runs quickly through a process or task before teaching its component parts in detail. He does this so trainees will see the practical objectives toward which they will work and gain some motivational stimulus from seeing the goal clearly. A more subtle motivational stimulus arises from the fact that disadvantaged trainees are very impressed by a person who can lead them through training.

Also, the quick run-through technique that is characteristic of the whole method demonstrates order, showing the trainee how each painstakingly learned part will fit into a whole.

Once a job process has been completed and demonstrated as a whole, the instructor must decide (1) what and (2) how much should be taught in a class period, a day, or a week. The answer lies in an assessment of trainee readiness, which involves mastery of previous material and the desire to go forward. At any early stage in the learning of a task, trainees may be overly enthusiastic. Progress that

is too rapid may easily lead to failures and frustrations.

Short units with built-in successes usually are best at first, provided that segments are not so short as to be artificial or obviously easy. Timing of a unit or session is extremely important, and, where possible, the instructor should plan some periods of forward advance and some periods of coasting. He should attempt to anticipate problem areas that will require extra time and greater application.

A day's session or a 2- or 3-day unit should include many minor achievements. When the trainee has begun to build on short units, he gains noticeable momentum that usually *provides its own* motivation.

SPECIAL TECHNIQUES

The training of the disadvantaged worker presents a number of special problems to instructors. Suspiciousness of the motives of others often makes the disadvantaged trainee hard to reach. This is especially true early in training when the trainee has not yet made a firm association between himself and the benefits of the program. Resentment of authority may make the trainee look upon the instructor as an object of some hostility at first. The middle-class point of view of some instructors may seem to the disadvantaged trainee to be that of some vague establishment that he distrusts.

Many of these special problems center around the quality of communication that is established between the instructor and the trainee. The instructor must rather quickly establish a line of communication, because most other aspects of training depend on it. The suitability of most training techniques depends on the extent to which they lend themselves to quick and direct exchange between the instructor and trainee.

Communications Problems

It is usually difficult for the disadvantaged person to think in abstract terms, to deal with total concepts, and to communicate his understanding or lack of understanding to others. Often, however, the problem is not so much that the trainee has limited ability to conceptualize and verbalize, but that he is limited in doing so in terms of conventional education situations or in middle-class terms. These problems cannot be attacked until he is able to understand and make himself understood by others.

Language Barrier: The culturally deprived home customarily lacks books, magazines and conversation relevant to middle-class cultural values. Thus discussions involving the values and concepts of both working class and middle-class society, or of labeling and comparing items such as tools and work objects, are seldom practiced in the deprived home. This lack of verbal practice necessarily results in poor enunciation, pronunciation, and functional grammar usage.

One's use of language reflects and affects one's way of thinking. The undereducated, disadvantaged trainee's vocabulary lacks the range and precision of the vocabulary of the middle-class trainee who has achieved some functional level of education. For this reason, the trainee's limited knowledge of such concepts as numbers, time, form, and geographical space or environment is a basic deficiency. It affects his (1) attention-span at study and work and (2) capability to remember knowledge relevant to a substantial portion of the activity of middle-class persons.

In addition, the disadvantaged may deliberately manipulate language to conceal rather than to reveal. Language can be the instrument of cleverly constructed and insurmountable barriers that the disadvantaged trainee, for reasons of his own, may wish to place between himself and others. The put-on or put-down are common examples of this kind of barrier.

Put-On and Put-Down: Disadvantaged trainees may use a number of devices to consciously avoid things and people that place undue pressure on them. One of these is the assumption of a "poor memory" and a tendency to forget those things that burden them. Often this is a means of dealing with threats presented by "out" groups or unfamiliar situations. Still another common defense is the use of slang which cuts out anyone not of the ingroup.

A defense mechanism the instructor should especially be alert to is the trainee's use of the put-on. In the put-on, the trainee leads the instructor to believe that he is going along with the instructor while secretly rejecting him. The trainee's desired effect occurs when all other trainees, but not the instructor, become aware that the instructor is being hoodwinked.

Some common methods of putting someone on is by "tuning out"—deliberately not hearing certain things; playing dumb; pretending not to know information the instructor has related; or pretending to have forgotten things he should readily recall. Making

games out of serious assignments, such as field trips, is another example of the put-on.

The put-on is rather widely used by some persons to deceive those of higher status. "Benefits" of such deception include the fun of frustrating the unsuspecting victim and of feeling contempt for the gullible one. If the put-on victim is an instructor or a foreman, trainees may use clever means to avoid work.

Recognizing put-ons is the first step toward preventing them—a necessity if the group is to remain motivated. When a put-on succeeds, trainees lose respect for the instructor. Since the center often is offering trainees a last chance or one which may not soon be repeated, the successful put-on can have serious consequences.

In contrast to the subtle nature of the put-on, the put-down involves open defiance and confrontation. The put-down may come about when a hostile trainee encounters an instructor who is timid or who is overly anxious to avoid friction. The put-down can be greatly ego-satisfying and employed for its own sake.

On the other hand, it may be a testing device to make the instructor prove himself to the class. Put-downs are most effectively combatted by prevention. This is best achieved by establishing good rapport between the instructor and the class. When put-downs do occur, they should be dealt with firmly and directly.

Getting Through to the Trainee

When communicating with a disadvantaged trainee, the instructor must consider the fact that the trainee is more oriented to physical action, to the external world, and to practical and tangible effects than his middle-class counterpart. Concepts should be presented in terms of the trainee's most basic and urgently felt needs and in his own capability for dialogue. In teaching verbal and numerical skills, for instance, examples should be chosen from the trainee's daily life rather than from situations he has not experienced.

Verbal instruction can often be reinforced with physical reactions on the part of the trainee. Such action enables the trainee to take advantage of his adeptness at motor activity. Unless the trainee does something physical, it is difficult for him to learn, and difficult for the instructor to know if he learns. Presentation of blueprint reading concepts, for instance, can include a step in which the trainee holds a small block of wood in his hand. To distinguish a plane, the instructor has the trainee color one side of the block with a crayon. To reveal certain geometric

perspectives, the instructor has the trainee turn the block slowly, then press his thumb on the sharp edge of the block to make a physical association between the color plane and the perspective.

Sensations of minor pain and fear, which are related to safety drives, can be useful in training provided they are not overemphasized. Concepts presented with relevance to past experience and the current needs of the trainee will more likely be remembered than concepts which are not presented in such terms.

Overcoming Communication Problems

The act of phrasing his ideas increases the trainee's skill in using language effectively, and thus his ability to deal with concepts. Encouraging the trainee to verbalize also permits expression of his hostilities. Once expressed, the instructor has an indication of the trainee's motivational level. Through empathy and guidance, he may direct the trainee to a healthier attitude and to the receptivity of more positive rational ideas to help him reach his educational and training goals.

It is important that the trainee be encouraged to verbalize so that he will gradually learn to do so in functional business terms. This procedure should start by letting the trainee initially express his feelings honestly in his own language—no matter how negative those feelings are. As his capacity to verbalize in broader, more acceptable terms increases, he gradually loses the need for evasion or withdrawal. As a result, ingroup slang gradually disappears as a primary tool from his vocabulary. In the final analysis, however, communication problems are most effectively overcome by establishing good rapport between the instructor and the trainee and by increasing his self confidence.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The instructor plays the primary role in the training of disadvantaged workers, but text materials and teaching aids are essential. Text materials and training aids have the capacity to provide positive motivational stimulus or to cause a negative motivational reaction, depending on their design. The selection, preparation, or adaptation of these materials should be made with the typical trainee's reaction to them in mind.

The tasks that trainees perform in training are also highly variable in their capacity to provide posi-

tive or negative motivational stimulus. The mere practice of manual skills in training is not enough. A desire to progress through training and achieve more than routine competency in job skills must also be instilled in trainees through suitable methods, techniques, and materials.

Conventional materials are usually inappropriate and inadequate in training the disadvantaged worker. Conventional materials which usually contain blocks of black, unbroken copy and tightly filled pages make the disadvantaged trainee wary or afraid. He feels excluded by the material—as well as by the instructor he identifies with it.

The disadvantaged trainee is quite aware of the advantages which come with the capability to utilize conventional materials, even though he is unable to do so. The materials to which he will respond must make him feel immediately that they are in a form he can master and use. In other words, effective materials for the disadvantaged trainee must convince him that he can learn.

Using Text Materials as a Basic Method

The disadvantaged trainee—like many persons in the general population—tends to look upon texts as a place to search out and memorize generalizations. This may lead the trainee to believe that this is their only purpose. Thus he may achieve a false sense of competency by using them as sources for generalizations and may not know that he really does not understand them.

Therefore, text materials should be selected or prepared which have the capacity to become an integral part of the day-to-day training. It should be evident that the text materials and training aids used in the program are not *only* reference sources but usable tools. On the other hand, it should be made clear that texts can also serve as a reference for later use after the trainee has graduated. This understanding serves to enhance the trainee's respect for books and study aids.

Quality of Materials that Motivate

Text materials and training aids should be introduced into the training program *gradually* to avoid a strictly academic atmosphere. The following general guidelines may be used as a basis for the selection or adaptation of text materials early in training when trainees' resistance to their use and the academic setting is greatest:

- The material should be so designed that it gives

the trainee immediate successes through hearing, seeing, and doing.

- The subject matter should avoid the abstract as much as possible, and be directly related to trade-vocational material.
- The trainee is not always responsive to the type size and styles found in conventional texts and newspapers—even when the subject matter is written in basic English and is directly related to trade training. Therefore large size type or “nonconventional” type and hand-lettered layouts should be widely used. Actually the trainee is most receptive to a completely hand-lettered page. This is particularly true if there is a minimal amount of text and a large amount of white space (as much as 75 to 80 percent) which enables the trainee to understand readily a whole page of material.
- Arrangements of texts and illustrations should be dynamic rather than static. Basic advertising layout principles may be used to provide immediate visual interest and attention-holding power. The copy should be brief and to the point. Words and illustrative materials should be closely integrated.
- In vocabulary-building exercises, new words should be introduced simultaneously with the vocational-trade lesson. The vocabulary list must be cued into the vocational lesson, and should immediately precede the vocational textual reference. General vocabulary can be introduced but must be trade-oriented for effectiveness.
- As training progresses and the trainee’s skills improve, the text material should reflect his achievement. Printing and styling should gradually become more conventional.

The following stage steps suggest how conventional type styles and layout designs can be gradually fed into the program in the following approximate order as the trainee progresses from early to later training:

- Hand-lettered, large type may be written in pencil to achieve maximum informality. The text may be reproduced with “Ditto” or any other spirit printing process.
- Somewhat smaller hand-lettered text can be written in ink rather than in pencil, so that a more formal letter construction is introduced. The layout can be designed a little more formally. Reproduction processes in this case should be more formal, such as a multilith or other

small offset printing machine. Illustrations should include a few simple words, schematic diagrams, step or stage illustrations, and photographs.

- Typewriter copy with extra large type can often be used. The typewriter should be equipped with type which is only slightly smaller than the previously hand-lettered characters. The copy margin should be unjustified.
- The next type may now be reduced to that of the conventional IBM Executive or Bold Face Primer typewriter. The copy should be double-spaced. Illustrations and page layouts are more formal in this case.
- Where the copy is single-spaced, it should also be justified.

In all stages, carefully designed illustrations should supplement the text. In the early stages, although the illustrations should be drawn with great care, they should have the appearance of intimate, informal drawings. Every effort should be made to choose text material which is a complete, self-contained instructional entity. The illustrations should be designed to stand alone as separate, understandable, graphical expressions. At the same time, the text and illustrations should supplement each other.

Building Trainee Interest in Subject Matter Through Effective Materials and Effective Teaching

Occupational orientation is the key to trainee interest in subject matter instructional materials. Examples and references that are not vocationally centered may be used occasionally, but they should relate to things with which the disadvantaged trainee is very familiar and in which he is interested. Sports and automobiles, for example, would generally be appropriate references. In the shop, trainees show great interest in automobiles. (See figure 13.)

As early as possible, texts and training aids should introduce new work in the shop or lab in order to generate confidence in them as a source of assistance. A reference to the subject matter of a text that results in a success in the shop provides a strong stimulus for the trainee to use texts as tools rather than merely as study books. At first their use in this way will be limited. However, once past the stage of basic education, trainees can be conditioned to turn to text materials for the inherent value of the subject matter.

Imaginative Use of Instructional Materials

Few other areas of training offer the possibility for imaginative instruction as the effective use of text

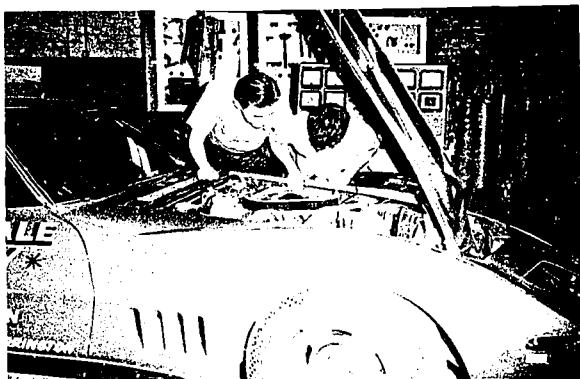


Figure 13.—Special interests can be used to generate strong motivation. Here, a racing car is displayed for auto repair trainees.

materials and training aids. The fact that instructional materials are often used independently by trainees increases the need for making them interesting, useful, and stimulating. Trainees are quick to put down materials that are colorless or boring. The examples that follow show some ways in which flexibility and variety can be achieved. They are merely illustrative and are not intended to serve as recommended procedures for any given program.

- Inexpensive printing sets which can be purchased at toy or hobby stores are well suited for the occasional preparation of lesson sheets for trainees. Trainees themselves might use the sets to prepare their own practice cards for studying words, numbers, and graphics.
- Concepts are more difficult to teach than unit materials such as words and numbers. Imaginative materials can usually be devised, however, to simplify the problem of presentation. For example, to teach the concepts of mass production and interchangeability, one textbook has three identical pages collated at a strategic point in the book. Just before these three pages are studied, a discussion of interchangeability is given to explain the substitution of one part in a machine for another. At an appropriate point in the discussion, the instructor rather dramatically holds up the textbook in full view of the class. He points out that interchangeability is only possible through mass production and the ready availability of substitutes. He slowly tears the page out of the book and crumples it. He then instructs the trainees to find the page in their books and do the same.

The instructor then points out that the text still

contains two copies of the torn-out page. He proceeds to bring in the concepts of mass production and interchangeability, and to orient the trainee's particular trade to the concept.

- Text materials can be subtly used to change attitudes and clarify concepts. To teach the trainee the differences between "making a buck" and "earning a buck" one institution uses the trainee's familiarity with, and interest in, money. This discussion, also given in the course on numbers, follows a short explanation of how the Government uses serial numbers to account for the great quantity of paper currency which it prints. From this point, the discussion leads naturally into the theme of "numbers are tools" which is the primary subject of the study unit.
- Properly designed text materials provide variety and interest. Many elements can be used to achieve a diversity of effects. (See appendix A.) Captions are "Fototyped"; the body copy is typewritten and hand-lettered. The illustrations of the autos make use of "clip" (stock) art. The illustrations of the printing presses are hand-sketched. The different kinds of letters are given a certain character by the use of appropriate cartoons. The concept of progress given for the auto and printing is implicitly extended to the progress of the trainee. Even such "errors" as the car protruding past the margin line serve to break up the monotony of a conventional page.
- The crossword puzzle or word game is a very effective device in teaching functional English. The puzzle presents a graphic representation of the words being studied, and presents a challenge which is not too forbidding. The crossword puzzle also helps the trainee gain higher verbal achievement levels. The words chosen can be trade-oriented when desired, and slanted to areas of interest or knowledge that the trainee already possesses. The crossword puzzle can provide a basis for teaching virtually any subject matter or concept.

An example of a crossword puzzle appropriate for teaching functional English is shown in appendix B.

Instructor-Prepared Instructional Materials

The instructor, and the administrator, may feel that the design, writing, layout, and printing of text materials are beyond the capability of the staff and the facilities of the center. This is not true. In-house designing and printing of original materials or adap-

tation of purchased materials can be made feasible. Instructors from other departments can often provide the necessary talent. Commercial and industrial arts instructors usually will be willing to help.

A great many sources of art are readily available. Public relations departments of industries often will supply trade-oriented photographs and illustrations which can be most useful for instructing and motivating the trainee. Stock-art folios containing prepared art are available. Newspapers, magazines, and trade journals often make photographs available at nominal cost.

The temptation to adapt higher level materials for disadvantaged trainee use should be avoided. The result will usually be a hybrid of poor quality. For the same reason, materials designed for children or

young people should not be used. They will usually demotivate the trainee.

The instructor is likely to be more aware of the needs of the disadvantaged trainee and more capable of creating materials which fulfill the purpose of the training program than anyone else. The need for quick testing of materials and current feedback from the trainee require that at least some of the text materials be prepared by the instructor and designed to specifically fit the program.

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CHAPTER V

motivation potentials in exploratory and skill training

Motivational stimulation may be initiated by the instructor but motivated action by the trainee arises out of the trainee's own responses to a situation. The character and pace of motivation vary throughout the training period and are quite different early in training and late in training. At times, there may seem to be little or no progress at all.

An awareness on the part of the instructor that motivation comes about in different ways at different times will assist him when things are going well and support him when they are not.

MOTIVATION IN EXPLORATORY TRAINING

Motivation early in training is primarily directed towards getting the trainee started and keeping him going through the first weeks of what may be a strange and trying experience. Motivational stimulation must be applied at every step of training, however, and should be consciously directed towards the objectives of the exploratory program which are:

- To raise the literacy level of the disadvantaged trainee so that he can meet the minimum requirements for skill training.
- To introduce the trainee to basic industrial processes.
- To furnish the trainee sufficient occupational information so that he can make the most desirable occupational choice.
- To determine the trainee's need, if any, for further remedial instruction, special tutoring, development, and/or counseling.
- To arrange and initiate a skill training program or to determine whether the trainee should be directed to on-the-job training or employment without further skill training.
- To instill in the trainee proper work habits suffi-

cient to sustain his interest in his chosen occupational area.

Attempts to stimulate motivated action should begin immediately upon trainee intake into the program. The trainee should be acquainted with the center immediately and made to feel welcome. Motivational talks by program administrators and the instructional staff serve to get the trainee interested in the training goals.

Plant visits, if suitable for the program, or visits by industrial representatives provide the trainee with the feeling that there is contact between himself and his goal of industrial employment. Variety is desired in structuring the day's activities because it prevents boredom and permits pursuit of the many objectives of the program.

As exploratory training proceeds, the frequency of motivational stimulation may be reduced as the trainee gains momentum. He is properly put on his own as he gives indications of finding motivational stimulation from the tasks of training. However the instructor should be prepared to give him outside support and motivation as he requires it.

Appendix C shows how the schedule for the first week of exploratory training may contain many opportunities for motivational stimulation.

MOTIVATION IN SKILL TRAINING

Motivation in later skill training is also directed to the objectives of that portion of training which are:

- To develop sufficient knowledge and skill to meet industrial job requirements.
- To continue to raise literacy levels needed for the specific occupational objective.
- To enhance trainee employability.
- To instill in the trainee sufficient motivation to

make the shift from trainee to worker in his chosen occupational field.

The last objective provides the key to the way in which motivational stimulation should be employed in skill training. As the trainee progresses, he is placed more and more on his own. His progress should be demonstrated by increasing independence and a greater show of confidence by the instructor in the trainee's ability to work on his own. The ability to perform independently and well in an occupationally oriented training activity generates great motivation in the trainee. (See figure 14.)



Figure 14.—Occupationally oriented training leads to intensive concentration on work.

Motivation should center on the specific occupational choice which the trainee has made. Efforts at motivational stimulation should look not only to the present situation of the trainee but also to his future role as a worker. The whole emphasis of training should begin to shift from the realities of training to the prospect of the world of work.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLES

The practical realities that are faced daily by the instructor shape the ways in which he can best provide instruction for his disadvantaged trainees. Even in the same program, a technique that works well in one situation may not be appropriate in another.

It is neither possible nor desirable to provide all-purpose teaching models. However, a number of

examples may serve to show ways in which teaching techniques can be adapted to increase the motivational stimulation they generate. Their purpose here is to invite comparison by the instructor with his own methods and to stimulate the development of others by him.

Teaching Orderliness

Disadvantaged trainees usually live in a world that is often beset by noise, confusion, and distraction. A sense of orderliness, which is a requirement of industry, should be instilled in the inexperienced trainee as part of his training. The trainee who has previous work experience will associate order in the training situation as a correct representation of employment.

The concept of order should be intrinsic in instruction and be reflected by work, scheduling, and organization. For example, the steps involved in an assembly operation may be taught with color-step instruction in which operations and components are color-coded. Tools and equipment may be arranged on storage areas with silhouette outlines so that each tool has its own place.

A technique should not appear to be artificial or contrived, however, and it should only be employed if it has some counterpart in industry. This caution would apply to the excessive use of color which may easily be overdone or used as a crutch by the trainee after he has left the training center.

Teaching for Quick Successes

Disadvantaged trainees usually enter the training program with very minimal skills, and each skill as acquired takes some time and practice. A strong motivational stimulus will usually result if a way can be found to provide the trainee with the ability to help him quickly acquire marketable job skills.

The instructor may exploit his own talents in this endeavor. For example, one instructor who has talent in art or drawing opens his training classes by leading trainees through the process of drawing a face. Trainees first draw a face without guidance. Most of the resulting drawings are primitive and many are grotesque. Then the instructor leads them through a step-by-step drawing of a face. (See appendix D.) With guidelines and direction, trainees draw faces which are strikingly improved. (See appendix E.)

The instructor has demonstrated to the trainee that skills can be quickly acquired, and that the instructor can be the instrument for their acquisition. He has shown trainees that skill is not entirely a matter of

manual dexterity, but that knowledge contributes to skill. *He has demonstrated his own capability* and, because trainees often identify with the instructor, he has given them the proper image of himself as a man with skills. Only minimal drawing skills on the part of the instructor are required.

Teaching Employability and Living Skills

Motivation was defined as goal-directed behavior in the earlier discussion of motivation concepts. A person acts as he does because he has learned, at some time in the past, that certain actions are rewarded and that other actions are not. In the training situation, the instructor and the trainee share some goals such as a better job and more money. However, the trainee very likely lacks some virtues such as good work habits, discipline, and respect for property that are necessary to reach those goals. One technique that may help instill these concepts in the mind of trainees is the construction of an item in the shop which they use during training and take home upon graduation.

One training center links training in metal work with pride and good housekeeping by having trainees construct ashtrays. Trainees are taught pride by making a product that they will use themselves. Housekeeping chores, which are assigned to trainees on a rotating basis, are lightened. Trainees learn to develop neatness and the application of smoking rules. The ashtray as a take-home product provides a link between the center and the trainee's family. The assembly of a standup ashtray is given in appendix F.

A number of training centers employ a variation of the take-home technique by providing trainees with identification cards which trainees seal in plastic. The cards make an association between the training center and industry where they are widely used. Take-home projects must be cleared with the administrator to make certain that they fall within the property and saleable item rules of the program. They should be occupationally oriented and designed to teach employability concepts as well as manual skills.

Teaching by Identification

A man's self-concept is largely comprised of the reflected appraisals of others. A technique that can provide the trainee with some reflected approval, which the disadvantaged trainee rarely enjoys, will provide a strong motivational stimulus.

A class newspaper that presents the achievements of training classes and shows the accomplishments of individual trainees can provide material for improved self-concepts. The class newspaper also is an invaluable messenger outside the center. It can help recruit other trainees, and it can also bridge the gap between the center and the trainee's home.

Rather easily achieved individual awards and skillfully designed competitions may be publicized by the newspaper. These permit recognition of achievement to which trainees would be reluctant to relate themselves. Newspaper quotes from trainees can give trainees a forum and a sounding board, and participation in its publishing provides an opportunity for learning many incidental skills.

Teaching for Positive Self-Image

Fewer than 10 percent of disadvantaged trainees have a recent picture of themselves in their homes. These photographs seldom reflect any vocational achievement which could provide strong motivational stimulus.

One training center arranges for the trainee to be photographed in training soon after he enters the program. These photographs, which illustrate his role as a trainee and future worker, are framed by him and taken home for display there. The picture in his home reinforces the trainee's daily image of himself as a worker.

Costs of photographs can usually be kept low, as can the costs of framing, but the project should be cleared for conformance with property and program rules. A number of woodworking and assembly skills can be taught through construction of the frame.

CHAPTER VI

occupational growth

The world of the worker is primarily characterized by change. In almost every phase of industry, each day brings formation of new jobs and new procedures to perform old jobs. Unlike the artisan of a century ago who could rest secure in his capability to perform a job well, the worker today, particularly the semi-skilled and nonskilled worker, is continually threatened with displacement by machines. It has become mandatory that, after leaving the training center to enter employment, the worker continually strives to climb the occupational ladder.

NEED FOR GROWTH THROUGH CONTINUING EDUCATION

Primary causes for unemployment are plant removal to another locale or shut-down and worker-displacement by machines. Layoffs sometimes come without warning, with the plant supplying little or no compensation or help in securing a new job. Ironically, it is usually the nonskilled or semiskilled worker whose low salary precludes his saving money who is laid off first. A lack of skills also makes his unemployment more lasting. It is also unfortunately true that the worker of minority status, particularly the nonwhite minority, is usually displaced first and remains unemployed longest. Continued education beyond job entry is especially urgent for such workers.

The older disadvantaged worker is also in an especially difficult position when he is threatened by displacement. For his psychological as well as his physiological well-being it is important that he be able to hold his own on the job as long as possible. Age need not be a handicap, but only if the worker continues to prove his resiliency in learning new job developments. Then if he is displaced from his job because of forced retirement or physical reasons, he can fall back on a second trade through retraining. Much has been done to combat managerial prejudice

against minority groups and older workers, yet prejudice exists. The worker in such a group should minimize its effects on him by continued self-improvement.

STIMULATING DESIRE FOR GROWTH

Whatever attitude toward continuing education the disadvantaged worker has upon completion of his training, he is likely to keep. It is thus important that, while in training, the trainee be stimulated to continue to study and develop his skill proficiency after graduation. Working daily and closely with the trainee, the instructor, even more than the counselor and the administrator, can stimulate the trainee to continue to work for occupational and educational growth.

The instructor can best encourage the trainee to practice self-improvement by showing him how to do so. He can suggest practical ways to study while on the job. Some training institutions offer evening in-shop programs or home-study courses relevant to the trainee's interest—both of which he can utilize while working full-time. Most vocational and trade schools offer brush-up courses which keep workers up to date on new advances and procedures. The worker should be alerted to the fact that the industrial concern for which he will work might offer inservice training without charge or sponsor programs whereby the industry will pay all or part of the trainee's study elsewhere. Large universities and colleges offer credit and noncredit home-study courses. Libraries, high schools, churches, and the YMCA provide many free educational services. Thousands of books and pamphlets are available through such sources as the U.S. Government Printing Office, the U.S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the Adult Education Association of the United States of America, and the National Association for Public School Adult Education.

The instructor can give the trainee valuable instruction on how to apply for a job. To be knowledgeable in a skill and willing to work does not assure a job. Many disadvantaged persons, particularly inner-city residents, have spent their entire lives in the same neighborhood and know little about the industrial environs of the city. They need instruction on how to locate job possibilities and how to use transportation services to reach jobs outside their neighborhood.

The State Employment Service also can help. Ads in newspapers and trade journals, phone directory listings of businesses using the worker's particular skill, job listings at industrial and craft unions, and employment agencies are still other sources of job possibilities. The trainee should be encouraged to consult industrial concerns he might ordinarily think would require more highly developed skills than he possesses. Many jobs, as in data processing, chemical laboratories, and interviewing in community research, use workers who are not professionally trained. These and other strong and emerging industries offer great opportunities for employment at every level, and they also can be expected to have a continuing need for many workers in the future.

The instructor should also instruct the trainee on how to fill out application forms. Copies of application blanks from firms can be secured for illustration and practice. The trainee should be informed about how to prepare for and conduct himself during an interview. He should be informed on the qualities an employer prefers.

Instruction in these matters can be presented as a separate unit of training or throughout the entire program. Whichever method is used, it should be repeatedly impressed upon the trainee that there are no magical, quick ways to success.

REWARDS OF GROWTH

Rewards of occupational growth are many. Continued achievement along with productive work not only creates a feeling of personal integrity but assures continued employment. (See figure 15.) The result is a sense of security in daily living which produces individual as well as national stability. The rewards of growth are thus extended from the individual to the Nation. The circle of poverty is not only broken for the individual, but the Nation profits from a reservoir of energy which might otherwise go to waste.



Figure 15.—Opportunities never end for the strongly motivated worker who continues to strive to upgrade his skills.

LIFE GOALS AS MOTIVATORS

At first, the disadvantaged trainee cannot be stimulated by promise of future rewards. For the most part, motivation to study and work results from immediate and tangible benefits. The trainee can be influenced by example, however. Feedback of success experienced by other graduates who continued to study once on the job, or the advice of industrial representatives can be useful.

The instructor must recognize that there are limits beyond which he cannot stimulate motivated action in a trainee, but his job is done well if he has provided the trainee with some skills and life goals toward which to work. The training center cannot always fulfill its objectives of bringing the disadvantaged trainee to job-entry level and securing him a job. However, experience supports the general value and success of manpower training which has provided many workers with the training to become skilled and productive workers.

Pivotal to this significant endeavor is the training center instructor. To him is given the greatest challenge of primary contact and the greatest responsibility of assisting the trainee to reach his goal as a worker. To the instructor also is given the greatest reward of seeing his own work reflected in the training and growth of others.

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sample instruction page: diverse elements lend variety

NUMBERS FOR

- ➔ Work
- ➔ Money
- ➔ Living

WORD STUDY ¹⁹
SHEET NO. 3
WORDS ARE TOOLS

WORD

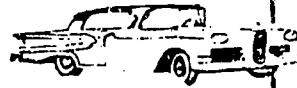
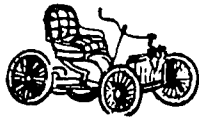
MEANING

③

PROGRESS

(prah
gress)

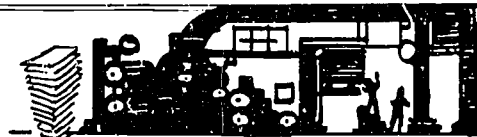
Progress means getting ahead - advancing - usually getting bigger and better. Some things, like mass production in the automobile and printing industries, are good examples of growth and progress.



PROGRESS IN THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY



1500
 ABOUT 300 to 500
 SHEETS A DAY.



TODAY: MILLIONS OF SHEETS
 AN HOUR

PROGRESS IN THE PRINTING INDUSTRY

④ **RECOGNIZE**

(rek ug
nize)

If you recognize something, you remember seeing it before. You can recognize a person, or a car, or a kind of printing "type", or anything that you have learned about before.

The more you learn about something, the easier it will be for you to recognize it later on.



THERE IS SOMETHING DIFFERENT ABOUT LETTERS AND
 FACES THAT MAKES IT EASY TO RECOGNIZE THEM.

APPENDIX B

sample instruction page: crossword puzzle

<h2 style="margin: 0;">WORDS ARE TOOLS</h2> <p style="margin: 0;">Which help us to earn MONEY, WORK and LIVE.</p>		5																																																												
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<p>③ DOWN: SOUNDS LIKE A ---</p>	<p>--- WITH MORE KNOW-HOW WE ARE --- TO MAKE MORE MONEY.</p>																																																													
<p>④ DOWN: A ---</p>	<p>⑤ ACROSS: Row ---</p>	<p>⑥ DOWN: HORSES LIKE TO EAT IT.</p>																																																												
<p>⑦ ACROSS: ONE WAY TO GET A --- IS TO LEARN HOW TO DO SKILLED WORK. <i>Three words</i></p>																																																														
<p>⑧ ACROSS: THE 5TH AND 20TH LETTERS OF THE ALPHABET. ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.</p>																																																														
<p>⑨ DOWN: THE OLD ROMANS WROTE 500 AS "D" AND ONE AS I. WRITE 501. ---</p>																																																														
<p>⑩ DOWN: WRITE 500 TWICE IN ROMAN NUMERALS.</p>																																																														
<p>Name _____ Date _____ Grade _____</p>																																																														

APPENDIX C

sample schedule for exploratory program (first week)

	1 ST Hour	2 ND Hour	3 RD Hour	4 TH Hour	5 TH Hour	6 TH Hour
MONDAY	REGISTRATION AT A IET CENTRAL GROUPS OF 15 STUDENTS EACH	TALK BY DEAN <u>OBJECTIVES CAN BE REACHED</u> INTRO. TO INSTRUCTOR COORDINATOR	VISIT THRU A IET FACILITIES AND INTRODUCTION TO INSTRUCTORS • A IET CENTRAL • WEST ANNEX • EAST ANNEX • SOUTH ANNEX		CENTRAL WORKSHOP <u>HOW TO INSTALL & MAKE CORRECT ADJUSTMENTS ON A TV CHASSIS</u> (designed to promote motivation)	
TUESDAY	CHECKING OUT OF WORK CLOTHES, BOOKS, SUPPLIES, ETC.	A REVIEW OF RULES AND REGULATIONS OF A IET	A REVIEW OF BASIC PROGRAM The Student Council & Group President	HOW TO STUDY AND LEARN Administration designed to promote motivation	LUNCH PERIOD EAST ANNEX: workshop <u>HOW TO INSTALL & MAKE CORRECT ADJUSTMENTS ON A WINDOW AIR-CONDITIONER</u>	
WEDNESDAY	MOTIVATION TALK BY A. DEXTER <u>ELECTRIC</u> "YOU ARE ON YOUR WAY"	WORD ATTACK SKILLS AND PHONETICS	BRIEFING <u>MOTION PICTURE SHOWING STUDENT'S JOB OPPORTUNITIES THRU HIS TRAIN'G PROGRAM</u> DISCUSSION		LUNCH PERIOD WEST ANNEX: workshop <u>HOW TO JOIN METAL BY ACETYLENE WELDING</u> (students learn to strike arc, etc., for application of 2" WELD)	
THURSDAY	WORD ATTACK SKILLS AND PHONETICS	SIGHT VOCAB STUDY VOCAB. USED IN 5 th & 6 th periods	PLANT and SHOP SAFETY <u>VOCAL STUDY</u>	How to observe How to remember BRIEFING FOR FRIDAY FIELD TRIP	SOUTH ANNEX: workshop <u>HOW TO OPERATE AN OFFSET DUPLICATOR</u> STUDENTS PREPARE DITTO MASTER & RUN SEVERAL COPIES.	
FRIDAY	ASSEMBLY AT A IET CENTRAL	"HOW A BIG FACTORY OPERATES" AN "INSIDE" LOOK VISIT TO ZENITH CORP. ASSY PLANT: Motivation talk by member of Personnel Dept. prior to plant tour.			FEEDBACK & DISCUSSION ON FIELD TRIP	
<p>COMMENTS: ↓ IF PLANT VISITS ARE NOT POSSIBLE, MOTION PICTURES, MODELS AND VISIT OF PERSONNEL WILL BE USED. -- TYPICAL FOR ALL VISITS.</p>						

APPENDIX D

steps for guidance in drawing a face-I

1 AN OVAL NOT A CIRCLE IS THE CORRECT BEGINNING FOR THE SKETCH OF THE FACE. THIS IS A CIRCLE... LIKE THE TRACE OF A COIN. THIS IS AN OVAL IT IS EGG SHAPED.

2 SKETCH THE OVAL ABOUT THIS SIZE ON THE PAPER. FACE IS EVEN: RIGHT & LEFT.

3 DON'T DRAW THE OVAL WITH YOUR FINGERS--GET YOUR WHOLE ARM TO SWING IT. Move your elbow so that it traces an oval--then have pencil touch paper....

4 SKETCH LIGHT VERTICAL (up & down) "CENTER-LINE".

5 THE EYES ARE ABOUT IN THE CENTER (MIDDLE) OF THE HEAD. Put a dash on the center line where you think the middle is. SKETCH LIGHT FLAT "HORIZONTAL" LINE through CENTER--DASH--LIKE THIS.

6 HOW TO CHECK CENTER. See you put dash here "A". Tear strip of paper & mark distance A-B. Use it as a gauge to set off b-a from bottom. It is now EASY TO CUT THE SMALL DISTANCE a-A for CENTER. THE NOSE IS ABOUT HALF WAY BETWEEN EYES (A) & CHIN (B). DIVIDE A-B by eye with a short dash. CURVE DASH UP LIKE THIS.

steps for guidance in drawing a face-II

<p>9 THE MOUTH IS ABOUT HALF WAY BETWEEN NOSE (C) & CHIN (B). DIVIDE C-B by eye with a dash, a curve, a dash JUST A LITTLE LIKE THIS</p>	<p>10 PLACE FINGER ON SIDE OF YOUR NOSE</p> <p>FEEL ITS SHAPE</p> <p>ADD THESE SMALL CURVES TO HELP SHOW NOSTRILS AND SHAPE OF NOSE</p>	<p>11 LOOK AT EYE OF STUDENT NEXT TO YOU. IT LOOKS LIKE THIS</p> <p>DRAW EYE LIKE THIS</p>	<p>14 Put your finger over your eyebrow.... Move finger to "feel" SHAPE of eyebrow</p> <p>SKETCH EYEBROWS OVER EYES</p>	<p>11 HERE IS WHERE THE EYES FIT ON THE HORIZONTAL EYE LINE</p> <p>First Draw two Light Lines UP from the nose to get points A and B</p>	<p>12 SET OFF A and B to the LEFT and RIGHT</p> <p>SKETCH TWO CURVED LINES AS SHOWN.</p>	<p>15 WHERE DO THE EYES GO BETWEEN the EYES and the NOSE.</p> <p>Sketch light lines. Then sketch EARS like this.</p>	<p>14 POINT (E) IS ABOUT HALF WAY BETWEEN THE EYELINE AND THE TOP OF THE HEAD (B)</p> <p>FROM SKETCH THE HAIRLINE AS SHOWN</p>
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steps for guidance in drawing a face-III

ORIENTATION TO BLUEPRINT READING

THIS IS A FRONT VIEW | **THIS IS A SIDE VIEW**

IN BLUEPRINT READING THE SHAPE OF A PART CAN BE SHOWN BY A FRONT AND SIDE VIEW

17 PUT A FINGER UNDER YOUR NOSE TO FEEL THE "DIP" OR DEPRESSION BETWEEN NOSE AND MOUTH. Feel the lips. Draw them like this

18 HOLD FINGER AGAINST YOUR CHEEKBONE. Move it about. Notice that cheekbones make lines like this

19 HOLD UP YOUR

20 SKETCH DARKEN HAIR and SKETCH NECK and COLLAR

21 BEFORE & AFTER SKETCHES

your hand is the same. **WHAT MADE THE DIFFERENCE?**

APPENDIX E

drawings before and after one-half hour of instruction



SIMS THOMAS
APRIL 15 1968



THOMAS
SIMS
APRIL 15 1968



Betty Smith
4-15-68

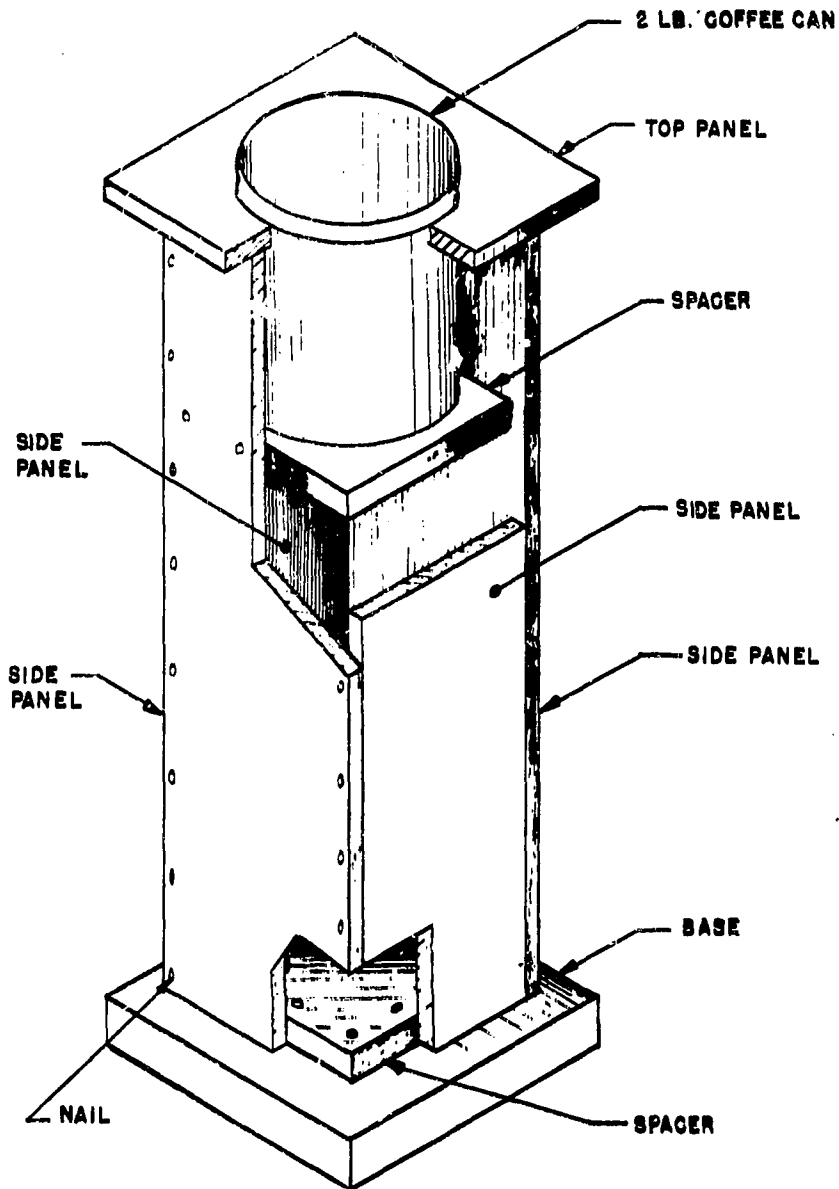


Symmetrical

Betty
Smith

APPENDIX F

take-home ash tray assembly



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