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ABSTRACT

Part 1 of the report focuses on project operations to train paraprofessionals for employment in human services, briefly describing the community college instructional program with reference to enrollment, courses, grading, fieldwork, supportive services, proficiency examinations, preceptor training, articulation, the advisory committee, instructional resources for child care, and career exploration in secondary schools. Part 2, the longer section of the report, provides an evaluation of the project in the following areas: status of human service paraprofessionals in Cortland and Tompkins Counties (N. Y.); progress toward career development in the two counties; the effect of participation in educational development on aide job performance; details of the development of proficiency examinations; and conclusions regarding the human service training project. The salutary outcomes of the project included the development and implementation of a curriculum and the demonstration of successful cooperation between community college, university, and community agencies in the operation of the program. About 70 pages of appended materials include: a course evaluation form, student performance self-rating inventory, proficiency examinations for two courses, summative evaluations of five preceptor workshops, announcement of a seminar on supervision of paraprofessionals, the members of the advisory committee, and a rating scale for evaluating an aide. (Author/NH)

FINAL REPORT

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

A Cooperative Project

Tompkins-Cortland Community College
A Community College
of the State University

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory Unit of the State University
Cornell University Ithaca, New York

Human Service Agencies and Schools in Cortland and Tompkins Center New York State

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT - FINAL REPORT

by

Joan W. Wright

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
Department of Community Service Education

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The Human Service Training Project was a product of the talents, concern and energies of many persons. The hundreds of human service paraprofessionals and professionals who participated in the diverse activities of the project contributed significantly to its development. The faculty and administrators of Tompkins-Cortland Community College and the New York State College of Human Ecology at Cornell University who gave support and constructive suggestions to the project also contributed significantly. The projec staff itself -- Thomas Mecca, Joan Wright, Frederick Peck, Sandra Stein and Susan Meyers -- could not have accomplished the project's results without the work and thought of these many other individuals and groups.

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Joan W. Wright

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APPENDIX

Human Service Training Project - Final Report

In June of 1970 Tompkins-Cortland Community College and the NYS College of Human Ecology at Cornell University formalized an agreement to work together on a project to train paraprofessionals employed in human services. The first year of the project involved development of community interest and support; identification of client needs and interests; definition of immediate and long-range goals; design of approved curriculum and program; and recruitment of staff and advisory committee.[1] The second and final year, ending June 30, 1972, was to be devoted to conduct of training for paraprofessionals in human services and for human service professionals who supervise paras; continuing development of project and program; continuing effort to promote and develop articulation of program; and evaluation of operations. This report will focus on project operations (Part I) and overall evaluation (Part II).

I. Project Operations

A. Instructional Program -- Community College

Staff Eight Human Service courses were offered during the academic year, three in the fall and five in the spring semester. In each semester the orientation and fieldwork course were taught by the program coordinator; the other courses were taught by persons in the community with demonstrated skills in practice as well as appropriate academic backgrounds.

Enrollment Seventy-two persons enrolled in from one to three courses over the two semesters, generating a total of 366 credit hours, all in evening courses. (This does not include courses taken by the same persons in areas other than Human Services.) One third of the persons enrolled in one or more courses during the first semester took additional Human Service courses the second semester. Twenty-four persons took a first course in this area of study during the second semester. Recruitment efforts included individualized mailings to presently employed paraprofessionals, promotion through the media and personal contacts with selected employing agencies and schools.

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[1] For a full description of the first-year operations, including curriculum plan and survey data, see "Human Service Training Project: Progress Report and Evaluation," mimographed (Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Human Ecology, July 1971).

Courses Each of the courses offered was evaluated by students, using a standard form developed by the staff (see Exhibit A). This evaluation was primarily intended to provide feedback to the faculty; it also provided some idea of the students' perspective as to sources of their own learning. Since the majority of students were mature persons with varied backgrounds of life and work experiences and more than five years absence from formal education, it was hypothesized that their learning might be felt to be emanating in large part from their "real-world" experience, rather than from readings, lectures and other formal instruction. The relative importance of each source was determined by averaging for each course the size of the sector of total learning specified by class participants for each source of learning. These sources were then ranked in order of importance for each course. Using the Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric analysis of variance technique, no significant differences between courses were found for contribution from learning sources (see Figure 1).

Apparently the instructor is generally of prime importance in the learning process of adult students, with work/life experience and fellow students following closely behind. Presumably the instructor who fosters interaction among the course participants and who helps the students to make connections between ideas and experience is especially effective in this setting.

Figure 1. Ranking of Selected Sources of Learning in Terms of Student Perception of Each Source's Contribution to Learning in Human Service Courses.

Human Service Courses, 1971-72

	Fall			Spring					All
Source of Learning	101	225	210	128	114	215	110	101	courses*
Instructor	2	1	5	1	1	1	1	2	1
Guest speakers	5	5	3.5	7	7	5	6	3	6
Fellow students	1	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	3
Work/life experiences	3.5	2	1	3	3	3	2	5	2
Readings	6	6	6	2	5	2	5	6	5
Individual assignments	3.5	3	3.5	5	4	6	4	1	4
Other	7	7	7	6	6	7	7	7	7

*$X_R^2 = 7.67$ (6 df, $< .90$)

Grading None of the instructors chose to administer a final examination as a means of assessing student learning. Some form of student-organized notebook - including summaries of class discussions, readings, class and other presentations, independent investigations, field observations and personal reflections - was required in each course. In addition, individual term projects were assigned. These projects and notebooks and participation in the classroom (generally organized in seminar format) were bases for evaluating student performance. In the fieldwork courses the students' participation in 2 or 3 triad conferences with instructor and work supervisor also was considered in the grading process; the employer's assessment of the student was not a factor per se in the determination of the grade. Following college policy, letter grades were assigned. The instructors were unanimous, however, in recommending a satisfactory/unsatisfactory type of evaluation in lieu of letter grades, with carefully specified criteria for satisfactory performance, primarily because of the threat that traditional grading systems posed to the students. Students had mixed feelings about grades; many were anxious to know precisely how they were doing, and some were unsatisfied with anything less than an A grade. For these persons the grade, not their own assessment, appeared to represent what they had learned.

Fieldwork The fieldwork courses originally were designed to integrate the work experience of presently employed paraprofessionals with conceptual input from the instructor. Three conferences were to be held at the beginning, midpoint and end of the semester between student, preceptor/supervisor and instructor. A Student Performance Inventory form was developed to be completed by each participant as a basis for discussion at these sessions (see Exhibit B). Several problems have become apparent, during this year of operation, in relation to the fieldwork courses. First, for persons not already employed, a field placement appropriate to the student's interests and abilities may not be arranged until well into the semester, thus reducing the opportunity for interchange between work and study, which puts these students at a disadvantage to the other course participants. Second, for many of the situations the 15-week semester was felt by supervisors to be too short to permit adequate time for growth and reevaluation between each of three conferences. Two conferences were recommended as more workable. This may reflect some preceptors' feeling that staff performance appraisal on a more frequent than annual basis is a low-priority use of time. Third, persons employed in school situations tended to feel that the experiences of community-oriented paras were not relevant and that concepts introduced concerning the delivery of human services were not applicable to the public school setting. Not only paraprofessionals but also professional

school personnel contacted in other situations felt a discontinuity between schools and the remaining human services. This lack of integration of schools and community is neither deplored nor actively fostered by the persons who have cited it. It is, however, accepted. This acceptance may have to be challenged if the fieldwork courses are to provide a meaningful learning experience for persons placed both in schools and other agencies.

Supportive Services In terms of the total population to be served, that is, all persons employed or wishing to be employed as paras, the important supportive services are financial aid and counseling. The large proportion of females in this population accounts for a lack of resources immediately available for tuition expenses. Most of these persons have substantial family responsibilities; assigning a portion of the family's limited resources for their own use is highly problematic, especially when their ability to benefit from education is unknown. There is still no source of financial aid to part-time students through the College. Three agencies have made arrangements for tuition payment for their employees.[2] One other program provides a pay increase after successful completion of two Human Service or related courses.[3]

The need for counseling is not unrelated. Because most of these persons have been out of school for five or more years, they lack confidence in their academic ability. They are interested in an appraisal of the relative advantage of further education and of job opportunities in the human services. They need to discuss the problems involved in adding to their many other responsibilities. Some of these questions have been explored at several group advisory sessions scheduled by the College during the academic year for persons interested in the Human Service Program. Individuals have been encouraged to make appointments with the Director of Continuing Education or the Program Coordinator for Human Services.

For persons enrolled in the program, counseling continues to be an important service. Every adjunct faculty member found that a significant portion of time was required in responding to the personal needs of the students beyond the classroom. Besides career and academic guidance, students sought help in understanding and solving problems encountered on the job and in their personal lives and assistance in mastering certain communication skills. Students recognized the need for remediation of report-writing, yet were critical of exercises that did not apply directly to their jobs, both in content and process.

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[2] Tompkins County Cooperative Extension Association; the Head Start Center at St. Paul's Methodist Church, Ithaca; Opportunities for Cortland County (no longer in operation).

[3] Cortland County Department of Social Services (remuneration policy for foster parents).

In this respect the College's developmental learning program may not meet the needs of these students. Supplemental learning experiences that can be incorporated into the Human Service courses may be one way to assist students to improve their ability to organize and write reports, for example, without additional time and expense being required.

Child care apparently is not a major problem when evening classes are held. Transportation to a spot accessible to both counties continues to be difficult for many but probably is less critical than the need for counseling and advisement. Assistance to individuals in planning academic programs, including the assessment of proficiency through examinations or panel inquiry, probably will grow in importance as the number of students and the interest in certificates or degrees increase.

Proficiency Examinations Two proficiency examinations have been developed. (See Exhibit C. A report on the development process is included in Part II.) The first proficiency examination, Orientation to Human Services, has been taken by sixty-one persons; twenty-four persons passed the examination; seven of the twenty-four had previously passed the course for which the test was developed. The other seventeen received full credit for the course, HUMS 101. This examination has been administered to all persons enrolled in Human Service courses as part of the overall evaluation, plus five persons who had not taken any courses. Of these five, only one, a person who had had a number of years of work experience as a school aide and who had taken some in-service courses sponsored by the school district, successfully completed the examination.

Examination of the test results of persons who have taken HUMS 101 indicates that only six of twenty-three persons (all were in the fall semester) who passed the course also passed the proficiency exam. This would indicate that the objectives of the course on which the examination was developed have in some way been altered. A closer scrutiny reveals that almost all persons who did not reach mastery level on the exam did not successfully complete the section of the test devoted to application of knowledge about human services in a helping situation. Apparently the course participants have not had time, interest or experience to make connections between information about human services and its application in practice. Participants in HUMS 110, The Human Service Network, have given deeper consideration to operating as a human service practitioner. The scores on the same examination reveal this; eleven of the fourteen successfully completed the test. It may be desirable to make the objectives of course and proficiency examination more nearly congruent through revision of one or both.

The second proficiency examination, Developmental Child Care I, was developed on the basis of the objectives for a new course, HUMS 125, approved by the College. It was administered to twelve self-selected individuals, four of whom successfully completed the test. (Further description of the test is contained in Part II of this report.) The results of both examinations have been fed back to the examinees with comments intended to help them prepare for retaking the test if they did not pass it at the mastery level this time.

B. Other Aspects of the Program

Preceptor Training One of the project objectives was to provide opportunities for supervisors of paraprofessionals to gain skill in the supervisory process. This was carried out through four workshops (see Exhibit D); a semester-long seminar open to community people (Exhibit E); and consultations with individuals or groups of persons requesting assistance in this area.

The extension of preceptor training to supervisors of aides other than those enrolled in the program had several benefits. One was the establishment of communication, both intra-and inter-agency, between supervisors who might not otherwise have shared their concerns. This made it possible for one person to learn from another a variety of techniques, practices, policies and philosophies and to identify potential advisers in times of difficulty. Another benefit was the reinforcement of the need for skill building in the area of supervision that did not result solely from having a para enrolled in a College training program. A third was the sharing of program-related information between agencies, which resulted in at least two cases in improved services to clients. A further benefit was the sharing of information about job openings, a sort of informal system for gathering information to help students and other paraprofessionals find placement.

The final preceptor training workshop was, at the suggestion of the advisory committee, a meeting at which paraprofessionals, administrators and policy makers exchanged points of view concerning the outlook for paras. This workshop attracted an expanded audience. One of the recommendations of the assembly was that further meetings be held to explore in greater depth the roles and responsibilites of paras and preceptors. Apparently the need for continued training of the type the project has been providing has not ended.

Articulation Another objective of the project was to identify and improve opportunities for students who might complete the Human Service program at the Community College to continue their education at four-year colleges in the area. Since the New York State College of Human Ecology at Cornell is a partner in the project and its focus is a logical one for human service practitioners, the possibilities for articulation of program were explored there. Admissions policies at the College of Human Ecology encourage transfer students, although they do not include open enrollment. Course requirements could be met by most persons completing the Human Service degree program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College (TCCC). In the Department of Community Service Education, a most likely one for persons interested in community agency work, the faculty voted to permit persons completing the core course at TCCC to exempt the core courses in the department, thereby making it possible to transfer most if not all of the two-year college credits, assuming that the Community Service Education curriculum remains fairly stable. Students could then take advantage of both general and higher level course offerings at the University.

Opportunities for students to continue their studies in as neatly articulated fashion have not been identified in other Departments of the New York State College of Human Ecology or in other area colleges. The State University College at Cortland offers a program in education, including early childhood years, but has not addressed the questions likely to be raised by students wishing to transfer from the Human Service program. Ithaca College is not as likely to appeal to human service practitioners unless in the health administration or recreation areas; their probable policies in regard to continuing Human Service students are not known.

A major problem that will be faced by persons wishing to continue their studies beyond the associate degree while remaining employed is the policy of both educational institution and source of financial aid toward the part-time student. At present student loans, scholar incentive or scholarships are available only to full-time students. Matriculation of part-time students in the undergraduate programs of area four-year colleges is also problematic. These circumstances are particularly difficult to overcome for the mature woman who is the sole or chief source of support for her family and who cannot afford to give up her job and borrow money on the slim chance that she will sufficiently improve her income level later to make the risk worthwhile.

Advisory Committee A thirteen-member advisory committee representing human service employers, both schools and agencies in Cortland and Tompkins counties was appointed by the Community College president (see Exhibit F). This group met four times during the 1971-72 program year. Its considerations included planning for preceptor workshops; "ground rules" for use of work experience in classes; recommendations for field observation, interviews and placement; suggestions for increasing clarity of course content and classroom discussions; recommendations for elective courses to be offered; nominations for adjunct faculty positions; policy issues and social concerns involved in the project; recruitment of students; job opportunities for paras; staffing changes; proposed course changes; and community involvement.

The composition and function of the advisory committee was a topic of serious philosophical discussion within the project staff. The rationale for not including paraprofessionals on the committee was the concern that employers, since they play such an important part in determining the future for paras, have opportunity to gain commitment for the development and maintenance of the program. At the same time there was a consensus that a larger group would be unwieldy. The functions of the advisory group are (by policy of the Community College) to advise the Community College in the operation of the particular program area and to support the program in the community. Purposely excluded were policy-making functions. In actuality, however, the recommendations of the advisory committee have been regarded as the decisions of a policy committee. Certain kinds of decisions, for example, budgets and full-time staff appointments, have not been a part of the committee's deliberations. Representation on the committee has been discussed by the group, but no recommendations have been sought. At its last session the advisory committee questioned the lack of paraprofessional representation.

Instructional Resources: Child Care From films taken in family day care homes during the preceding year, two visual aids were produced. One is a twenty-eight minute documentary, "What is Family Day Care?" that is available as both a videotape and a film. Copies of the film have been purchased at cost by the New York State Department of Social Services and New York State Cooperative Extension for use in their own training programs.

The other visual aid is a collection of short action excerpts from the various day care home settings, which students of developmental child care can analyze for children's play, nutrition, health and safety, and mangement of resources. This videotape permits great flexibility in student and instructor use of the visual incidents. Tompkins-Cortland Community College owns copies of each; copies are also

available for wider distribution through the film rental library or Educational Television center at Cornell University.

Career Exploration: Secondary Schools In cooperation with the Tompkins-Seneca-Tioga Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) and the Explorer program of the Boy Scouts of America, approximately three hundred area high school students who had expressed a career interest in social work, education, child care or other related human services were invited to attend a session devoted to a brief definition and overview of the human service field. Although only a small group (approximately twenty students) attended this meeting, the contacts with guidance counselors in getting school involvement were beneficial in informing them about this career area. If sufficient resources were available to provide opportunities for upperclassmen in secondary schools to become voluntarily involved in human service activities concurrent with educational experience, it appears that students would be interested. Both those who attended the session and those who were unable to were much more interested in getting involved than in talking about it.

II. Overall Evaluation of the Project

A. Status of Human Service Paraprofessionals in Cortland and Tompkins Counties

A survey was made in March 1970 of paraprofessional employment in the two-county area.[4] At that time nineteen interviews with administrators of agencies or school districts were conducted. A similar survey was completed in June 1972, including interviews with forty-one school and agency administrators. A comparison of actual employment is shown in Figures 2 and 3.

In 1970, 136 paras were employed by agencies and 140 by schools; the projected increase over a three to five year period was for an additional 100 persons. The actual ... ent figure for 1972, 398, indicates that the estimate was reached in two years. Fiscal year 1973, according to the estimates of the employers interviewed, will see only a small net increase (15-20 jobs) in paraprofessional employment. One reason cited for this diminishing rate of growth is the local and national economic outlook, with decreased federal expenditure for innovative program and delivery in human services. Local support, while generally favoring the lesser cost of paraprofessional as compared to professional services, is tempered by the increasing demand of paras for a more equitable reward system, both in remuneration and fringe benefits. At the same time professionals whose security is threatened by increased preference given to paraprofessionals (or to the lower pay rate associated with paraprofessional status) are active in some organizations (especially teachers' associations) to prevent further inroads on their territories. One evidence of professionals' success in limiting inroads is the large proportion of noninstructional positions in the public schools held by paraprofessionals. The utilization of paras for lower level nonprofessional tasks tends to block aides from access to professional functions and status.

Three facts should be noted in examining the employment figures. One is the serious consequences in Cortland County of the discontinuance of the community action agency on paraprofessional job opportunities. Eight jobs, one fifth of those available in agencies, were eliminated when Opportunities for Cortland County and its Head Start/Child Development Center closed. If a new community

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[4] Joan Wright, "Paraprofessionals in Human Services: A Survey of Employment in Cortland and Tompkins Counties," mimeographed (Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Human Ecology, March 1970).

Figure 2. Employment of Paraprofessionals in Human Service Agencies.

Agency	Cortland County 1970	Cortland County 1972	Tompkins County 1970	Tompkins County 1972
Community Action Agency	4 community workers	(agency no longer exists)	4 community workers	9 community workers
Cooperative Extension	5 nutrition aides	5 nutrition aides	15 nutrition aides 2 4-H program aides	12 nutrition aides 1 4-H program associate 2 4-H program assistants 1 home ec. program aide
Day Care	(No locally permitted day care homes)		39 permitted day care mothers	45 permitted day care mothers 1 placement secretary
Dept. of Social Services	3 unit assistants	5 social welfare examiners 4 community aides	2 unit assistants	5 community service aides
Family and Children's Service	_____	_____	25 homemaker/home health aides	25-30 homemaker/home health aides
Foster Care	15-20 active foster homes	15-20 active foster homes	(unknown)	20 active foster homes
Head Start	3 teacher aides 1 teacher asst.	(agency no longer exists)	6 teacher aides 1 teacher assistant 2 family workers	1 assistant teacher 6 teacher aides 2 teacher assistants 3 family workers
Health Department	5 home health aides	1 home health aide	_____	_____
Mental Health	_____	1 mental health receptionist	_____	4 mental health receptionists
Planned Parenthood	_____			4 group leaders (Meadow House)
Planned Parenthood	_____	_____	2 community workers	2 outreach workers 3 office assistants
Probation Department	1 support investigator 1 principal acct. clerk	1 support investigator 1 clerk/field investigator 1 principal acct. clerk	(unknown)	volunteers only
Sheltered Workshop	_____	_____	(unknown)	6 workshop supervisors
Totals	38	34	98	152

Figure 3. Employment of Paraprofessionals in Public Schools.

School District	Cortland County 1970	Cortland County 1972	Tompkins County 1970	Tompkins County 1972
Board of Cooperative Education Services Special Education Audio Visual	2 teacher aides	2 teacher aides	8 teacher aides 5 audio visual aides	15 teacher aides 2 library aides 1 communication aide
Cortland City School District	22 aides	22 teacher aides 8 library/learning center aides		
Ithaca City School District			78 aides	56 classroom/instructional aides 20 library/learning center aides 3 counselor aides 1 home-school aide 11 clerical/supervisory aides
BOCES School Districts Cortland County	10-15 aides			
Cinncinnatus		13		
DeRuyter		5		
Homer		9		
Marathon		6		
McGraw		2		
		13 classroom/instruc. 9 learning center/library 13 clerical/supervisory		
BOCES School Districts Tompkins County			15-20 aides	
Dryden				22
Groton				7
Lansing				9
Newfield				6
Trumansburg				1
				17 classroom aides, assts. 18 clerical/supervisory 10 library/learning center
Totals	34	67	106	145

Note: Not all of these jobs are full-time positions. Part-time employment is felt by many of the paraprofessionals to be an advantage, not the disadvantage often associated with underemployment.

action agency is developed, this will restore at least a portion of these jobs. Also important is the recognition that not all the paraprofessional jobs are full-time positions, especially in the schools. Finally, some agencies now listed as employing paras did not classify the same employees as paraprofessionals in 1970. Increased recognition of paraprofessionals and their contribution to service delivery has led to the reclassification of some nonprofessional jobs as paraprofessional.

During the 1970-1971 program year, 169 paraprofessionals representing the range of employing schools and agencies were surveyed through a self-administered questionnaire and/or structured interview to gather data used in designing the Human Service program at the community college. Another survey was conducted in May and June of 1972 by interviewing 175 presently and formerly employed paraprofessionals, again representative of the variety of employers. Comparative data are shown in Figures 4-16.

The population of paraprofessionals in these two counties is still very much the same in terms of age, sex, marital status and number of children (figures 4-6). The typical para is a married female, 38 years old, with three school-age children. In contrast with two years ago, however, the educational background has changed. In 1972 more than a third of the paras interviewed have some education beyond high school. Only 10 percent of the current sample have participated in the Community College's Human Service program, with an additional 5 percent involved in some other program of higher education. This may account for the difference between the two samples; on the other hand, a larger proportion of school paras were interviewed in 1972 than in 1970. The school group, through self-selection or the selection criteria applied by schools, tends to be more highly educated than the group of agency paras.

Figure 4. Marital Status of Paraprofessionals.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Never married	8	6.3	11	6.8
Married	87	68.5	123	75.9
Divorced	15	11.8	15	9.3
Separated	9	7.1	4	2.5
Widowed	8	6.3	9	5.5
	N=127		N=162	

Figure 5. Comparative Data Regarding Paraprofessionals.

	1970		1972	
Average age	38	(N=128)	39	(N=154)
Average age of children	2.9	(N=134)	2.8	(N=160)

Figure 6. Educational Background of Paraprofessionals.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Grades 1-8	2	2.6	4	2.5
Some high school	17	22.4	17	10.7
Finished high school	40	52.6	75	47.3
High school equivalency	3	3.9	8	5.0
College, 1-2 years	8	10.5	28	17.6
College, 3-4 years	3	3.9	5	3.1
Associate degree	1	1.3	---	---
Baccalaureate degree	1	1.3	17	10.7
Graduate degree	1	1.3	5	3.1
	N=76		N=159	

The 1972 sample had more previous work experience than the 1970 sample (Figure 7). This may reflect some mobility among the paras, moving from one para job to another. (The "other" category in the 1972 column includes 60 previous para jobs.) It also appears that this field is attracting more women from office and sales work, areas where there is opportunity to work with people but perhaps in less satisfying ways.

Figure 7. Previous Employment of Paraprofessionals.

	Number of Previous Jobs Reported	
Area of employment	1970	1972
Child care	25	38
Office	58	93
Factory	42	38
Small business	8	12
Nursing	17	15
Sales	18	47
Professional	5	17
Food service	24	38
Other	32	104
None/no response	56	18
Mean number of previous jobs held	1.7 (N=169)	2.4 (N=175)

Although there is mobility among paras, there is also significant stability. Forty-eight percent of the 1972 sample (Figure 8) had been in their jobs for three of more years. Since most of these jobs have been in existence only that long, attrition is obviously low.

Figure 8. Length of Employment in Present Job.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 6 months	25	20.2	12	7.7
At least 6 months, but less than 1 yr.	14	11.3	30	19.2
At least 1 yr., but less than 2 yrs.	27	21.8	23	14.7
At least 2 yrs., but less than 3 yrs.	19	15.3	16	10.3
At least 3 yrs., but less than 5 yrs.	27	21.8	58	37.2
5 years or more	12	9.7	17	10.9
	N=124		N=156	

Half the paras contacted continue to work at least thirty hours per week (Figure 9). For the other half, the number of hours is increasing. This can largely be explained by the schools' increasing acceptance of aide usefulness over a longer period of the school day. The person originally hired as a lunchroom aide for ten hours per week, for example, is asked to add playground and attendance duties to her schedule, making a five-hour day, twenty-five hour week. The majority of these part-time school paraprofessional staff are performing lower-level tasks in assistance to professionals.

Figure 9. Total Hours Worked Each Week by Paraprofessionals.*

Hours per week	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Up to 10	6	4.5	7	4.5
11 - 20	29	21.6	15	9.7
21 - 30	30	22.4	52	33.8
31 - 40	52	38.8	67	43.5
More than 40	17	12.7	13	8.4
	N=134		N=154	

*During the work year, which does not include summer for most school employees

Paraprofessionals in both samples were asked what they liked most and least about their jobs (Figures 10 and 11). More than half the positive responses involved the opportunity to help and/or work with other persons. Although a smaller proportion of the 1972 than the 1970 responses included the helping motivation and a liking for the tasks performed, a correspondingly higher proportion liked everything about the job. This wholehearted acceptance of their work is evidenced by the significant increase in responses that there was nothing that was least liked. However, a large number of school paras cited some of these tasks as being least liked: lunchroom duty, playground supervision and study hall monitoring--all tasks that teachers do not prefer and believe should be assigned to aides.[5]

[5]For a description of school aides, see "The Status of Paraprofessionals in New York State School Districts" and "The Status and Role of Lunchroom Aides in Selected New York State School Districts," mimeographed (Ithaca, N.Y.: Department of Education, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, 1969 and 1970).

Another finding is that there is decreased perception of the supervisor as a problem or least-liked aspect of the job (Figures 11 and 12). Perhaps this is the result of on-the-job learning by professionals who had little or no previous training or experience in supervision.

Figure 10. What the Paraprofessional Likes Most About Present Job.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Working with/helping meeting people	113	57.7	121	52.6
Tasks performed	28	14.3	22	9.6
Experience/knowledge/ skills gained	5	2.6	7	3.0
Challenge/responsibility/ autonomy	4	2.0	9	3.9
Success on the job	15	7.7	2	0.9
Everything about the job	10	5.0	38	16.5
Hours/working conditions	21	10.7	22	9.6
Other	---		9	3.9
Total number of responses	196		230	

Figure 11. What the Paraprofessional Likes Least About Present Job.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Nothing	6	4.3	27	16.3
Poor pay/advancement opp'ties/job benefits	11	7.9	23	13.9
Clientele characteristics	23	16.5	12	7.2
Nature of tasks	32	23.0	49	29.5
Nature of work conditions	40	28.8	22	13.3
Supervisory practices	12	8.6	2	1.2
Not having answer/not being able to help	15	10.8	5	3.0
Other	---		26	15.7
Total number of responses	139		166	

Figure 12. What Paraprofessionals View as Problems in their Jobs.

Sources of Problems	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Supervisors	49	29.0	6	3.3
Clients	5	3.0	18	9.8
Coworkers	3	1.8	5	2.7
Nature of work	7	4.1	13	7.1
Conditions of work	6	3.5	13	7.1
Pay	2	1.2	10	5.4
Opportunities for advancement	---		7	3.8
Other	7	4.1	21	11.4
None/no answer	90	53.3	91	49.4
Total number of responses	169		184	

When asked about their future, slightly more than one third of both samples of paras wished to remain in their present jobs (Figure 13). In the 1972 group, 20 percent indicated that they had no career plans, more than twice the size of that response category in the previous sample. There were also some increases in the responses indicating plans for advancement in their particular service area, either as a para or as a professional. More persons in the 1972 survey seemed to know what they were looking for in a better job (Figure 14): improved pay, higher status and more responsibility accounted for half total responses.

Figure 13. Future Plans of Paraprofessionals.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Stay as is	42	34.4	56	35.0
Become professional same area	13	10.7	23	14.4
Become professional different area	16	13.1	12	7.5
Advance as para same area	7	5.7	23	14.4
Advance as para different area	6	4.9	8	5.0
Quit job	11	9.0	2	1.3
Entrepreneur	---		1	0.6
No plans	10	8.2	32	20.0
Other	17	13.9	3	1.9
Total number of responses	N=122	99.9	N=160	100.1

Figure 14. Characteristics Desired in "Better" Job.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Improved pay	48	21.7	63	28.0
More responsibility	19	8.5	29	12.9
Higher status	8	3.6	28	12.4
Better hours	26	11.7	12	5.3
Improved working conditions	3	1.3	7	3.1
Preferred nature of work	25	11.3	33	14.7
Other	3	1.3	20	8.9
Nothing/no response	89	40.2	33	14.7
Total number of responses	221	99.6	225	100.0

The proportion of paras interested in continuing their education has decreased significantly during the two-year period, as has the proportion interested in working toward a degree (Figures 15 and 16). Although there is some increase in the size of the "maybe" category, there is a substantial increase in the proportion of persons clearly not interested in further education, whether directed toward a degree or not.

Figure 15. Interest of Paraprofessionals in Continuing Education.

	1970		1972	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	71	62.8	74	51.7
Yes, if...	25	22.1	15	10.5
Perhaps, maybe	8	7.1	26	18.2
Probably not	6	5.3	6	4.2
No	3	2.7	22	15.4
	N=113		N=143	

Figure 16. Interest of Paraprofessionals in Working Toward Degree.

	1970		1972	
Yes	49	40.2	50	37.9
Some interest	38	31.1	10	7.6
Possibly, maybe	12	9.8	25	18.9
No	23	18.9	47	35.6
	N=122		N 132	

A comparison of present wages with starting wages indicated that the range of hourly rates has jumped up a notch, both at the minimum and maximum levels (Figure 17). Part of this can be attributed to changes in minimum wage laws and part to the results of collective bargaining. Half of the 96 persons reporting starting wages received pay increases moving them at least from one level to the next. Fifteen other persons were transferred from an hourly pay basis to an annual salary contract. Salary levels had not increased significantly since starting on the job (Figure 18). Considering the fact that the average job tenure of paras in the 1972 sample was 2.75 years, that represents less than the increase of cost of living for the same period. One advantage of the annual pay basis is the greater likelihood of para eligibility for fringe benefits. Figure 19 shows the numbers and percentages of paras who reported that they did or did not receive these benefits. Of importance is the substantial number of the total sample of 175 who did not respond because they did not know whether they received these benefits or were eligible to receive them.

Figure 17. Paraprofessionals' Present Rate of Pay Compared with Starting Rate - Hourly*

Rate of Pay/Hour	Starting		Present	
	No.	%	No.	%
Under $1.50	8	8.3	---	---
$1.50 - 2.00	66	68.8	13	14.9
$2.00 - 2.50	21	21.9	66	75.9
More than $2.50	1	1.0	8	9.2
	N=96		N=87	

*Note: Fifteen of the 96 persons reporting starting wage rates were transferred from an hourly basis to an annual contract after a period of successful performance.

Figure 18. Paraprofessionals' Present Salary Compared with Starting Salary - Annual*

	Starting	Present
Salary Range	$1,260 - 6,000	$1,260 - 6,660
Mean Salary	3,074.23 (N=40)	3,397.15 (N=60)

*Note: These salaries are actual amount earned and in many cases do not represent full-time or full-year rates.

Figure 19. Fringe Benefits Reported by Paraprofessionals.

Benefit	Yes		No		N
	No.	%	No.	%	
Paid vacations	38	= 34.2	73	= 65.8	111
Paid holidays	95	= 80.5	23	= 19.5	118
Paid sick and personal days	110	= 92.4	9	= 7.6	119
Optional group insurance (health)	80	= 70.8	33	= 29.2	113
Retirement plan	46	= 48.9	48	= 51.1	94

The movement to organize paras has been effective in motivating employers to consider improvements in pay and fringe benefits, whether or not it resulted in the establishment of a bargaining unit. The schools are particularly sensitive to the potential impact of unionization. In at least one case the actual formalization of a bargaining unit for the paras resulted in a decreased number of paraprofessional jobs. This did not happen in situations where employers initiated efforts to improve job benefits (possibly as a way of staving off negotiating with this one more bargaining unit).

An instance of a different type of collective bargaining occurred in Tompkins County when the day care mothers licensed by the County Department of Social Services organized an association. Although the association was formed for both educational and service-improvement functions, its first move was the negotiation of an increased fee per child for day care services.

From the sentiments expressed by participants in the June workshop, "The Outlook for Paraprofessionals," the establishment of associations is highly favored by paras as a means of gaining visibility and recognition and for development of community education regarding the importance of paras in the human services. Caution was expressed by a substantial number of individuals regarding the use of such associations for collective bargaining unless or until public acceptance and support were established.

It would appear that paraprofessionals in 1972 have had time over the last two years to assess their situation and adjust their expectations accordingly. Their work experiences, although far from ideal, have been tempered by the realization that employment is scarce and the supply of persons interested in working in the human services is plentiful. Thus they recognize that their remuneration is low, their status is low, they are not soon likely to be given responsibility commensurate with their own perception of their ability to fulfill [illegible]. They have responded by lowering their aspirations, settling for advancement

in the jobs they have, giving up thoughts of gaining the credentials necessary for advancement into professional status. Obviously this is not true of all persons, yet the pattern seems to exist.

The project staff has worked with the assumption that the commonalities between human services were greater than the differences. This assumption appears to hold only to a limited extent. During the two years of the project operations it has become increasingly apparent that the public schools perceive themselves to be essentially different from other community service agencies. This perception is so pervasive that it is accepted, perhaps to a lesser degree, by persons outside the school systems. It has been called to attention both by paras and by professionals in administrative, supervisory and practitioner positions. The impact of this perception has been felt in several ways. First, there is an expectation on the part of students in the community college courses that concepts appropriate to human services in agency settings are inappropriate to the school setting. Acceptance of concepts is highly dependent on the examples used as illustrations. If drawn from school settings, school personnel tend to assume a proprietary attitude toward the phenomena discussed, turning off the nonschool learners. If the examples are drawn from settings other than schools, school-based persons turn off or dismiss the material as irrelevant to them. This places the instructor in a difficult role; sometimes one concept has been labeled and discussed as two concepts, one with schools and one with agencies. The larger question whether the same conceptual materials are indeed utilitarian in both situations cannot be answered until semantic difficulties are overcome.

Another problem is the acceptance by school personnel of the status quo. Inquiry that is halted by an uncritical acceptance of the value of the institution's services and ways of operating is obviously something other than inquiry. This limits comparative analysis of delivery systems as well as evaluation of service objectives and relative effectiveness in terms of these objectives.

This is related to project staff assumptions about aide socialization in the public schools. The well-socialized individual, whether staff or client (child), accepts the institution's structures, functions and goals and performs accordingly. Thus the child whose potential capability is granted but whose performance is below par is labeled as a deviant often with blame for this deviancy placed on the family, peer pressures or the society. Th. staff member (para or pro) basically has a choice between accepting the syste. leaving it. This is in contrast to other human services, which more frequently must justify their existence on the basis of benefits to clients and demonstrated effective-

ness. In these agencies a questioning of operations, if not fostered, may at least be condoned.

Whether this differentiation between schools and agencies is real or illusionary is academic. The institutional and professional bolsters to the school's continuing reluctance to consider ideas that may lead to change are very powerful. Paraprofessionals within schools may already have recognized and accepted the limitations of their roles, if the responses of the 1972 sample group are an accurate representation of paras' future expectations.

B. Progress Toward Career Development in Tompkins and Cortland Counties

The concept of career development utilized by this project involves two components. One is the establishment of stable employment for nonprofessionals within the human services, employment that is not dependent for continued existence on such temporary conditions as the availability of soft money or a critical shortage of professional manpower. The other is the development of opportunities for paras employed in human service jobs to work toward greater responsibility, recognition and reward, in short, to make human service a career.

The definition of employment stability used in this project was the extent to which provisions for paraprofessionals had been "built in" the employing organization. Indicators included provision for remuneration scales; resourceful deployment of paraprofessionals; written job description; explicit criteria for selection and evaluation; and written personnel policies and practices regarding paras.

Evidence of career opportunity is the responsibility assumed by an employing organization for developing its paraprofessional manpower. Indicators include special meetings to define aide roles, training provisions for staff, incentives for continuing education, recognition of increasing staff competence and development of career ladders.

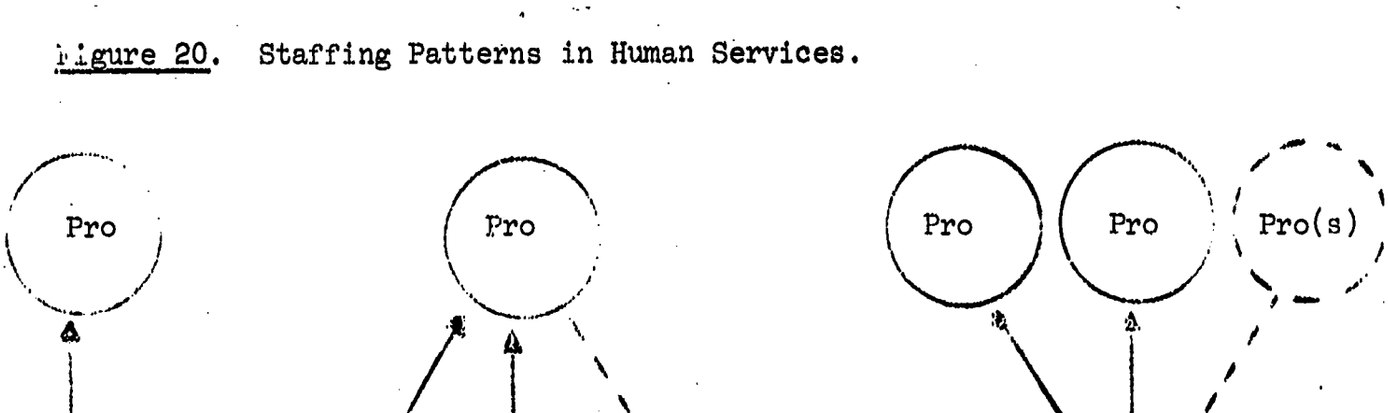
Interviews were conducted in May and June of 1972 with forty principals, directors or other administrators of schools or human service agencies in Tompkins and Cortland counties to assess the extent of career development and to compare the stance of the agencies in 1972 with more limited data gathered in 1971. The results of this survey are reported below.

Employment Stability

Remuneration Of 327[6] jobs identified by the forty persons interviewed, 62 percent were full time. The average minimum hourly wage rate for the 25 wage ranges reported was $2.07 (ranging from $1.68 to $2.50); the average maximum hourly rate was $2.59 (ranging from $2.00 to $4.00). For 22 annual salary ranges reported, the average minimum level was $3,630. This does not represent full-year full time employment for all positions; the range extended from a low of $1,000 to a high of $7,000. The average maximum annual salary rate was $4,536, with a range from $2,250 to $7,200. Eleven of the forty employers interviewed did not report a range of remuneration for at least some of their paraprofessional employees.

Deployment Plans There is no predominant pattern of para utilization in the agencies interviewed. The numbers of cases in which three basic patterns of deployment were used are shown in Figure 20. In many organizations more than one staffing pattern is used; while the pattern is related to the function of the paraprofessional, there are exceptions.

Figure 20. Staffing Patterns in Human Services.



Pattern I	Pattern II	Pattern III
Number reporting:		
21	19	22

[6] This does not include foster care or day care takers in Tompkins County nor several school programs in which paras are employed.

In general, Pattern I, in which a professional and a para work as a dyad, the function of the para is to assist in the tasks of the professional. There is not a clear differentiation of task assignments; as the para learns by observation and experience, she performs more of the tasks that the professional also does. This results in an increase of services overall, with lower cost per unit.

Pattern II, in which one professional coordinates and supervises the work of a number of paras, is generally found when paras are assigned tasks on a relatively autonomous basis. This is frequently associated with the development of new services and new jobs. The professional's role often does not include involvement in the direct delivery of the same services as the paras; instead the pro provides support for the paras' work and links it to other facets of the organization. This pattern may be found in organizations where there is only one professional working with a number of paras, each of whom has a different set of responsibilities vis-a-vis the professional, or when one professional is assigned to supervise several paras, all of whom have similar responsibilities.

The para who is responsible to a number of professionals, Pattern III, generally functions as an aide to the professional and, less frequently, provides direct services to clients. The tasks assigned to the para in this case are frequently those requiring less discretion, less education and fewer skills.

It is not evident to the project staff that most organizations in the survey had a clearly conceived idea when they first hired paras as to the functions the paras were to fulfill. The staffing patterns and present functions have evolved, often independently, and may not represent what practitioners, administrators or paras would classify as an ideal situation.

Job Descriptions Effort was made to distinguish between organizations that had not established job descriptions for any of their staffs and those that had not made such provisions for paras. Figure 21 indicates the number of agencies that had developed job descriptions for various staffing levels. Although a third of the agencies providing information about the existence of job descriptions had not established them for professionals, those that did generally had written descriptions. This was less true for nonprofessional staff (for example, clerical, secretarial, custodial); least formally acknowledged were the paraprofessionals, if judged by the number of organizations that had not developed job descriptions. However, looking at the number of programs in which thought

had been given to job descriptions for at least some positions, it would appear that the advent of paraprofessionals had not been ignored. The accommodation process is apparently laborious and problematic.

Figure 21. Existence of Job Descriptions.

	Numbers of Administrators Responding				
Staff Level	Unwritten	Written	For some positions	None	No information
Professional	0	19	2	11	8
Nonprofessional	4	15	3	10	8
Paraprofessional	3	11	10	14	2

Figure 22. Criteria for Selection of Paraprofessionals.

Human relations skills	
interest in other persons	16
concern for others	6
sensitivity to needs and feelings	4
ability to get along well with others	17
diplomacy	1
ability to meet others easily	5
flexibility in meeting demands	8
maintaining confidentiality	3
other	1
Total	61
Job-related skills	
driver's license	1
counseling	1
clerical	5
homemaking	2
health care	4
language and communication	3
audio-visual	1
other/general	7
Total	24
Experience	
with people	1
with the client group	6
with the service area	5
length of time on the job	2
demonstrated proficiency on the job	5
experience in the system	2
other	3
Total	24
Character/personality traits	
initiative	3
dependability	4
intelligence	3
warmth	1
interest in a career	1
ambition	2
judgment	2
stability	3
other	9
Total	28
Other	
ability to read	3
high school education	6
education beyond high school	7
civil service examination	1
indigenous	8
community respect	8
references	1
health examination	1
other	9
Total	44

Total number of responses = 181

Criteria for Selection and Evaluation The administrators were asked what qualifications they looked for when selecting persons to fill paraprofessional positions in their organizations. The mean number of responses to this open-ended question was more than four, with greatest emphasis placed on human relations skills (see Figure 22). Particularly significant was the emphasis placed on "interest in other persons" and "ability to get along well with others."

Figure 23. Criteria for Evaluation of Paraprofessionals.

	Number of times mentioned	
Human relations skills		
ability to relate to clients/others	21	
ability to work well with staff	18	
skill in working with clients	13	
sensitivity to clients	4	
respect for clients	3	
confidentiality maintained	4	
tact and diplomacy	2	
consistent and firm to clients	2	
other	1	Total 68
Work skills		
ability to carry out directions	6	
ability to organize work	4	
ability to function well independently	5	
happiness with own work	3	
understanding of agency	2	
ability to delegate responsibilities	1	
competency on the job	11	
flexibility in carrying out job	3	
uses supervision constructively	2	
initiative in perceiving and responding to need	5	
full use of time	5	
willingness to undertake new tasks	2	
professionals' satisfaction with paras' work	6	
good relationship with other agencies	1	
commitment to job/organization	3	
program effectiveness	3	
other	2	Total 64
Personal/character traits		
reliable/dependable/punctual	7	
pleasing personality	2	
discretion/judgment	4	
objective/rational	3	
creative	1	
efficient	2	
mature/stable	4	
other	3	Total 26
		Total number of responses 158

When it came to specifying the characteristics examined when evaluating paraprofessionals, the persons interviewed had fewer responses. Five administrators were unable or unwilling to identify any criteria used in evaluation, possibly because their organizations had not developed procedures for staff evaluation. Again, human relations skills were identified as of prime importance, with top ratings going to ability to relate to clients/others, ability to work well with staff and skill in working with clients. Next in importance, judging by the number of times it was mentioned, was competency on the job. Fifteen administrators mentioned no work skills in their evaluation criteria. The remaining administrators were far from consensus on the work skills valued in their organizations (see Figure 23).

Several generalizations are suggested by the data. First, human service administrators generally subscribe to the notion that their paraprofessional staff should possess interest and skills in working with people as a prerequisite to employment. Second, although they continue to recognize the importance of human relations skills, administrators become increasingly aware of the effect on performance of work skills. Perhaps these are more measureable, or serve as a greater irritant when not present, or are recognized only after some experience with paras. The multiplicity of models for para utilization is again evident in the wide assortment of job-related evaluation criteria specified by administrators. Finally, the evaluation process seems to be less clear than the selection of paraprofessionals in human services. The romance surrounding expectations between agencies and paras may need to be replaced by sustained efforts to build stable and productive relationships.

Personnel Policies and Practices The assumption was made that the formulation of policy, regardless of the nature of its provisions, was at least indicative of an organization's recognition of the paraprofessional as a continuing part of its staff. Attempt was made to distinguish "policy," a formal statement of intent approved by the final decision-making body of the organization, from "practice," the way the organization actually operates. Interviewers also attempted to find out for whom policies were applicable in order to avoid categorizing agencies that had no statements of personnel policies with those whose policies did not cover all levels of staff.

It is interesting to note (see Figure 24) that at least three out of four employers had formulated policies for all staff concerning vacations, holidays and sick days. These figures mask the fact that the policies may not be

Figure 24. Numbers of Administrators Reporting Personnel Policies in Selected Areas. (N=40)

Policy Area	For Professionals Only	For Professionals and Nonprofessionals	For Professionals and Paraprofessionals	For All Staff	Informal Only for Paras	Varies within Organization	No Policy	Don't Know
Paid vacations	-	-	-	37	-	3	-	-
Paid holidays	2	-	-	31	-	7	-	-
Paid sick days	-	1	1	30	1	6	-	1
Overtime work	2	-	1	21	-	3	11	2
Pay range	2	3	-	28	-	5	1	1
Increments	3	6	-	20	-	7	3	1
Probation period	2	1	-	15	-	2	17	3
Insurance (group)	4	1	-	22	-	7	1	5
Retirement	11	2	-	15	-	4	3	5
Performance review	1	-	2	11	2	2	16	6
Grievance procedures	7	2	-	20	1	1	5	4
Unemployment insurance	1	-	-	3	1	-	17	18
Career ladder	-	-	-	3	-	3	27	7

particularly advantageous to staff. In schools, for example, the vacation provided is the same as the students'- a vacation without pay which is particularly hard on paras whose annual income is generally less than $4,000. In schools, also, a policy distinction is made between persons receiving hourly wages and annual salaries. Those on an hourly basis are usually paid only for time worked; those on an annual contract have provisions for sick days, personal leave, holidays falling in the school year and (occasionally) snow days. The policy of many schools and agencies regarding insurance is that paraprofessional staff may choose to participate in group insurance (health or life) plans, but without any contribution by the employer.

With the cost of employer contributions to employee benefits substantial and rising, it is perhaps not surprising that the paraprofessionals' share is small. Half or more of the agencies had at least considered their stance in the majority of the policy areas listed. The paraprofessionals are not entirely ignored; a more accurate observation might be that human service employers are consciously trying to reduce the increasing rate of expenses by eliminating fringe benefits as much and as long as possible.

Two policy areas that are standard in business and industry have been significantly ignored by this group of human service administrators. The omission of "probation period" and "performance review" cannot easily be explained on the basis of cost. A number of the persons interviewed seemed to be unfamiliar with the idea of specifying a period of time within which the new employee can demonstrate acceptable performance on the job. Reaction to the question of performance review, however, reflected what appeared to be a concern by many administrators for finding valid and effective means of assessing behavior in the service areas. Few, if any, had experience with self-evaluation as a component of appraisal, or with performance review as an aid to personal growth. Some perceived appraisal as a form of passing judgment on another person, which contradicted their values of trust and acceptance of others. It may also be seen as inappropriate in a field of work dominated by professionals. For whatever reasons, developing a means of assessing job performance with feedback to the employee is only marginally supported by administrators of human services.

Career Opportunity

This project was developed at a time when administrators of human service agencies were very much aware of the New Careers model proposed as a component of the war against poverty. According to Riessman and Popper

> The New Careers strategy is based on the notion of jobs first, training built-in. It suggests, first of all, that many jobs normally allotted to trained professionals, if they are properly broken down and redesigned, can be performed by inexperienced and untrained people. These jobs form the entry position. In turn, this entry position, together with the assurance of further training and education, and an organized pattern of advancement, becomes the motivation for participation on the part of the nonprofessional.
>
> The motivation for the employer resides in a new source of much needed manpower and an improvement of services.
>
> The motivation for the professional lies in the freedom to perform at a much higher level of specialized services, as well as new opportunities for advancement.
>
> The motivation for the taxpayer rests on the fact that, even without exploiting the new nonprofessionals, he can receive both more and better services for the same cost, a saving achieved, in part, by allocating our most expensive professional resources with greater economy . . . .[7]

The following analysis of the career opportunity picture for paraprofessionals in the two counties reflects a general awareness of the New Careers model. The elements of the model, however, are by no means found only in organizations that have explicitly adopted a New Careers philosophy.

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[7] Frank Riessman and Hermine Popper, (editors), Up From Poverty: New Career Ladders for Nonprofessionals. New York: Harper and Row, 1968, pp 8-9. For an early presentation of the New Careers model see Arthur Pearl and Frank Riessman, New Careers For The Poor, New York: Free Press, 1965.

Special Meetings to Define Para Roles Although it appeared that few organizations had first employed paraprofessionals with a clearly conceived idea of the role and function of the para in the overall delivery of service, the investigators assumed that discussion of this topic would be stimulated as organizations gained experience with paraprofessional staff. The level of this discussion, it was felt, might remain informal and unorganized. On the other hand, the para's role might be raised as a policy issue with inputs from the many groups concerned. As an indicator of organizational recognition of changes both in expectations for para performance and in para competencies developed on the job, administrators were asked whether their organizations had held meetings for the purpose of discussing aide responsibilities. Half the forty respondents replied that no formal meetings had been held on that topic. The other half had spent at least part of one meeting on that subject. A few had held a series of meetings at which personnel policies had been formulated and approved, philosophies had been clarified and career ladders initiated.

Staff Development Organizations that accept as part of their responsibilities the provision of planned staff development see staff as valuable human resources that can be optimized to the advantage of both the individual and the organization. Planned neglect, on the other hand, is more likely to occur when human resources are plentiful and can be used interchangeably with minimum organizational investment in training to meet the requirements of the job. If most organizations viewed the para as a person who can easily be replaced from an abundant manpower supply that is already overeducated for relatively low-level job requirements, little planning for staff development would be anticipated. If, on the other hand, organizations tended to view paras as an indigenous manpower source that had not previously been successfully tapped, the investment in demonstrating the capabilities of this group would be enhanced by a strategy for staff development.

Administrators were asked whether each of six forms of staff development was used in their organizations and for whom. Figure 25 reveals that the only means of staff development used for all staff by more than half of the forty respondents is orientation. This varied from a half day of formal and informal staff meetings in some schools to several weeks of observation and gradually increasing responsibilities in agencies requiring considerable outreach work.

Figure 25. Numbers of Administrators Reporting Use of Selected Means of Staff Development. (N = 40)

Type of Staff Development	For Professionals Only	For Paras Only	For all Staff	Not Used	Varies Within Organization	No Answer
Preservice (a period of paid skills training prior to job assignment)	1	1	4	32	2	-
Orientation (a period of paid employment used for orienting staff to the work situation)	5	1	25	7	2	-
In-service training (formal training provided on-site in which staff are expected to participate)	2	4	17	10	7	-
Performance review (supervisor and supervisee explicate performance goals and progress toward them)	1	-	12	21	5	-
Continuing education (formal off-site training generically relevant to the job, usually with optional participation)	3	1	7	14	15	-
Staff meetings (regularly scheduled sessions at which staff members evaluate operations and plan for continuation or change)	2	-	18	2	18	-

As had been anticipated from the responses to personnel policy questions, relatively few organizations used performance review techniques as a means for developing staff capabilities. Participants in a workshop on goal setting sponsored by the project indicated that responsibility for setting personal and organizational performance goals was rarely perceived to be a function of human service practitioners. Some of the individuals involved in the workshop have since begun to utilize some form of goal setting for their personal growth, but there is not a widespread movement toward adoption of performance review by supervisors and supervisees.

Almost half the administrators reported that they did not consistently involve all of their staff in regular department or program meetings. In many schools, for instance, some paras were invited on some occasions to attend faculty meetings at which specific programs, problems or students were to be discussed. Principals expressed some surprise that paras might be interested in attending faculty meetings, perhaps because these meetings are not always a source of inspiration to the persons who must attend. In addition, there is reluctance to ask persons to give up their own time to attend staff meetings, and generally there is no budget provision for paid participation.

Many administrators did not believe that staff would participate in continuing education off-site unless their time was reimbursed. Due to budgetary restrictions and limited local training opportunities relevant to their operations, a number of organizations approached continuing education on a haphazard basis. If they were aware that something was going to be happening, if it cost little or no money, and if its applicability to current staff and program was obvious, then information and occasional support was given to staff. Organizations that were most likely to invest in planned continuing education were those who were trying to demonstrate the efficacy of developing previously disadvantaged manpower. Examples include Community Action Programs, Head Start and the Expanded Nutrition Education Program. These were also the kinds of organizations most likely to provide preservice training.

Incentives for Continuing Education Since the problem of fiscal restrictions on staff development was widespread, it was believed that some agencies unable to sponsor/support an in-house continuing education program might instead choose to provide incentives for employees to pursue their own continuing education. This is a pattern familiar to many school administrators whose districts provide salary increases for satisfactory completion of specified credit hours in

graduate study. Other organizations, such as Cooperative Extension and Departments of Social Services provide sabbatical leaves for graduate study. Most human service organizations provide reimbursement of expenses for professionals to attend conferences and other professional meetings. Whether these provisions had been extended to paraprofessional staff is another indicator of the organization's commitment to developing career opportunities for the paraprofessional.

It is obvious that very few administrators perceived that their organizations offered incentives to paraprofessionals for pursuit of continuing education (see Figure 26). Because the interview question was open ended ("Is there any plan that provides an incentive for professionals to continue their education or to update their training?....for paraprofessionals?") it is possible that not all respondents considered these incentives, even though some probes were used in the interviews. The high incidence of salary increments for educational achievements is explained by the large proportion of school administrators interviewed. With the exception of the increment incentive, however, professionals did not fare much better than paras. A lack of resources may explain the similarity of treatment for both professionals and paraprofessionals. On the other hand, the professional tradition includes continuing education as a responsibility of the individual practitioner. It may be that service organizations rely on their professional employees to maintain this tradition, with little reliance on external incentives. (Again, the salary increment incentive for teachers to complete work toward permanent certification and/or graduate degrees is an exception to the general expectations for professional behavior.) Paraprofessionals may be considered to be so different from professionals that there is neither a need for improving their education nor an expectation that it would be used if available. This does not seem to be true in those programs most closely resembling the New Careers model.

Recognition of Para Performance The investigators assume from their own experience and the reports of supervisors that most paraprofessionals learn their roles and increase their competencies through on-the-job experience. Organizations, it is believed, can choose to ignore this growth, or they can recognize it, building toward even further resource optimization. Several means of recognition are available to organizations, including subtle cues to paraprofessionals that they are part of the team rather than a distinctly different type or level of employee. In the contacts of project staff with paraprofessionals it was made clear by the paras that there were a number of informal indicators that were used to find out where paras stood in the employing agencies. Some persons mentioned

Figure 26. Numbers of Administrators Reporting Various Incentives for Continuing Education. (N=40)

Type of incentive	For Professionals Only	For Professionals and Paraprofessionals	Varies within Organization
Tuition payment for college study	3	3	2
Released time to attend off-site training	4	1	5
Leave of absence or sabbatical leave	3	2	-
Salary increments for educational achievements	22	-	-
Tenure based on educational achievement	-	-	1
Other (for example, payment of conference expenses	1	2	2

that paras were not invited to staff parties in their organization; others said that conversation in the staff lounge stopped when they entered. Others felt that they were not accepted fully because they were not expected to attend staff meetings. Another report mentioned the lack of paraprofessionals in agency staff introductions.

These cues were subtle and possibly unintentional, yet pervasive. An attempt was made to find out how aware administrators are of the unobtrusive measures of integration and cohesiveness perceived by paraprofessionals and what responsibility the administrators feel for facilitating interaction and thus promoting solidarity. The question was asked, "In what ways, if any, does the organization try to facilitate interaction between aides and their supervisors?" Answers were coded as follows:

	Number of Respondents
Shows concern	13
Shows concern and some action	9
A little concern	12
No concern	4
No answer	2

Because the coding depended heavily on investigator interpretation, no further attempt has been made to gauge the importance or extent of informal recognition of paraprofessionals' performance. This may be an important area to explore in further studies.

Informal kinds of recognition are not the only means available to the organization wishing to reward increasing staff competence. Paraprofessionals had identified in classes and meetings three ways in which their employers recognize improved performance: advancement to a higher position; increasing pay at the same position; and increasing responsibilities at the same position. Figure 27 indicates the number of administrators reporting each strategy, and relative frequency of its use.

Figure 27. Numbers of Administrators Reporting Use of Selected Means of Recognition. (N-40)

Type of Recognition	Not Used	Single Case	Two or More Cases	Most or All Paras
Promotion	19	13	5	
Pay increase	5	3	9	21 (all)
Job enlargement	8	10	12	4 (most)

It is apparent that increased pay is the most widely used form of performance reward. One possible difficulty with the interpretation by the paraprofessional of pay improvement is the lack of distinction between reward on the basis of merit and reward on the basis of job tenure and negotiated wage increases. Since more than half the persons interviewed reported that all their paraprofessional employees had received increases in remuneration, this may signal only job stability, not selective reinforcement. The next most frequently used form of recognition was the enlargement of the job through assignment or approval of increasingly responsible tasks. The inherent danger in job enlargement is the potential perception by paras that they are assuming a share of responsibility disproportionate to their share of the total rewards. If job enlargement is accompanied by periodic pay increases, the para, particularly when she is not the sole supporter of her family, is highly gratified. Feedback from project-sponsored workshops indicates that a belief in the service ideal is at least as characteristic of paraprofessionals as of professionals.

Least frequently employed as a means of recognition is promotion. This is perhaps to be expected, considering the tight economy, professional resistance to paraprofessional encroachment and lack of definition by agencies of ultimate career openings for paras. Only six of the forty administrators reported that

their organizations had developed career ladders for part or all of their staff (see Figure 24). In those cases where persons had been promoted, their performance had been well above average and they were engaged in work for which professionals were not better qualified. Examples are the promotion of school paras to work in counseling with minority students and of community workers to supervisory positions. Some of these promotions occurred in agencies that had made some provision for career ladders. The career ladder plan, however, was more apt to be an outcome of the promotion, and the promotion was less likely an implementation of the plan.

Comparison with Agency Information, 1971

In May and June of 1971 interviews were conducted with administrators of 27 programs within 21 different schools and agencies.[8] Direct comparison of data gathered from the 1971 and 1972 surveys is not possible due to differences in number and organizational affiliation of persons interviewed and in the questions asked.

Overall, however, the picture appears very much the same. What changes have occurred have been incremental, rather than revolutionary. The Cooperative Extension Association that had been working on development of tuition reimbursement and career ladder policies has made significant progress in its efforts. The Department of Social Services that had been concerned with the training and development of family child care providers has developed and implemented further steps in an overall plan. The school that is experimenting with new kinds of assignments for paraprofessionals has tried out one or two new positions and has worked at optimizing interstaff relationships.

In organizations where the basic concern was budgetary - trying to find ways to keep the cost of services from increasing at an expanding rate - changes in remuneration rate and fringe benefits have been minimal and frequently arrived at as an outcome of negotiation. As a number of school officials reported, the numbers of paras employed and the wage or salary rates allocated would depend on the budget approved for the next school year. The most favorable climate for

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[8] See Information from Agencies, Appendix 11 in "Human Service Training Project: Progress Report and Evaluation," mimeographed (Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Human Ecology, June 1971).

continued paraprofessional employment seemed to be one in which neither drastic cuts nor significant increases in budget occurred. In the former situation teacher reaction against the possible dismissal of professional staff made the release of paraprofessionals a lesser evil; in the latter situation, opportunities for additional job openings were jealously guarded by teachers for credentialed fellow professionals rather than a potentially double number of paras.

The heavy dependence of the future employment picture on financial resources was evident both in 1971 and 1972. In 1971 five administrators anticipated cutbacks in para staffing, six anticipated increases and six saw no change. The rest (ten) were unable to indicate what might happen due to budget uncertainties.

In 1972, the budgets were again uncertain, but most persons interviewed were willing to predict employment for the next year, perhaps because an "unsure" category was included (see Figure 28). Only five persons anticipated cutbacks, twenty-two anticipated increases and eleven expected to stay the same. There is a substantial increase in the anticipation of additional employment opportunities for paraprofessionals in the 1972 survey, which is far more consistent with the experience of the preceding year than was the 1971 prediction.

Figure 28. Numbers of Administrators Anticipating Paraprofessional Staff Changes.

	1972-73*				1971+	
Outlook	One Position	Two or More Positions	Unsure	Total	Not Applicable	Total
Decrease in para staff	1	1	3	5 (13.5%)	32	5 (18.5%)
Increase in para staff	4	5	13	22 (59.5%)	15	6 (22.2%)
Stay at same level	NA	11-Yes NA	15	11 (29.7%)	11	6 (22.2%)

Note: An agency might be listed in more than one category for 1972-73, anticipating both an increase and a decrease in positions.

*N = 37 +N = 27

Summary

Employment for paraprofessionals in Tompkins and Cortland counties is in many respects still marginal. While the number of jobs appears to be increasing, other indicators of the stability of these jobs, the extent to which employers have made long-range provisions for accommodating paraprofessionals within their organizations, are not so promising. In those organizations where there is a commitment to developing disadvantaged persons for viable career placement in human services, both job stability and career opportunity indicators are positive. In other organizations the paraprofessional seems to be regarded as a stop-gap measure to slow down the escalation of service costs.

C. Effect of Participation in Educational Development on Aide Job Performance

Justification:

The utilization of paraprofessionals to increase the effectiveness of the delivery of human services is no longer an unusual development. It is a strategy advocated by proponents of the New Careers model to provide employment opportunities for the poor while at the same time increasing the quality and quantity of services to the poor. It is, further, seen as a means for accomplishing routine tasks in the delivery of services at lower cost than that charged by professionals.

As significant numbers of paraprofessionals have been employed in many human services, increasing attention has been drawn to provisions for their educational and career development. Employing agencies are concerned with finding or creating education/training opportunities for paraprofessionals that will offer a return on investment in the form of enhanced job performance, effective intra-agency relationships, and increased commitment to agency goals. Paraprofessionals are concerned with involvement in training that would increase the life expectancy of their present jobs and enhance the possibilities for promotion into better jobs.

The delivery of human services is presently conducted almost entirely within the framework of existing organizations. In order to remain eligible for a career in human services, a paraprofessional must perform in a manner acceptable to the employer. The ultimate argument for the continuing utilization and development of paraprofessional manpower may be evidence of effectiveness in meeting client needs. A more immediate requirement for such utilization and development is the approval of the professionals in human service agencies who direct the work of the organization and who supervise the work of the paraprofessional. (This study makes no inference regarding a relationship between the aide behaviors desired by agencies and aide effectiveness in serving client needs.)

An education/training program designed in response to the expressed needs and interest of both employers and paraprofessionals began September 1971 at Tompkins-Cortland Community College. Seventy-two paraprofessionals employed in thirty-five different schools or human service programs in the two counties enrolled in one or more courses of the Human Services program during the 1971-72 academic year. Evaluation of the effect of participation in the Human Services program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College on the students' job performance would provide feedback to the program and to the agencies who support the students' participation.

An exploratory evaluation was conducted to find out whether measures could be developed reflecting supervisors' specifications of job performance effectiveness. These measures, ideally, would be applicable in evaluating performance of persons enrolled in a training program as well as those not participating in such a program and could be used across human service agencies. Such measures would eventually make possible the study of the impact of educational development on job performance of paraprofessionals employed in a wide range of human service organizations.

Objectives:

(1) The first objective of this study was to develop means of assessing the extent to which aides enrolled in the Human Services program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College evidenced growth in the following areas of behavior, specified by a number of human service agencies as indicators of aide effectiveness:

a - the aides will improve their ability to function as fully contributing members of the agency team;

b - the aides will improve their ability to analyze problems (particularly family-oriented problems) and to specify alternative solutions;

c - the aides will increase their understanding of peoples' problems and needs and will be able to relate these needs to services and programs offered by their own and other agencies;

d - the aides will increase their understanding of other agencies in their geographic area and the working relationships between their own and other agencies;

e - the aides will improve their ability to evaluate their own performance on the job;

f - the aides will set realistic goals for themselves in relation to the job and their academic experience and evaluate their progress toward these goals.

(2) The second objective was to develop similar means of assessing growth in the behaviors specified above by aides not participating in the Human Services program but working in the same agencies as the aide/students.

Population sample:

An ideal group for this exploratory study would have met the following specifications:

a - it would consist of persons working in a variety of human services roughly representative of those employing paraprofessionals in Cortland and Tompkins counties;

b - each of the employing agencies included would have at least two paras participating and at least two not participating in Human Service coursework;

c - the supervisory staff in the organizations represented would be willing to participate in the study as required for development and trial of possible procedures; and

d - some paraprofessionals from each agency represented would have participated in both semesters of the Human Services program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College.

It was not possible to find more than one agency that met specifications b - d. Fortunately, however, the Expanded Nutrition Education Program of the Tompkins County Cooperative Extension Association not only meets these criteria but has employed twelve-fifteen paraprofessionals and is very interested in the focus of the study for their own purposes. The measures that have been developed reflect the influence of this single agency and the limitations imposed by the small sample group, supervisory time available and turnover in staff. Eleven aides are involved in the study; of these four have taken courses for two semesters, two have participated for one semester and five have not enrolled in the college program at all.

Instrumentation:

This study was designed to explore ways of assessing changes in paraprofessionals' on-the-job performance. A major purpose, therefore, was to develop instruments for measuring the behaviors specified by employers as desirable. Plans for instrumentation included:

(1) the development of a rating scale to be administered to supervisors on a pre and post basis to rate the team functioning ability of paraprofessionals whom they supervise;

(2) the development and testing for reliability and validity of a proficiency examination covering several cognitive behaviors (see objectives b, c and d, p. 35) believed by employers to be related to job effectiveness;

(3) the development and trial of a technique to determine growth in ability to evaluate self-performance on the job; and

(4) the development and trial of a means of assessing progress in goal setting.

(1) In order to develop a valid rating scale for judging aides' team functioning ability (that is, one that measured behaviors commonly believed by supervisors in a wide range of human services to be characteristic of a fully functioning team member) a list of such behaviors was elicited from the twenty-six supervisors attending a workshop for preceptors held in October, about a month after the Human Service classes began at Tompkins-Cortland Community College. These preceptors were the work supervisors of aides, a number of whom were enrolled in the program, and represented twenty-one different schools and agencies in the two counties.

After instructions were given to the whole group, three small groups each developed a list of team member behaviors desired by the human services represented in the group. Criteria of visibility, measureability and objectivity were specified by group leaders for selection of those behaviors believed important by consensus of the small group members. Behaviors in this smaller list were ranked in order of importance and reported to the total group. The combined list was posted for inspection; no items were rejected as irrelevant to particular agencies and many were highly ranked by all. Thus the validity of this set of behaviors was established by the preceptors who constructed it.

The next step was to develop simple descriptions of what more or less of each behavior looked like so that supervisors could locate an aide's behavior somewhere on a continuum for each characteristic. Drawing upon the suggestions of experiences of supervisors and the group leaders from the preceptor workshop, an eighteen-item rating form was drafted. Descriptions of three levels for each item were placed along a five-point scale.

This instrument then was tested for reliability. Six supervisors in one agency, each of whom, it was felt, could observe the same aides, were asked to rate six aides, independently of the other five supervisors. One supervisor disqualified himself since he did not feel he had sufficient first-hand observation

of all six aides to judge the specified behaviors.

A nonparametric analysis of variance by the Kruskal-Wallis method was employed to determine whether there were significant differences between raters in the relative ranks assigned to ratees. A mean score on the total instrument was computed for each aide as judged by each supervisor by dividing the sum of ratings for each item by the number of items rated. These mean scores were ranked on two dimensions; first, each aide's position relative to the other aides rated by a particular supervisor, and second, each aide's rating by a particular supervisor relative to her rating by each other supervisor.

The analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between raters in ranking of the aides (X^2 = 4.77, 5 df n.s.) and confirmed the obvious difference in ranking between ratees (X^2 = 10.71, 4 df, significant more than .95).

A reliable instrument is internally consistent, with individual items all contributing to the measurement of a single construct. To determine the internal consistency of the instrument, the Hoyt-Stunkard method was used to ascertain reliability coefficients for ratings by each of the three raters who completed all items for all six aides. These coefficients were r = .966, r = .946, and r = .865. The combined coefficient for all three raters was r = .966.

The rating scale was used by the supervisor of the Tompkins County nutrition aides to rate the performance of all eleven aides early in the spring and at the end of June. (Four of the eleven aides were also rated during the preceding fall as part of the instrument pretest.) The scale is Exhibit G.

(2) Performance of aides on a proficiency examination covering the cognitive content of behavioral objectives b, c and d above was the primary measure of improvement in ability. [A description of the development of this instrument appears in Section D of this report.] The examination was administered to each person who participated in the Human Services program at the end of each semester in which they were enrolled. Persons who did not participate in the program took the examination late in the spring of 1972.

(3) Several measures of the paras' ability to evaluate their own performance on the job were tried. The underlying idea, that individuals should rely on internalized criteria for performance that are not necessarily the evaluation criteria utilized by employers, was first operationalized as the response to the question, "How can you tell when you're doing a good job?" The question was addressed to

paras enrolled in Human Service fieldwork courses at conferences of student, preceptor and instructor. The number of criteria mentioned, independence from overtly expressed opinions of others and congruence of criteria with supervisor's rating standards were to be the variables considered.

Unfortunately, it did not prove to be a workable measure. Perhaps the supervisory conference setting contributed a set of expectations that inhibited or ran counter to the student's expressing what was really thought. It is also possible that there was considerable variation in the completeness in which answers were recorded. In addition, a usable response may only be one that has been given considerable forethought, not the first impulsive answer to an unanticipated question.

Another possible source of information on self-evaluation skill was the record kept of student/preceptor/instructor interaction in practicum courses. A Student Performance Inventory form was developed by instructional and evaluation staff of Human Service Training Program (HSTP) for use by students, work supervisors and instructors as preparation for the three triad conferences scheduled each semester with each participant in a fieldwork course. The first semester was a trial period to see whether the forms were usable, contributed valuable insight to student growth and helped students gain skill in self-performance evaluation. (The form appears as Exhibit B.)

Unfortunately, at the end of the semester it was found that:

a - the forms had not been used for all conferences or for all students;

b - the forms had not consistently been collected and stored in each individual's file; and

c - the instructor was not only not convinced that these forms were useful but also felt that routinization of contacts with supervisors and students interfered with more pressing concerns that might be discussed during the scheduled conferences.

The Performance Inventory forms that were available were scrutinized by two project staff members to see whether they appeared to yield insights into on-the-job behaviors of aides and evidence of growth in performance and self-evaluation skills. In spite of the incompleteness of the data it was the investigators' judgment that:

a - the forms represented a means of helping both aides and supervisors discipline themselves in terms of preparing adequately for the conference/performance review;

b - the examples of specific incidents and behaviors cited by aides and supervisors were potentially useful not only in the conferences but as illustrative material in class seminars, preceptor workshops and project reports;

c - the extent of congruence between aide and supervisor ratings prepared for the same conference was illuminating in regard to halo effect, aide self-esteem, the state of communication between participants and areas in which additional supervisory skills were needed; and

d - the forms were one way to preserve a glimpse of behavior at a previous time not contaminated by ensuing events, learning and experience.

The forms, however, did not yield an objective measure of improvement in self-evaluation skills. No apparently valid or reliable basis for comparing early with later responses was evident nor a basis for comparing one student with another. Furthermore, most preceptors found it difficult to devote the necessary time to fill out these forms and discuss them with paras they supervised. Providing the information for aides not enrolled in Human Service courses or getting those aides to fill out their part of the forms was a burden the supervisors did not wish to assume. This, obviously, is not a useful means of assessing competency in self-performance evaluation for participants and non-participants across agencies.

Supervisor judment was considered as another technique. It was obvious from the Student Performance Inventory forms, however, that supervisors tend to perceive aides holistically. This halo effect would, it is feared, mask or inflate the actual skills of the individual being judged. Also, internalization of standards implies independence from supervisor's criteria. Aides may incur disfavor by pursuing development of skills in areas not highly regarded by their supervisors. This could be reflected in the supervisors' rating of the aides' self-evaluation ability.

(4) The final behavior specified as desirable by human service supervisors was the aides' ability to set realistic goals for themselves and to evaluate progress toward these goals. To assess goal-setting ability all students in Human Service courses were asked to set individual learning goals at the beginning of each course and to evaluate their progress toward these goals at the end. Students were requested to respond to three questions:

- What progress have you made toward your goals for this semester?
- What new goals have you set?
- In your work situation, how can you tell that you're doing a good job?

For students in one course these questions were distributed with the original learning goals the students had specified, kept since then by the instructor. In the other two courses students were expected to recall their earlier learning goals.

Results from this technique were difficult to assess. In the case where original goals were presented with the questions the responses tended to be more specific, citing evidence of progress and particular ways in which they might evaluate their own on-the-job performance, than in the other two groups of students. This might also be due to the nature of the material covered,the teaching style or class structure utilized by that instructor and/or to characteristics of that group of students. Responses in the other two groups tended to be global, nonspecific and not supported by examples or indicators of behavioral change.

In neither case did categories for analysis emerge from the trial run of this means for assessing goal setting/progress evaluation behaviors. It is recognized that the setting of learning goals in the context of a class or seminar may not necessarily be the same as setting goals for performance on the job. Similarly, asking the individual to assess progress toward goals in a classroom setting may not necessarily resemble the process that individual uses in an on-the-job setting.

In the opinion of the investigators, however, a more important consideration is the lack of familiarity among both paraprofessionals and professionals with any goal-setting process. This largely intuitive opinion is based on experience exemplified by the following two incidents. The first was the preceptor workshop on goal setting that was conducted by project staff for supervisors and paraprofessionals from a number of human services.[9] The trainers found that most workshop participants, regardless of job status, had no previous experience in setting explicit personal goals. Those to whom the ideas appeared to be most familiar were persons who had been enrolled in human service courses at the community college, and their skills in goal setting were by no means well developed.

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[9]For a fuller description of the workshop see "Summative Evaluation, Workshop IV: Goal Setting for Supervisors and Aides", Human Service Training Project, mimeographed (Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Human Ecology, 1972).

The second incident occurred in an agency where a project staff member had agreed with the agency director to help stimulate paraprofessional staff to set personal goals as an aid to specifying in-service training needs for the coming year. Six aides and two other staff members were present. Among other things, they were asked to identify from a list of behaviors those in which they were proficient and those in which they would like to achieve greater skill. Then they were asked to specify any other areas in which they would like to improve. Very few additional areas were suggested by any of the group; in general, the paras felt they were already capable in all of the areas that were listed. Two persons displayed higher differentiation ability. One was the supervisor and the other was the only aide in the group who had participated in a community college course.

This suggests that skills in goal setting and self-appraisal are not necessarily acquired through life experience but may be developed through purposeful and repeated exposure to the processes involved. Some unanticipated data in support of this notion came to light when nutrition aides enrolled in the courses at the community college were asked by their employer to write an evaluation of each semester's learning experience. This was designed as a means of feedback to the agency providing tuition payment. Six persons wrote essays on the courses they had taken. Three specifically mentioned the goal-setting process used in the courses as a benefit of the experience. Four mentioned the growth in self-confidence and feelings of self-worth that they had gained. All six referred to particular areas of competence that they felt they had gained as a result of their educational experience. A significant aspect of these reports was the reference to objectives that the participants, on the basis of their participation in this program, were setting for their future performance. It seems as if one necessary ingredient in goal setting is previous achievement, which raises awareness of personal potential and the benefits to be derived from improved skills; enables individuals to articulate specific behavioral outcomes; and increases predictive ability concerning attainable skill increments. A second necessary ingredient, then, may be exposure to and practice in setting personal goals, whether in course work, agency staff training or both.

The essay as a measure of goal-setting and self-evaluation skills is subject to all of the limitations of any nonstandardized procedure. For example, it depends on subjective judgment of the rater(s) and written language skills of the individuals. It does not necessarily reflect the individual's growth over time

as much as his interest and feelings at a particular time. It cannot easily be compared with a similar measure for nonparticipants; that measure would be available only with the willingness of an employer to require an essay from each paraprofessional employee.

D. The Development of Proficiency Examinations

Background:

The Human Service program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College was designed with several assumptions in mind. First, it assumed that the need for more and more effective human services in our society is increasing but may not be met through existing means of manpower development. Second, it assumed that a major source of students would be the group of paraprofessionals presently employed in Tompkins and Cortland counties. Third, it assumed that primary interest in the program would be as a means for gaining skills and credentials for employment, rather than as a first step toward a traditional four-year college degree.

Looking more closely at these assumptions, implications for program design emerged. If, for example, the society is not providing adequate human services with its present system of staff selection, training, and rewards, then the development of a new cadre of human service workers may be a valuable improvement in our social environment. Such a cadre would be recruited, perhaps, on the basis of life experience and demonstrated competence in helping others rather than on the basis of intellectual achievement or interest in gaining wider experience. Instead of passing through a long incubation period in an academic hatchery as a prerequisite to practice, the new practitioner would be admitted with the understanding that training concurrent with practice would build on the skills with which he entered the job. Reward would be commensurate with responsibility rather than credentials, and opportunity to assume increased responsibility would be commensurate with demonstrated capability on the job, not simply with 'Brownie points' earned by seniority or pro forma participation in extra-occupational activities.

The second assumption led to a study of the characteristics of this client group, the opportunities for learning offered by the work situation, and the demands for competency of the job situation. Some of this information was gathered through interview survey.[10] It was found that paraprofessionals vary widely in educational,

[10]"Human Service Training Project, Progress Report and Evaluation, July, 1971" op. cit.

work, and personal experience. These differences are enlarged by variance in the agencies' perception of the potential of paraprofessionals, which affects the complexity of tasks and amount of responsibility delegated. As a result, there are great differences in competencies between individual paraprofessionals.

Continuing contact with employers has revealed particular skills and abilities desired by human service agencies in the area.[11] There appear to be some conceptual abilities, for example, that are highly valued across employing agencies. This last information was particularly relevant, since the career outlook in a particular human service is not clear and opportunity for mobility often takes the shape of a lateral move from one agency to another. Competencies that are valued across agency lines enhance the individual's chances of career mobility.

Because the project is oriented toward job effectiveness and employer satisfaction and not primarily toward the transfer requirements of upper division colleges, efforts such as preceptor training workshops and individual contacts with agency staff have been initiated to encourage supervisory and administrative staff to specify behaviors desired in aides. These have been used in creating the outlines of program and courses and in evaluating outcomes.

Problem:

This model of manpower development follows closely the New Careers concept. If it is to work it requires, among other things, means of assessing and recognizing individual capability gained through previous work and through continuing life, work, and educational experiences. A first attempt to devise a basis for awarding college credit for learning acquired through extra-collegiate experience was the design of proficiency examinations. Such an instrument was to have two purposes. First, if satisfactorily completed, it would permit the successful examinee to receive college credits in lieu of taking and passing a particular course in the program. Second, it would permit the examiner to identify strengths and weaknesses of test-takers who did not complete the examination successfully on the first attempt, and to assist the individual to build competency where needed.

Two areas of the Community College's Human Service Program that seemed to be appropriate for initiating development of proficiency examinations were the core, in which all students in the program were expected to enroll, and the developmental

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[11] Ibid.

child care sequence. The rationale for focusing on some part of the core was the assumption of commonalities in orientation to human services that cut across all of the paraprofessional jobs examined. A proficiency examination that would provide one means of assessing the paraprofessional's growth when administered at several points during the individual's involvement with the program was seen to be very useful. Indications of aide effectiveness widely specified by employers of aides included the following behaviors:

(1) the aide's knowledge and understanding of universal human needs and specific agency services within his/her own community, as well as the working relationships between own and other agencies;
(2) the aide's ability to relate needs to services and programs available within the community; and
(3) the aide's application of such knowledge and understanding in simulated problem situations requiring analytic problem-solving ability and a grasp of alternative possibilities for solving problems.

The child care area was selected because of its critical importance to the well-being of children and families locally and nationally. More than 2,000 young children in Tompkins County alone are presently in or in need of child care services.[12] The background and training of personnel in the various child care services is diverse. Generally, pre-kindergarten teachers in public schools, personnel responsible for daily program activities in day care centers and head teachers in nursery schools and Head Start programs are professionally trained, but those working in other positions in these facilities and licensed family day care mothers do not usually have any formal background in child care/child development. However, many child care paraprofessionals have achieved a high level of skills and knowledge over time through their experience on the job and through their own interest and efforts. Many of these people are interested in educational programs which would enable them to develop their skills further and also to develop their jobs into careers in child care services as they acquire more experience and credentials.

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[12] This figure was obtained from a survey conducted in 1970 by the Day Care and Child Development Council of Tompkins County.

Examination for "Orientation to Human Services"

Procedures:

The course on which this proficiency examination was based is "Orientation to Human Services", a three-credit hour basic survey course whose outline and teaching-learning objectives[13] reflected areas of competency important to human service employers. The examination was written to reflect the course objectives, tapping cognitive skills at application, comprehension, and recall levels.

A first draft was pretested with fourteen aides in Tompkins and Cortland Counties during June and July of 1971. A revised draft was administered to thirty-five students beginning the two core courses offered during the Fall semester. Results of this pretest were fed back to the instructor and to the individuals who had taken the examination, and further minor revisions of the instrument were made.

In order to establish that the instrument was in fact measuring mastery of the course content, the revised test questions were sent with a copy of the objectives of the course to the fifty-one members of the Ithaca chapter of the National Association of Social Workers. This group, it was felt, was representative of the human services since its members actually practiced in health and educational settings as well as social services. Sixteen useable replies were received. At least two-thirds of the responses for each item indicated that the item did reflect the objective it was supposed to test. The other responses suggested minor word changes, additional examples, more demanding and less demanding requirements. The modal response supported the validity of the instrument. The remaining response was indicative of great divergence regarding the potential of paraprofessionals; it either focused on something other than the task which was presented (the validation of test items in terms of the stated objectives) or dwelt on preconceived notions of what aides were capable of achieving. (Interestingly enough, these responses tended to come from persons who were not working with paraprofessionals at the time.)

With face and content validity established by the judgment of a plurality of this panel of experts, the instrument was again revised to incorporate a few minor changes of wording suggested by the judges to clarify the test instuctions. This form was given to the Human Service instructors to be administered at the end of the semester to the forty-five individuals enrolled in Human Service courses.

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[13] "Human Service Training Project, Progress Report...". op. cit.

Thirty-six examinations were completed and returned. (The remainder have either not been returned or the students were absent when the examination was administered.)

A scoring system for the examination was devised which would permit analysis for internal consistency of the instrument using a split-half technique. In general, a total of the scores on half of each of the four major questions was compared with the total of scores from the other half. In the case of questions requiring two separate cases or examples one was assigned to each half. In the case of multiple answer questions odd numbers were assigned to one half and even numbered items to the other. Using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation method corrected with the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula a correlation coefficient of r = .851 was found.

Items were then analyzed for level of difficulty and discrimination index. Scores which represented mastery were assigned to each of the four questions. (Because it was possible to attain a larger score on one item and thus compensate for deficiencies on other items, the criterion of mastery was satisfactory completion of each item and not total test score.) The level of difficulty indicated the percentage of correct responses. Index of discrimination refers to the extent to which a high score on this item is associated with high performances on the test as a whole. The results of item analysis are shown in Figure 29.

Figure 29. Results of Item Analysis. (N = 36)

	Item I	Item II	Item III	Item IV
Level of difficulty	.75	.69	.53	.46
Index of discrimination	.8	.9	.5	1

From this analysis it seems clear that increasing difficulty was encountered by the subjects as they progressed through the test, which seems desirable in terms of building confidence on the part of the inexperienced test-takers. With the exception of Question III, each item discriminated very well between persons who scored high overall and those who received low total scores.

Discussion:

Several questions suggested themselves at this point:

(1) What was the relationship between mastery as indicated by test scores and as indicated by grade in the "Orientation" course?

(2) If persons who did not take the course passed the test, to what might their success be attributed?

(3) If persons who satisfactorily completed the course did not achieve mastery on the test, to what might their failure be attributed?

(4) Why did question III not discriminate well between high and low scorers?

(1) Of the students completing the "Orientation" course and the proficiency exam, only one-third passed this test at the mastery level. This was in sharp contrast to the course grades, which were all A's and B's for the students who completed the examination. While none of the six students who achieved mastery on the test received less than an A, some of the seven students whose scores were lower than the median test score did receive A scores in the course. This lack of correlation between test score and course grade is not necessarily a bad thing. It may well be that a college could decide to demand more of persons to whom it grants credit on the basis of a single performance than for whom it has evidence of performance over a whole semester. On the other hand, the instructor may have been able to evaluate course participants on the basis of skills other than those that could be expressed through a written examination. It is also possible that the criteria for evaluation of performance are dissimilar. It may be that the stated course objectives have been abandoned or significantly altered, and therefore subject to scrutiny. The educational institution which offers credit through proficiency examination in lieu of a particular course owes to its clients a clear policy regarding congruence between the objectives of course and examination.

(2) Five persons who did not take the course achieved mastery on the test. With one exception, a student of several years standing, three persons had each had many years of voluntary and/or paraprofessional experience in human services. All five persons were competent in written verbal communication, as evidenced not only in the examination but also in other course work which they had been assigned.

(3) The importance of written language skills, both in comprehension and expression, became even more evident when the performance of the course participants scoring lowest on the test was analyzed. Four of the five lowest scores were earned by persons whose earlier educational achievement was limited by termination of public school education prior to a high school diploma, attendance in ghetto or segregated school systems, or both. The previous educational experience of the fifth person is not recorded; her performance on the test, like the others, indicated a serious deficiency in language skills. One explanation of the difference between course grades and test grades may be the opportunity for use of continuing feedback from the faculty member to insure comprehension of

instructions and the use of oral rather than written communication to express ideas in the course. While this test does discriminate against persons who have been previously discriminated against socially and educationally, the importance of written language skills is believed to be critical to job advancement. For this reason the educational institution may well decide to retain the discriminatory instrument and place special emphasis on comprehension and composition in written assignments integrated with all of its Human Service courses. It may also be desirable to administer an appropriate test of written language skills very early in the semester so that deficiencies may be identified and treated as soon as possible.

(4) Further analysis was carried out in an attempt to discern why Question III did not discriminate as well as the other questions. Question III required knowledge of the structure of human service organizations. Two persons among the top 27% in terms of test results did not complete this question satisfactorily. Of the group these two had had the least work experience in the human service area. Of the persons earning the lowest 27% of test results, three low scorers completed this question satisfactorily. These three had had more years of human service work experience than the rest of the group. While high scores on this question do not correlate with overall high test performance as well as the other questions do, Question III does differentiate on the basis of knowledge presumably gained through work experience. It seems important to recognize that although the test appears to be biased against educationally disadvantaged persons, it is also biased in favor of persons who have apparently had the advantage of learning from work experience. Such work experience could be entered without traditional education achievement requirements. Judging from our observations, however, language skills seem highly desired by employers as a prerequisite to job advancement.

Examination for "Developmental Child Care I"[14]

Procedures The course on which this proficiency examination is based is the first of a two-course sequence, covering the basic principles of developmental child care. It was designed for those students who have little or no experience of skills in working with young children and for those who have experience with

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[14] For fuller discussion see Sandra Stein, The Development and Use of an Evaluative Instrument for Assessing Basic Knowledge of Developmental Child Care. Unpublished M.S. thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 1973.

children but do not know the techniques considered basic to a developmental approach to child care. The curriculum includes development of nurturant skills, defined as those techniques which facilitate a child's physical and emotional development, and educative skills, defined as those techniques that promote a child's cognitive and social development. In addition, some knowledge of the human service aspect of role as applied in the area of child care services was considered an integral component of the course.

In an effort to build in content validity, the first step in instrument development consisted of drawing up a table of specifications based on the course content. Items were then drafted to reflect the objectives, which were divided into three subsets representing skills considered basic to the developmental child caretaker's role, that is, the nurturant function, the educative function and human service function of the paraprofessional in child care services. The three subsets were assigned values of 40%, 50% and 10% respectively, reflecting the amount of importance and emphasis of each part in relationship to the course as a whole. Most of the items were drafted at the application level of achievement, although many items go beyond that by requiring the examinee to describe the rationale behind specific applications.

As the next step in the attempt to assure content validity of the instrument, a group of non experts were consulted during the process of instrument design. Interviews were conducted with professionals, educators and administrators representing a broad range of child-caretaking services and programs, such as Head Start, family day care, day care centers, nursery schools and pre-Kindergarten. Each was asked to comment on the course outline and objectives and to offer his or her opinions as to how well the exam appeared to test this content. All comments were considered and suggestions were then incorporated into the later drafts of the instrument. During the period of instrument development, additional sources consulted consisted of textbooks and recent government publications, and miscellaneous written material recommended as source material by the experts who had been interviewed.

Although decisions on content were of paramount importance, another important and related concern was the manner of presentation of test material. It was anticipated that a considerable number of paraprofessionals would be handicapped on a written test, due to poorly developed verbal and test-taking skills, regardless of the fact that they might perform well on the job. An effort was therefore made to avoid large, concentrated blocks of written material. It was found possible to present much of the material of Section II in picture form, thus reducing dependence

on words and, hopefully, increasing interest. An attempt was made to organize written material so that it could be presented simply and clearly.

A first draft of the instrument was developed for pre-testing early in May of 1972, and seventeen pre-tests were administered to paraprofessionals representing a range of child care experience (family day care mothers, Head Start programs pre-kindergartens, etc.). The results of the pre-test suggested a number of improvements that could be made in the instrument, consisting of condensing some sections and expanding others, a reorganization of the content to enhance test-taking motivation, and rewording of some items to reduce ambiguities.

A second draft was prepared and another battery of pre-tests were run with an additional fourteen child care paraprofessionals as subjects. After the second set of pre-tests were examined, only a few minor rewording changes seemed indicated, along with one minor rearrangement in the order, so that the three areas of competency being evaluated would each be contained in a separate subsection. The latter change was an attempt to facilitate scoring and did not alter the instrument in any basic way.

Scoring of the test was based upon setting a criterion for successful performance. This results in what is known as a criterion-referenced test or a mastery test. The objective of this testing was not to assess relative achievement, as is usually done in the classroom for purposes of grading students, but rather to determine whether a testee's performance represented mastery of the body of content which is sampled by the instrument. The criterion for a mastery test is usually defined in terms of the proportion of items answered correctly. This proportion is selected beforehand by the test constructor based upon his judgment and experience. This procedure was followed during the instrument development stage.

A further attempt to establish the content validity of the instrument, after it was developed, was carried out. A second panel of experts was consulted to ascertain that the final version of the instrument does in fact measure mastery of course content. They were asked to examine the final form of the instrument, along with the course outline and objectives and to report their opinions as to whether the instrument accurately reflects the set of objectives that it purports to test.

The second panel of experts was composed of two groups. One group consisted of local practitioners and the other of educators throughout th state concerned with providing a similar kind of paraprofessional training for child care services.

The first group, members of the local chapter of the National Association for the Education of Young Children, was approached at the November, 1972 meeting. Teachers in programs for young children, particularly those who work directly with paraprofessionals, and program directors were asked to participate in the evaluation task. The examination and evaluation material were distributed to eighteen experts, eleven of whom returned responses.

The second group of experts was obtained by utilizing a recent study of New York State Junior College School Paraprofessional Programs. A panel was selected consisting of directors of eighteen programs that appeared to contain objectives similar to those of the Developmental Child Care courses within the Human Services Program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College.

Responses were returned from twenty-one of the thirty-nine experts included in the panel; since there were no negative responses replies were classified as Yes or Qualified Yes. Confidence in the content validity is well warranted by the results shown in Figure 30.

Figure 30. Results of Survey of Experts (N = 21)

	Local Professionals		Statewide Educators		Total	
	Yes	Qualified Yes	Yes	Qualified Yes	Yes	Qualified Yes
Section I	7	4	9	1	16	5
Section II	10	1	8	2	18	3
Section III	10	1	8	2	18	3

Reliability of the instrument was determined through two measures of internal consistency. The first was a split half procedure, in which each section of the test was subjected to separate analysis. Results of the analysis appear in Figure 31.

Figure 31. Computation of r for the Instrument as a whole. (N = 12)

	r for the section	fraction of instrument represented	amount contributed to r for instrument as a whole
Section I	.892	.40	.3568
Section II	.945	.50	.4725
Section III	.37	.10	.0370
		Total r	.8663

The other measure of internal consistency was the Hoyt variation of the Kuder-Richardson formula for analysis of variance. A coefficient of r = .798 resulted. Inter-rater reliability using the scoring key proved to be very high; it seems safe to conclude that a satisfactory level of reliability has been attained.

The instrument was also subjected to analyses for item difficulty and item discrimination. A numerical score representing mastery was established for each of the ten parts of the examination. The mastery criterion was applied separately to each of these ten items so that it would not be possible to obtain a large score on one part of the test and thereby compensate for deficiencies in other areas. Mastery for a section depends upon obtaining a mastery score on a sufficient number of items within that section. Thus, distribution of score, as well as the total score for the section, were determinants of mastery in a section. The level of difficulty of each item indicates the percentage of correct responses. Index of discrimination refers to the correlation between high score on a given item and high score on the test as a whole. Results of item analyses are shown in Figure 32.

Figure 32. Results of Item Analysis (N = 12)

Section	Item	Level of Difficulty	Index of Discrimination
I	1	.83	.66
	2	.91	.33
	3	.83	.33
	4	.83	.33
	5	.75	.33
II	6	.66	1.0
	7	.66	1.0
	8	.50	1.0
	9	.50	1.0
III	10	.50	.66

Although the items in the section on general care-taking skills are not very high in terms of item difficulty, they are effective in terms of item discrimination. Section II is both the most difficult and discriminating of the three sections. It is possible to speculate that this result is because the role of nurturer and protector of young children is the traditional role of the child caretaker and likely to be better understood than the newer concept of child caretaker, which adds the function of educator to this role. Both functions are integral components of developmental child care. Since Section III, Human Service Skills, represents only ten percent of the content of the instrument there is not enough data to be meaningful,

although the section appears to be moderately difficult and highly discriminating.

Discussion A total of sixty-three individuals have taken the proficiency examination. Twenty-one have passed the examination and have been awarded three hours of course credit. It is interesting to note that exactly one third of the first twelve testees passed the examination and the proportion remains the same for the second administration, with seventeen individuals, or one third, receiving passing scores and thirty-four persons receiving scores below passing.

Although very little demographic data are available, all testees were asked several items of background information. These consisted of whether they had children, how many and their ages; what kind of experience they had working with children; and what training they have had related to child care or child development. The results are summarized in the table below.

	Have Children	Do not Have Children	Have Training	Do not have Training
Passed	19	2	18	3
Did not Pass	22	20	31	9

The group that passed was compared with the group that did not pass on the basis of the three available criteria. Forty-one of the sixty-three testees reported having children. Twenty-two of this group did not pass the examination and nineteen did pass. In the first instance, twenty-two of the forty-two participants who did not pass had experience as parents. On the other hand, nineteen of the twenty-one who did pass were parents. Looking at these figures in another way, we see that of the twenty-two testees who did not have experience as parents, only two passed the examination. If we translate the figures into percentages, we find that 46% of the parents obtained a passing score, while only 10% of those who were not parents received a passing score.

No solid conclusions can be drawn from these figures, but suggestions can be made. Those who do have experience as parents, for instance, tend to be older than the childless group, and to have a broader range of child-related experience in addition to the experience derived by virtue of raising a family. However, it must be emphasized that parenthood in itself is not sufficient preparation for passing the proficiency examination, since 54% of the parents who took the examination did not pass.

All testees reported having some experience in working with children. The type of experience reported ranged from babysitting to professional employment. However, it was not possible to evaluate the quantity or quality of individual testees' experience on the basis of the information supplied, so it is not possible to draw associations between experience and performance on the examination.

Most testees reported some kind of training although the range was again very great. For example, the training reported varied from service on a parent advisory board to a four year undergraduate program in Child Development. The question was asked in such a way as to elicit any kind of educational or training experience, no matter how minimal. The comparison between the pass and not pass groups indicates that those who passed were more likely to have had some training. For instance, in the group that passed the examination, only three individuals, or approximately 14%, reported that they had not had any kind of training experience, while over 21% of those who did not pass did not have any training.

On the basis of our information it was also possible to ask whether family size made any difference in the parent group. The mean family size for parents who passed was 3.26 children compared with 2.95 children for parents who did not pass. The median number of children, a more meaningful statistic in this case, was three for both groups. Both mean and median indicate that, for the parent group, number of children is not associated with performance on the exam.

One other figure may be of interest. In the first administration of the examination all the participants were women. Five men took the examination in the second administration, one of whom was a parent. None of the men were in the pass group, but four of the five did demonstrate a sufficiently high level of skills to receive a score above mastery for one or two of the three sections.

Conclusions The proficiency examinations developed by the Human Service Training Project appear to measure the stated objectives of the courses for which they were designed in an internally consistent fashion. Each part of each examination contributes to the discriminatory ability of the total instrument; the tests appear to be biased in favor of persons who have had considerable work experience in human services and those who have attained competence in comprehension of and expression through the written word.

Referring back to the specifications for the tests, it appears that these tests may be used as diagnostic devices (to indicate to examinees where their strengths and weaknesses lie) and as tests of mastery (to determine whether the examinee is eligible to receive three hours of credit in lieu of taking the particular course). They may also be used as one means of evaluating student progress (to see if continued participation in educational development is associated with improvement in test score [up to the mastery level]) and as a check on the congruency of test and course objectives by examining correlation in the performance of students taking both course and test.

The final forms of the proficiency examinations developed in this project appear as Exhibit C.

E. Conclusions Regarding the Human Service Training Project

It would appear that this project has had a number of salutary outcomes. The development and implementation of a curriculum, including the model for community input into the development and appraisal process, augurs well for the continuing viability of the program. The successful operation of a cooperative venture between community college and university has demonstrated the efficacy of such an arrangement. The attempt to define a comprehensive system for the development of paraprofessional manpower in the human services has illuminated the many facets of such a system that must be considered.

Although not optimal, evaluation was designed that took into consideration the need for feedback into program operations; the need for valid indicators of program effectiveness; and the interdependence of program, institutions and community. The design counted heavily on the participation of program staff as intelligence staff; that is, to gather data systematically as an integral part of program operations, including analysis of their own activities. This proved to be an unrealistic expectation. It may be [unless they are selected on the basis of a strong action research orientation] that program staff are resistant to encumbering their time with activities not immediately relevant to the job to be done. In this case the program coordinator felt that there was insufficient time to accomplish all the program goals, without adding to the burden by keeping extensive records. When a part-time acting program coordinator replaced the full-time program coordinator, the inclusion of this person in evaluative aspects of the project became even more problematic. The involvement of persons at a point after the planning stage requires a successful period of indoctrination, redefinition of project goals and/or amazingly acute criteria for selection if these new staff are to enter fully into the project operations. In addition, the learning required of the new staff in terms of roles, structures, relationships, assumptions and latent as well as manifest intent is very demanding and time-consuming. It would appear highly desirable to avoid planning of program and evaluation by one set of staff members for implementation by other staff not committed to the plans.

A successful future of the human services program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College is by no means assured. It has rested heavily on commitment from several full-time staff members who will not be engaged in the program after the end of this project. In an effort where continuing communication with the community is vital to continued program support, part-time staffing is a dangerous tactic. This virtually

eliminates the maintenance of an effective advisory committee, the training of preceptors, the identification and development of new job opportunities, the monitoring of program through feedback from agency contacts (both professional and paraprofessional), the continuing development and refinement of curriculum and the establishment of special supportive services designed to meet the needs of this student group. While the advisability of transferring all responsibility for program maintenance to the community college (rather than sharing it between community college and university as in the project development phase) is acknowledged, this requires a commitment of resources that the two year institution may not be in a position to afford. Particularly important is the continuation of sensitive administrative guidance to the part-time and adjunct faculty working in the program, especially if a transition is to be effected in which the program becomes an area of career education open to full-time day students in the college. An additional concern is the need to identify in more detail opportunities for graduates of the two-year degree program to pursue continuing education in meaningful and accessible baccalaureate programs. Further exploration of means of assessing proficiency are also needed.

One of the unusual features of this project was the development of a model for community college and university cooperation. Several observations may be useful to planners of similar endeavors. First, the personnel in participating institutions that are most intimately involved in the effort are subjected to strains such as competing interests from their own institutions and limited interests from their partner institutions. Sensitivity to the sources of strain and commitment to a clearly defined goal, plus personal flexibility and interest in process analysis, were characteristics helpful to the staff of this project.

Second, a careful delineation of institutional boundaries was helpful in preventing territorial disputes between participants. This seemed to be particularly important in this project, which involved not only the two educational institutions but also a large number of community agencies. The university, for example, was responsible for the training of preceptors. It was not responsible for development of arrangements with agency staff for supervision and conferences regarding students' work experience. The community college made such arrangements and was responsible for connecting academic and field-based learning. The agency, however, was responsible for determining and specifying objectives for learning in the work situation. All these functions were interrelated, yet the participation of each institution was clearly bounded. Consultative suggestions flowed across those boundaries, but

decision making stayed within. Because the boundaries shifted over time, it proved useful to renegotiate or redefine periodically the domains of participants.

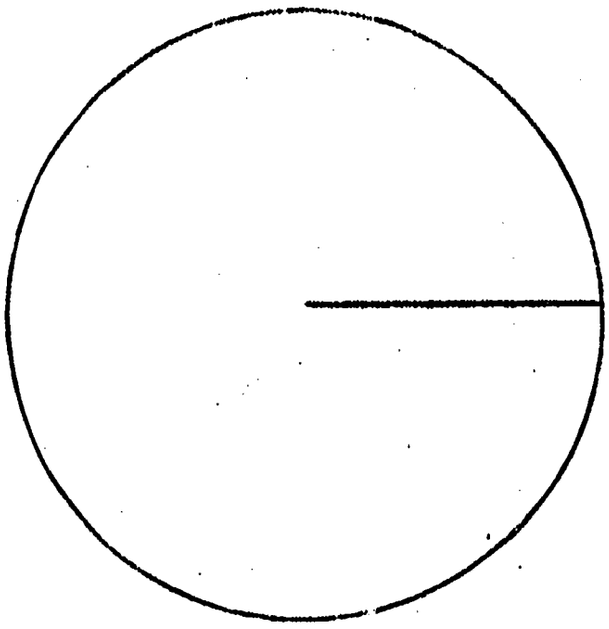
A third concern is related to the ad hoc nature of this particular project. It was designed with a termination date for formal interinstitutional activities, before which particular objectives were to be accomplished. The program developed during the project, however, was anticipated to be a continuing effort of one participant. The importance of identifying the inputs of the other participant when budgeting for future unilateral program operation is crucial to securing adequate maintenance. Some of the effects of inputs in a cooperative effort may not be apparent immediately. Where it is reasonable to assume that the project's continued operation has been affected by a program component that terminates at the conclusion of a cooperative effort, some thought should be given to alternative provision of that component or dealing with its omission.

EXHIBIT A

COURSE EVALUATION FORM

TOMPKINS-CORTLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE

SOURCES OF LEARNING IN HUMS XXX



I. Divide up the pie above to show how much you learned in the course from each of these sources. Label each piece.

A. Instructor
B. Guest speakers
C. Fellow students
D. Work/life experience
E. Readings
F. Individual assignments
G. Other (what? _____)

II. For each of the following learning experiences, indicate whether it should be used in this course again.

x = include as is
o = do not include again
v = change (tell how)

_____ guest speakers
_____ slides, films
_____ handouts, readings
_____ log/individual project
_____ class discussions
_____ instructor presentations
_____ field experiences
_____ conferences with instructor
_____ other (what? _____)

What additional resources (handouts, assigned readings, lectures, etc.) would you have liked?

Have learnings resulting from this course been applicable to your work/life experience? Your rating ☐

5	4	3	2	1
Very applicable		somewhat applicable		not applicable

What comments do you have about this course and about your experience as a student?

EXHIBIT B

STUDENT PERFORMANCE INVENTORY

STUDENT PERFORMANCE INVENTORY

Name: _____ Agency: _____

Date: _____ Rating this term: 1st ___ 2nd ___ 3rd ___

_____ Student

_____ Supervisor

_____ Instructor

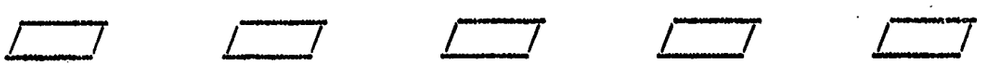
Directions: For each of the following four items...

1) check the box on the "Rating" scale that most closely indicates how you feel about your own performance on the job right now;
2) state your reasons for that rating under "Explanation", illustrating your reasons with specific examples, and indicating problems you would like to work on in the future.
3) at the first conference of the semester the field work course objectives will be discussed. You may record them on the last sheet so that you might keep them foremost in your work this semester.

---

1. EFFECTIVENESS WITH CLIENTS (includes: how well you get along with the persons you serve; how much you feel you are able to help them; how able you are to change their conditions, etc.)

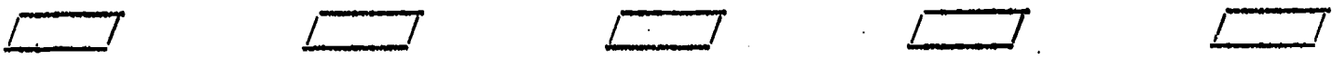
Rating



Explanation

2. TEAMWORK ABILITY (includes: how well you get along with your fellow workers, your relationship with your supervisor; how well your own concerns fit the concerns expressed by your agency; your ability to handle confidential information, etc.)

Rating



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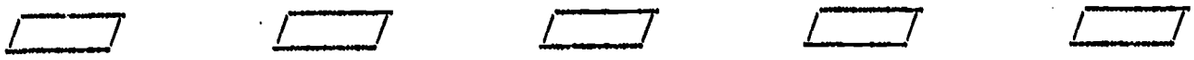
Explanation

3. PERSONAL INITIATIVE (includes: your ability to take responsibility; your confidence in yourself; your ability to "self-start" on a task, etc.)

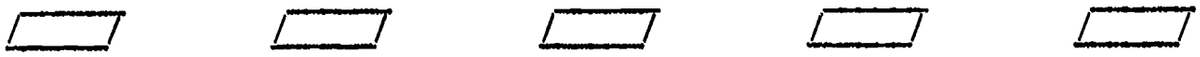
Rating



Explanation

4. JOB SKILLS (includes: your ability effectively to perform the tasks required by your job, etc.)

Rating



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Explanation

5. HUMS _____

Learning goals for semester _____
(date of course)

1. _____

_____

_____

_____

2. _____

_____

_____

_____

3. _____

_____

_____

_____

Anecdotes, Explanations, etc.

EXHIBIT C

PROFICIENCY EXAMINATIONS

Tompkins-Cortland Community College

PROFICIENCY EXAM
ORIENTATION TO HUMAN SERVICES

Every community has a number of services designed to meet human needs. These human services include schools, hospitals, Senior Citizen centers, housing authorities, youth-serving agencies, etc. This is an examination that will give you an opportunity to show how much of the content of the course above you may have learned through 1) living in the community, 2) working in a human service agency, and 3) taking part in in-service training. Don't feel you have to answer every part of every question. For some of the questions there is no single correct answer, so you can say what you think without worrying about whether it is right or wrong. In order to pass the test you must answer every question.

For persons who have not had a great deal of experience with human services, or for those who wish to brush up on what they already know, it is a good idea to take the exam before enrolling in the course. This helps the instructor to know what things the students already know, and what things ought to be covered in the course. It also helps the students know what is expected if they want to take the test again.

Answers to the questions are to be written in the space provided. If you wish to tape record the answers make arrangement with the examiner.

Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Address: _____ Telephone: _____

Present Employment: _____

Courses (if any) you have taken at Tompkins-Cortland Community College:

Your previous experience with human services:

a) As a paid person

b) As a volunteer

Tompkins-Cortland Community College
175 Main Street
Groton, New York 13073

1. Every person at some time in his life has need for human services. For example, young children need care when their mothers must leave them. From your experience, describe briefly at least ten (10) different situations in which persons may need different kinds of help. Identify their needs as specifically as you can.

Example: Mother is returning to work. Her young child needs love, care, sense of security, guidance in development while the mother is at work. Mother needs assurance that her child is receiving this care.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

11.

12.

13.

14.

The following is a list of human service agencies that may be found in many communities. After each agency you recognize, list the most important programs or services that it provides. The number in parenthesis after the name of the agency indicates the minimum number of services required to answer the question acceptable. If you are not familiar with some of these agencies, skip them and move to those you do know. (For purposes of this question it is not necessary to consider how well a service is provided.)

Agency	Services Provided
(Example: YMCA	Classes for youth and adults (educational), swimming, gym, etc. (recreational), and rooms for single adults (housing)
1. Senior Citizens Center (1)	1. _____
2. County Health Department (3)	2. _____
3. Department of Social Services (3)	3. _____
4. Cooperative Extension Assoc. (2)	4. _____
5. Legal Aid (1)	5. _____
6. Alcoholics Anonymous (1)	6. _____
7. Head Start (3)	7. _____
8. School Guidance Counseling (2)	8. _____
9. Planned Parenthood (2)	9. _____
10. Family Court (2)	10. _____
11. Probation Department (2)	11. _____

12. Family & Children's Service (2) 12. _____

13. Visiting Nurses (1) 13. _____

14. Mental Health Service (2) 14. _____

15. N.Y.S. Employment Service (2) 15. _____

16. Red Cross (2) 16. _____

17. Veterans Counseling Service (2) 17. _____

18. Salvation Army (2) 18. _____

19. Draft Counseling Service (1) 19. _____

20. YMCA/YWCA (2) 20. _____

21. Social Security Administration (1) 21. _____

22. F.I.S.H. (1) 22. _____

23. Housing Authority (1) 23. _____

24. City Recreation Department (1) 24. _____

25. Board of Cooperative Educational Services (2) 25. _____

26. Community Action Agency (2) 26. _____

Select two human service agencies or programs with which you are familiar. (You may include an agency in which you have worked.) Describe each. Include the following information:

A.

1. name of agency

2. location of the agency and geographic area served

3. programs or services offered

4. eligibility requirements for each program (who can be served?)

5. where it gets its funding

6. contact person (name and title)

7. staffing pattern (who does what?)

8. does it make or take referrals? How?

9. approximate length of time it has existed

10. policy-making body (for example, Board of Directors) How is it selected?

11. how decisions are made in the agency (who decides what?)

III. B.

1. name of the agency

2. location of the agency and geographic area served

3. programs or services offered

4. eligibility requirements for each program (who can be served?)

5. where it gets its funding

6. contact person (name and title)

7. staffing pattern (who does what?)

8. does it make or take referrals? How?

9. approximate length of time it has existed

10. policy-making body (for example, Board of Directors) How is it selected?

11. how descisions are made in the agency (who decides what?)

Select two of the following problems. Answer the questions in the spaces provided. You may use a tape recorder or additional blank paper if you wish.

A. Assume that you are a school aide. The school principal asked you to visit a family in which the two elementary school children have not been coming to school for the last week. You find that the mother is in the hospital, and the grandmother is staying with the kids; she is very lame and unable to go out. The children have bought some groceries, but they have no more money in the house, and they are almost out of food. The grandmother wants the kids to stay home from school until they find out how the mother is going to be. (The father is dead.)

1. What are the needs for human services of the persons in this situation?

2. For each need you have identified, what source(s) of help would you suggest? Why is each an appropriate source?

3. How would the persons in this situation go about getting help from the sources you suggest?

B. You are a family day care mother, under a permit from the Department of Social Services. One of the children you care for, Richard, attends afternoon kindergarten. He is an only child; both parents work. You seldom talk with them because they let him out of the car before breakfast and wait for him to come out when you are fixing supper. For the last two weeks Richard has not wanted to go to school, but says he feels OK. After he has played with your other children for a while, he seems happy again. He has always been a happy, active, bright child since he started coming to your home at the age of two. Today, however, you received a call from the school principal asking you to have the child's parents make an appointment to talk with the teacher about Richard's problems in school.

1. What are the needs for human services of the persons in this situation?

2. For each need you have identified, what source(s) of help would you suggest? Why is each an appropriate source?

3. How would the persons in this situation go about getting help from the sources you suggest?

You are a neighborhood worker for a community action agency. Today you called on a family that recently moved into your area. You find that the family consists of an older woman whose husband died two weeks ago, just after they moved, and a retarded son. The woman desperately needs income but hasn't worked for twenty-five years since her son was born. She doesn't feel she can leave him and doesn't know where to turn for help.

1. What are the needs for human services of the persons in this situation?

2. For each need you have identified, what source(s) of help would you suggest? Why is each an appropriate source?

3. How would the persons in this situation go about getting help from the sources you suggest?

TOMPKINS-CORTLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE
175 Main Street
Groton, New York 13073

Proficiency Exam - HUMS 125: Developmental Child Care I

Name _____ Date _____

Address _____ Telephone _____

_____

Background information:

Do you have children? If so, what are their ages?

What experience have you had working with children? (Include volunteer work and informal experience as well as paid employment.)

What training (courses, parent interest groups, staff meetings, child study groups, etc.) have you had related to child care or child development?

This proficiency exam consists of 3 sections. The sections and the percentage(%) of credit that they represent in this exam is as follows:

I.	Caretaking skills	40%
II.	Play equipment and experience	50%
III.	Human service skills	10%

This proficiency examination has been constructed to cover the kind of knowledge that will make up the course content of HUMS 125: Developmental Child Care. Some of you may already have learned much of what is contained in the course through your own experience in working with children

(1) as parents

(2) as workers or volunteers in programs for young children and/or

(3) through training or educational experiences having to do with early childhood.

For those persons who have not had extensive experience with young children, or for those who wish to brush up on what they already know, it is a good idea to take the exam before enrolling in the course. This helps the instructor know what things the students already know and what things need to be emphasized in the course. It also helps the students know what is expected if they want to take the test again.

In order to pass this test it is necessary to demonstrate mastery of the content. THEREFORE IT IS BEST TO ANSWER EVERY QUESTION. HOWEVER, IF YOU DO COME TO A QUESTION YOU CANNOT ANSWER DO NOT WASTE TIME ON IT, BUT GO ON TO THE NEXT QUESTION. Many people make mistakes on tests because they do not take time to read the question carefully. <u>So be sure to read each question very carefully before you answer it</u>.

HUMS 125 - Developmental Child Care I

Section I: Caretaking Skills

Children of different ages usually have somewhat different needs regarding their food, rest and play. Imagine that you are caring for a 10 month old infant, a 2 year old child and a 5 year old child for a period of 24 hours.

Fill in the outline below to show the routine you would follow for each child. Answer the questions on the left hand side of the page. Use the three columns which are divided to show your answers for each child.

A. Feedings:	10 month old	2 year old	5 year old
1. When would you feed?			
2. What are 2 things you might do if the child refused to eat? (Give different answers for each age.)			
3. What are 2 reasons he might refuse to eat? (Give different reasons for each age.)			

4. Which kinds of foods would you be sure to include in a child's diet?

5. Which kinds of foods would you avoid or limit in a child's diet? Why would you avoid or limit these particular foods?

B. Sleep and Exercise:	10 month old	2 year old	5 year old
1. What is the child's routine for sleep or rest likely to be?			
2. What are 2 ways in which you could arrange the surroundings to help be sure that his sleep needs are met?			
3. What are 2 things you might do if he refused to sleep? (Give different answers for each age.)			
4. What are 2 reasons he might not go to sleep? (Give different answers for each age.)			
5. What kinds of opportunities for exercise does a child need at each age?			
6. How would you provide these kinds of opportunities?			

C. Emotions:	10 month old	2 year old	5 year old
1. Name at least 2 different reasons that may cause him to cry? (Give different reasons for each age.)			
2. Name 2 or more ways you let him know you care about him. (Give different answers for each age.)			
3. How can you get him to trust you? (Give different answers for each age.)			
4. Name at least 3 ways you show approval of him.			
5. What are 2 specific things you can do to encourage him to develop independence at each age?			

D. Health and Safety

Each of the following situations could happen to a young child. If you were in charge what would you do? Place a check to indicate your answer.

	Emergency situation: Would require reaching the doctor immediately	Would watch child carefully and call parents or doctor if condition gets worse or if other symptoms develop	Would take care of situation myself and/or discuss with parents of child when they pick him up
1. Child is bitten by a dog. Skin is broken			
2. Child is coughing No other symptoms.			
3. Child swallows a small sharp object.			
4. Child seems cranky.			
5. Child wakes up with a high fever.			
6. Child has a running nose.			
7. Child falls and scrapes knee.			
8. Child drinks some household bleach.			
9. Child eats some unidentified berries off a bush.			
10. Child complains of tummyache and refuses his lunch.			

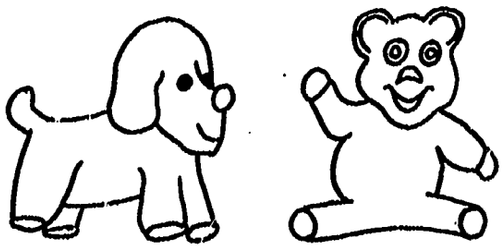
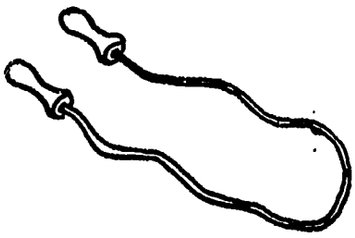
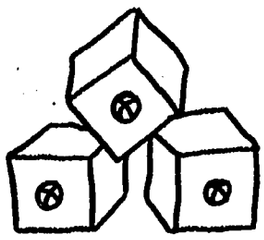
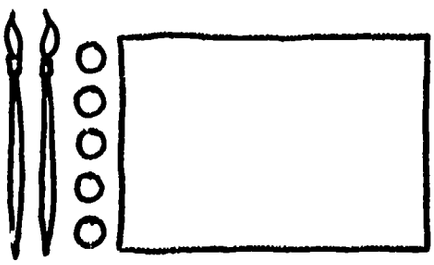
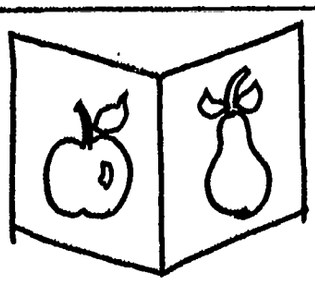
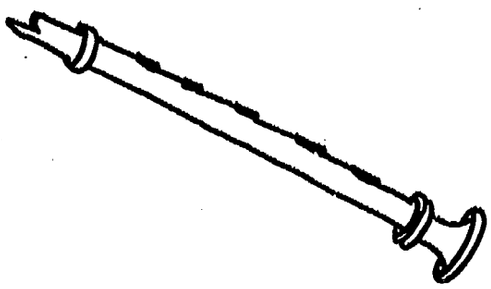
E. Protection and Safety

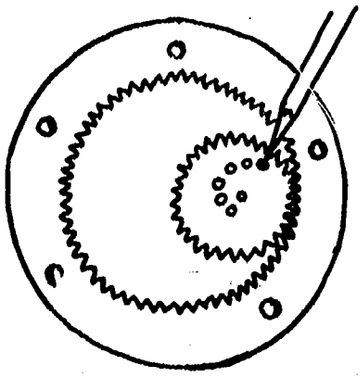
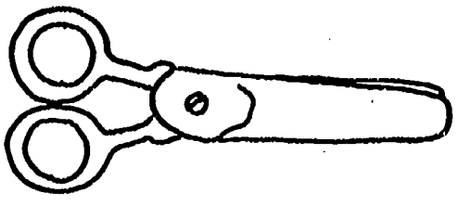
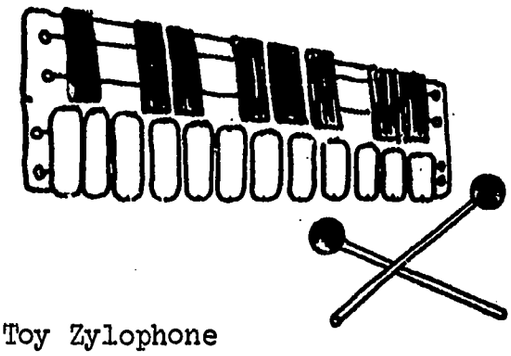
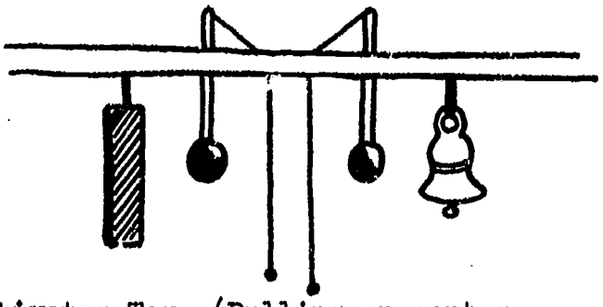
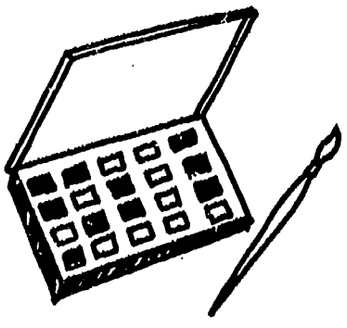
1. What are 3 hazards to young children that might be found in the home? Why is each one a hazard? How can each one by avoided?

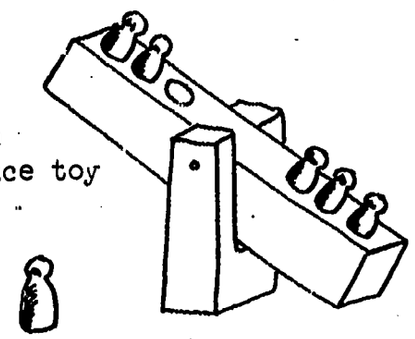
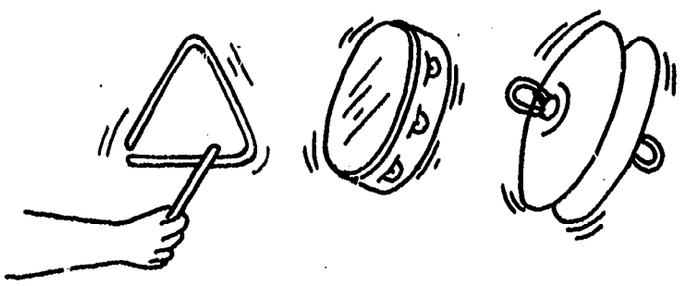
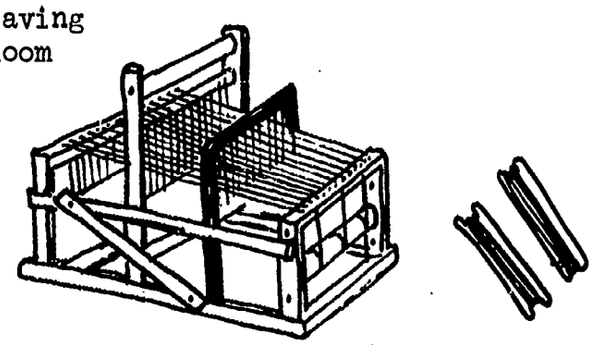
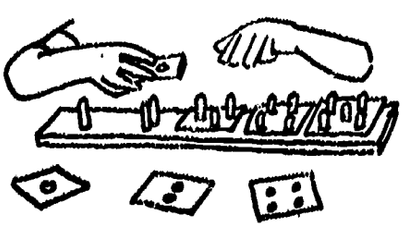
2. What are 3 hazards to young children that might be found in a nursery school or day care center? Why is each one a hazard? How can each one be avoided? (Use different examples from those in home. Try to include at least one that is more apt to be found in a group care situation than in a home.)

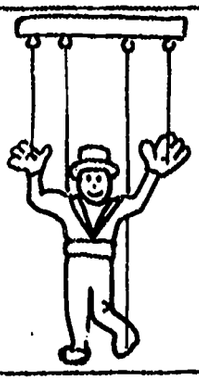
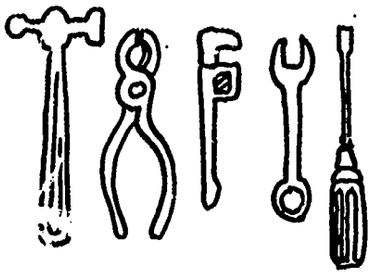
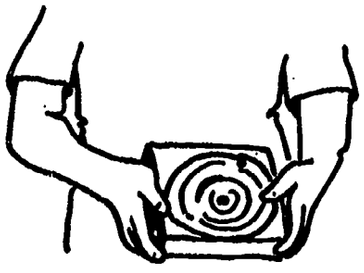
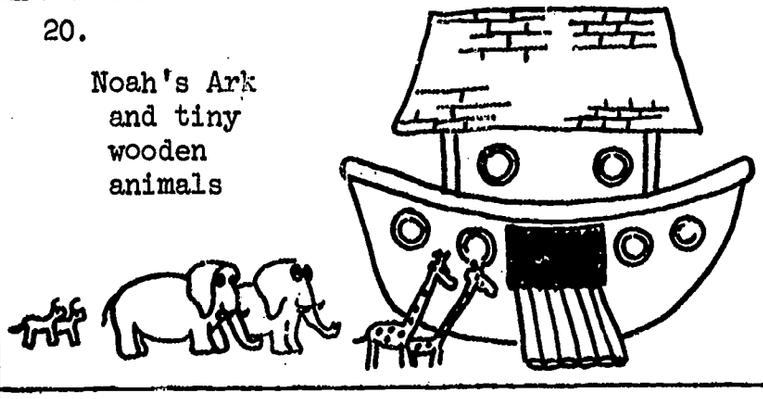
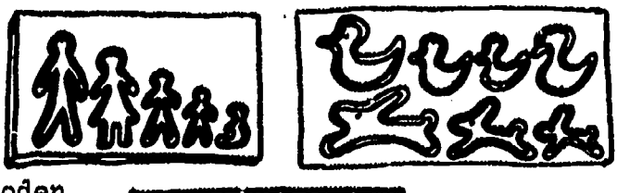
Section II. Play equipment and experiences

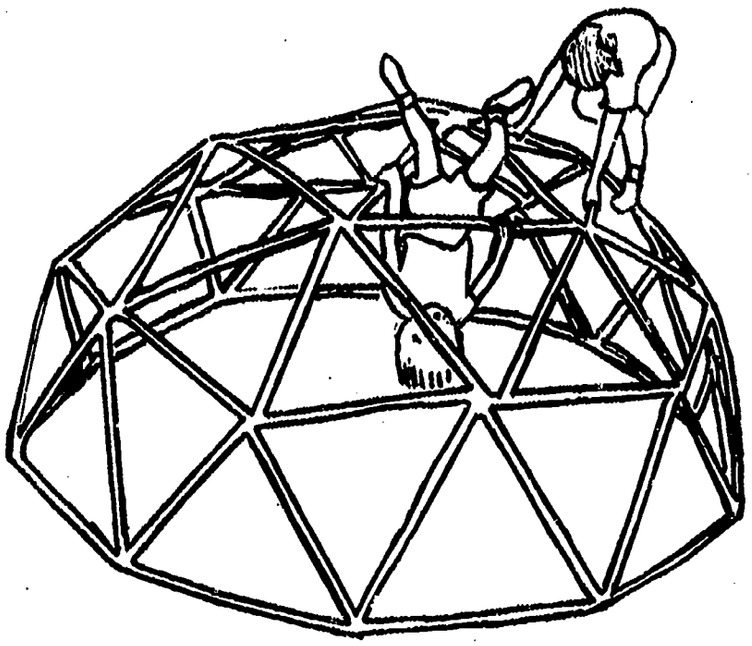
A. Examine the toys and equipment in the pictures. For each circle the stage for which it seems to be most appropriate.
Tell in what way or ways playing with it at that stage contributes to a child's development.

	Stage	How it helps child to develop
1. Stuffed toy animals 	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
2.  Jump Rope	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
3.  Bell Blocks	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
4.  Tempera paints Long brushes Large paper	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
5.  First picture book	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
6.  order	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	

	Stage	How it helps child to develo
7. Spiralograph (set of colored pens and gears for making geometric designs) 	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
8.  Child sized scissors	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
9.  Pull Toy Zylophone	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
10.  Activator Toy (Pulling on center cords causes wooden balls to strike bell and block.)	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
11.  Watercolor paints	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	

	Stage	How it helps child to develop
12.  Motion balance toy	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
13.  Rhythm band instruments	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
14.  Hand Puppets	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
15. Weaving loom 	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
16. Number sorter 	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	

	Stage	How it helps child to develo
17.  Marionette	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
18.  Small tool set	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
19.  Hand manipulated marble maze	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
20. Noah's Ark and tiny wooden animals 	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
21.  Kaleidoscope	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	
22.  Wooden fit-in puzzles	a. Infant b. Toddler c. Pre Schooler d. Kindergartener e. Elementary school child	

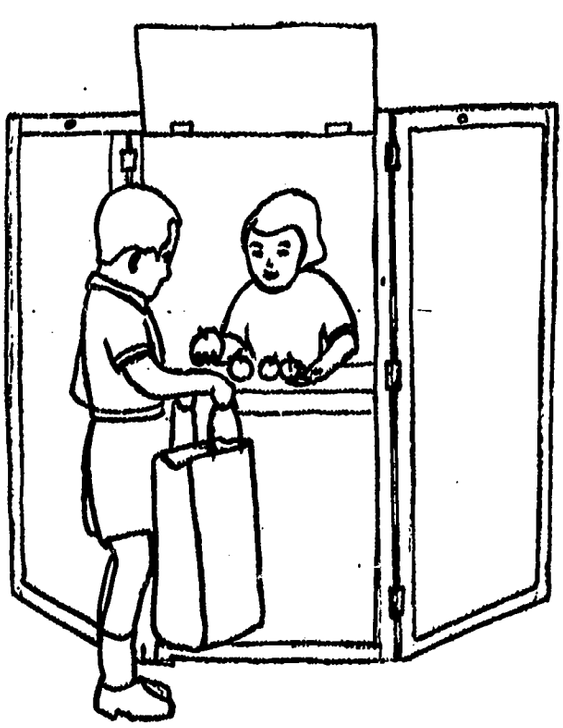


B. 1. In what ways does climbing on this jungle gym contribute to children's development?

In what other ways might children use this equipment?

B.

2. What are these children doing?

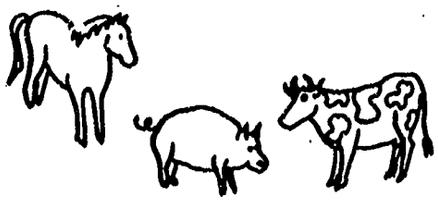


What would you do to add interest to this activity if they began to tire of it?

What are some different kinds of games they could play using this piece of equipment? (List or describe as many ways as you can think of.)

B.

3. If you were a caretaker of several children about 2 years old, what are two (2) ways that you might use these rubber farm animals so that the children would learn and have fun?



What are 2 <u>other</u> ways you would use these animals if the children were 3 to 5 years?

C. If you were going to "start from scratch" to set up a program to care for infants what basic equipment or toys would you select? (List 5 or more)

If you were setting up a program for toddlers what would you select? (List 5 or more)

If you were setting up a program for pre-schoolers what would you choose? (List 5 or more)

D. If you were caring for a group of 5 children, ages 1 to 5 years, what are all the things you might do to arrange an afternoon snack so that the experience would contribute to the social and emotional development of the children? Indicate <u>why</u> the things you do would help accomplish this.

E. Select one of the following experiences and explain how you would arrange it so that it would be both enjoyable and educational for a three year old:

1. A walk around the block (if in the city), or down the road (if in the country).
2. Buying groceries at the supermarket.
3. Going to the post office to buy stamps.

F. Make a list of 8 different outings that you could plan for a group of 4 year olds to places in the community or nearby areas. For example: a visit to the post office.

1. 5.
2. 6.
3. 7.
4. 8.

G. Name 6 or more ways in which water can be used in children's play.

1. 4.
2. 5.
3. 6.

H. What are 6 items found in an average household that can be put to use in young children's play?

1. 4.
2. 5.
3. 6.

Section III: Human Service Skills

A. If you spot a special problem regarding a child you care for what would you do about . . .

1. If the child seemed to be hard of hearing.

2. If the child seemed excessively aggressive
   a. for a short period of time (a day or two)
   b. a prolonged period of time

3. If the child seemed unusually withdrawn
   a. for a short period of time (a day or two)
   b. a prolonged period of time

4. If the child complained of a headache
   a. once in a while
   b. day after day

B.

1. What kinds of information should be obtained about any child entering care in a day care situation or nursery school?

2. What kinds of records should be kept during the period of time the child is in care?

C. If you had to refer each of the following families to a program for their particular needs what would you recommend? Circle the letter to indicate your answer in each case.

1. Divorced working mother with 2 children, ages 3 and 4, wants to keep children together - needs supplemental service, such as health, nutrition, etc.

   a. Family day care
   b. Day care center
   c. Nursery school

2. Mother of 4 year old, at home with 2 younger children, wants oldest child to have some social experience with age mates in a part-time program.

   a. Family day care
   b. Day care center
   c. Nursery school

3. Recently widowed father of 3 year old child, concerned that child gets substitute maternal figure in child care situation.

   a. Family day care
   b. Day care center
   c. Nursery school

D. Name 6 sources of information that you might use regarding the children you are caring for. (persons, written material, agencies, etc.)

EXHIBIT D

SUMMATIVE EVALUATIONS OF PRECEPTOR WORKSHOPS

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

"Workshop II: Team Functioning in Human Services," a training workshop for professionals who supervise paraprofessionals in human service agencies in Tompkins and Cortland Counties, New York; October 28, 1971, Dryden, New York.

Background

A continuing concern of the Human Service Training Project (HSTP) is the continuing education of professionals who supervise paraprofessionals. It is felt that supervising professionals are key factors in the effective utilization of paraprofessional personnel: they in large part determine organizational policy regarding hiring, training, and career development; they interpret, translate and pass along organizational policies to the aide; and they set the tone in the day to day work environment. Likewise, it seems likely that for many paraprofessionals to be able to enroll in a community college based program of training and education, the professionals who supervise them will need to provide personal support to the aide; will need to make changes in the organization, particularly in regard to incentives; and will need to adapt their own personal and professional behaviors to new staffing arrangements.

In addition, since the proposed Human Service curriculum assumes a strong and effective field work component, the supervisor in effect becomes a co-educator of the aide along with the community college instructor. Effective means of evaluating the field experience are vital to the proposed program, and it is felt that supervisors should play an important part in defining the key variables for such an evaluation. In particular, the Human Services Program currently under way at Tompkins-Cortland Community College is quick to acknowledge its dependence on these professionals for a definition of the kind of aide skills and behaviors which they would like the College to foster among its trainees. Workshop I, held in June of 1971, had served to open up this issue within the context of a larger, "exposure" type workshop, in anticipation of the Program to begin in the fall. The present workshop chose to focus on team functioning in human services. It was to be directed toward professionals serving as "preceptors" (supervisors) of aides currently enrolled in the first term of the Human Services Program. It was to provide training for preceptors and other supervising professionals, and it was to generate an operational definition of a successful team member which could be used by the College in its program development and evaluation.

Pre-planning

The present workshop was the second in a sequence of five such training opportunities to be offered in 1971-72; three major influences helped shape its design.

(1) The previous workshop had suggested that subsequent ones should probably be...

1. task specific: for example, a whole workshop on career development on financing, on in-service training methods, improved services, etc.;
2. limited in size: smaller groups might more effectively relate to each other as problem solving teams;
3. divided by concern/function: for example, for teachers, for Cooperative Extension agents, for social workers, etc.; and
4. mixed professional - paraprofessional: aides should probably be included directly and be given a chance to contribute to the training of professionals.

(2) The Advisory Committee for the Human Services Program had recommended that preceptor training workshops should facilitate communication between the program and the field sites. They stressed the need for:

1. a presentation of the conceptual framework for the course;
2. an explanation of teaching/learning methods employed in the classroom;
3. an opportunity for feedback from preceptors regarding the operating assumptions of the program; and
4. a chance to develop skills as a supervisor/teacher.

(3) A third influence was the HSTP's own need to establish criteria for evaluating the program. Foremost among HSTP concerns was operationalization of successful team-functioning. In short, they needed from the workshop registrants some indication of "what a success looks like".

This workshop, then, was to be more focused than the previous one, was to be an intensive learning experience for its target group (preceptors), and was to generate information essential to the evaluation of the Human Services Program by the HSTP. A location midway between the population centers of Tompkins and Cortland Counties was deemed desirable, and the session was scheduled for Thursday, October 28, from 11:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. in the church's community hall, and lunch was arranged in conjunction with a bazaar being held at an adjacent church. In contrast with the setting of the previous workshop, this session was to utilize a community facility, in a smaller town, in a more informal manner.

Letters of invitation were sent to preceptors and to agency directors. Those directors/principals who did not have aides enrolled in the program (and therefore did not have preceptors) were encouraged to attend themselves or to send a supervising professional to represent the agency. Fifty-three such invitations were mailed out the week of October 11. Each was accompanied by an announcement, with a return tear-sheet. Follow-up phone calls yielded an anticipated registration of thirty-five persons. Staff were to be Joan Wright and Frederick Peck.

Objectives

Objectives for the workshop included the following:

1) to increase awareness and understanding of the Human Services Program on the part of agency professionals:

2) to provide feedback to the HSTP in the form of reactions to the Human Services Program's content and methods;
3) to generate an operational definition of a "fully-functioning team member" in terms of goal facilitating/goal hindering behaviors;
4) to increase the goal setting/goal evaluating supervisory skills of the participants; and
5) to increase knowledge and communication among agencies in both counties.

Design and Execution

Translation of the above objectives into a six hour design resulted in a workshop with three major sections:

(1) "The Human Service Program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College,"
(2) "The Fully Functioning Team in Human Services," and
(3) "The Role of the Preceptor in Human Services."

The first section was scheduled to precede lunch; the remaining two followed lunch.

Wright and Peck began the workshop at 11:00 a.m. with acknowledgement of leaders and participants and explanation of the schedule. William Burmeister, Program Coordinator for the Human Services Program, then served as resource person for a dialogue/discussion. He elaborated the conceptual framework for the courses, emphasizing the "newness" of the program's approach and the problems and potentialities of clinically based, on-the-job experiential learning. There were many questions from participants who were not preceptors, and preceptors were able to offer feedback from their own experience. He expressed an openness towards the professionals present, pointing out that the program is designed to grow as new insights become available and that supervising professionals are key elements in the development of each of the courses as well as of the overall program. This dialogue/discussion lasted until 12:30, when the group adjourned for lunch.

Luncheon arrangements at a church next door allowed the participants to sit together and continue their discussions. Burmeister remained present as a resource person for the rest of the day.

The second major section dealt with team functioning in human service organizations. Wright introduced this section with a role facilitating/role hindering exercise. Individual participants, seated at tables of ten, were given an opportunity to reflect on those aspects of their roles as supervisors which facilitate or block the performance which they desire. Since this exercise was identical with one utilized with the paraprofessionals in their own training at the Community College, each participant was exposed to a typical teaching/learning device utilized with aides. Participants' responses were listed; the aides' responses were posted; and comparisons were made.

Wright then focused remarks on goal facilitating/goal hindering factors, emphasizing that training is an effort to nurture certain skills, attitudes, and behaviors which are deemed desirable. She pointed out the necessity of establishing some general "definitions of success" for the guidance of the Community College's Program, and she made it clear that this places the supervising professionals in a position of being "consultants" to the program. The task for the remainder of this second session was then set at pushing toward an eventual consensus regarding an operational definition of a fully-functioning team member.

Peck introduced an exercise in "defining success in behavioral terms." Utilizing an individual response form, participants completed two questions:

> "Reflecting on the behaviors of aides I have known...positive behaviors (which I would like to help nurture) are:...and negative behaviors (which I would like to help overcome) are..."

Participants then pooled their responses in small groups, sharing their own experiences and trying to isolate answers held in common. Remarks (Peck) were then made regarding criteria for making a general goal into an evaluative objective ("observable," "measurable," "relevant," and "generalizable"). Finally, each of the three groups was to fulfill its consultant role by shaping its members' various responses into a maximum of five goals for aides. Workshop leaders decided at this point not to try to force even greater consensus by trying to get the three groups' responses distilled into a single battery of goals.

At 3:00 participants took a coffee break.

At 3:20 the workshop began the third section of its design. Remarks (Peck) were made regarding the importance of developing individual goal-setting skills. It was pointed out that effective learning is self-directed learning and that self-directed learning requires the establishment of a baseline for growth. Aide-trainees are required to establish such baselines, and their supervisor's own role therefore becomes expanded to include that of facilitating this effort. It was pointed out that it is in the aide-supervisor transaction on the job that the aide and the supervisor are able realistically to assess where an aide "is at," and where it is that she wants to, and is able to, advance. Goal-setting then is a key part of on-going evaluation.

Supervisors then practiced goal-setting by listing on an individual form their own learning goals for the "semester". They were in effect simulating the exercise required of all trainees in the Human Services Program. The participants then arranged themselves in triads. One member of the triad was designated the "helpee"; the helpee was the person in need of assistance in making explicit his learning goals for the semester. A second person was the "helper," whose role corresponded to that of a supervisor trying to assist a subordinate (or in this case, a coordinate) to work through his own goals. The third person was process observer. The two triad members interacted for a period of time, were then given observations by the third member and then again continued practicing the helper-helpee interaction.

The third section of the workshop concluded with a case study on the evaluation of an aide. Here emphasis moved from goal setting to the evaluation of goal directed progress. Groups were invited to utilize the actual Student Performance Inventory used by preceptors and aide-trainees in the Human Services Program. Meeting in small groups of ten, participants were given an opportunity to share their own experiences by elaborating the case study, pointing out the contingencies and designing a role play to illustrate what the actual evaluation session might look like. Each of three groups presented its role play and received comments from the larger group.

The third section of the workshop was concluded by 4:30. Evaluation forms were distributed to the participants. The entire workshop was adjourned by 4:50. Twenty-six persons had received approximately six hours of instruction. Total staff time amounted to approximately twenty-five hours for design and execution of the training workshop. The entire session was held in the large community hall of the United Methodist Church in Dryden, New York.

Findings and Conclusions

The evaluation form filled out by participants at the close of the workshop yielded the following information:

rating:	++ =	4
	+ =	11
	± =	3
	- +	0
	-- =	0
		18

Note: Eight of the participants had to leave prior to the evaluation

Given the opportunity to comment on what they "liked most" and "liked least" about the workshop, participants generally had many more positive comments (36) than negative ones (10). Consistent with HSTP findings from previous settings the greatest comment (12) came from persons who appreciated the chance to meet with other persons in other agencies. There seems to be a built-in success factor that accrues to anyone or anything that serves to break down interagency isolation; that gets persons into contact with like-minded professionals; and that expands a professional's perceptions of community-wide human services. The second largest number of positive comments (9) touched on a related area: the highly participatory methods used throughout the workshop. Those training methods that brought persons face to face were by far considered the most helpful.

In addition several (3) persons commented on the relevance of the material covered. Ten persons considered various exercises within the design (helper-helpee; role playing; evaluating an aide; goal setting; discussion with Burmeister; etc.) to be valuable. General comments seemed to indicate that the value of these elements lay in their facilitating learning from and with peers. It may be concluded that the success of the HSTP's training efforts is contingent upon its ability to provide settings that encourage persons to work on their own agendas - agendas that they have worked up by their own day to day functioning in supervisory roles.

Each one of the negative comments dealt with an aspect of the design: too rushed (1), too long (2), too tiring (1), too artificial (1), etc. In addition one person felt that the leaders had "put down" some of the participants, although the commentor did not specify where or when.

The leaders sensed increasing fatigue on the part of the participants as the day proceeded. It was apparent that the highly participatory nature of the design meant very simply that each participant had to work hard to derive the most from the workshop. It should be pointed out that the number of participants present at the conclusion of the day was eighteen, compared to the twenty-six present at the outset. Several had to leave for other appointments but it seems likely that a few used the 3:00 coffee break as a chance to avoid the final section. The comments of these eight persons were not represented in the final evaluation, of course. It was the decision of the leaders to make the workshop a rigorous one, rather than a simple "exposure to the issues;" most persons worked very hard throughout the day.

The first section of the workshop seemed to give participants an opportunity to find out as much as they wanted to know about the Human Services Program. As a large group discussion it probably lessened participation; and lasting from 11:00 until lunch it started the participants out in a rather passive posture. Most of the discussion was in the form of questions directed at Burmeister, which he answered; there was little interaction among participants. The objective (#1) of increasing awareness and understanding of the Human Services Program seems to have been adequately met, and the Program Coordinator's exposure throughout the rest of the day gave everyone an opportunity to get to know him in a more informal way. Most questions in this period related to the content of the courses; the relationship of content to work; and the implications of training for salaries, available jobs, etc. Preceptors expressed enthusiasm for the program, as well as some anxiety regarding the issue of "over-training" for present reponsibilities.

This section seems to have made a major contribution to the accomplishment of the workshop's first two objectives - to increase awareness and understanding of Human Services Program, and to provide feedback from the agencies.

Lunch next door was inexpensive ($1.00) and informal. Because of the good weather persons were able to walk and talk together out of doors; and because of the seating arrangements the discussions seemed to continue throughout the meal.

The section on the fully functioning team member gave participants an opportunity to reflect on their own work situation. Utilizing the role facilitating/role hindering form they were able to catalogue major factors that influence their own roles as supervisors. These included the following:

facilitating:

1. quality of supervision by super-ordinates;
2. amount and quality of communication among staff (up and down);
3. full access to policy-making mechanisms;
4. unthreatened peers;
5. morale ("esprit de corps");
6. general community support for work of agency;
7. small size of staff ("workable organization");
8. autonomy as a professional;
9. adequate budget;
10. flexible guidelines for interpretation of role.

hindering:

1. too many responsibilities/not enough time;
2. personal problems of staff members;
3. lack of accountability ("own boss");
4. inflexible guidelines;
5. meetings ("for maintenance only");
6. decision-making without adequate information;
7. paraprofessionals' lack of confidence

Most participants saw the opposite of each facilitating factor as a hindering factor, and vice-versa. However, listing both kinds of factors did seem to bring to the surface some general indications of what constitutes a supportive work environment for a supervisor - and likewise it indicated that some of the professional present feel that they work in such an environment and some don't.

Since the above exercise replicated one that Human Services Program trainees had filled out describing their own roles, the aides' responses were posted for comparison. Their responses included the following:

facilitating:

1. supervisors: interested and supporting;
2. freedom: to work as wish;
3. cooperation: of co-workers;
4. training: in-service

hindering:

1. reports: writing/time;
2. distance: between persons (social);
3. time: "work time" does not necessarily correspond with "people time";
4. meetings.

It seems apparent that many of the factors that help a person fulfill his role in an organization - and many that get in the way - act upon paraprofessional and professional alike. If the major impact on supervisor and aide alike is the individual's interaction with the organization, it may be safe to say that professionals' and paraprofessionals' work lives are in many ways much alike: filled with meetings, guidelines (flexible or inflexible), budgets, co-workers, and time binds. What may be the most significant difference is that the paraprofessional continually names her supervisor as the key factor in her work role. It is likewise significant that almost always the supervisor is named as a "facilitative" factor.

It is this function of the supervisor as a "significant other" that makes the supervisor critical to efforts to train aides. The next phase of this section forced supervisors to enumerate those behaviors of paraprofessionals which they consider positive and those which they consider negative. The information which they listed on the "Goal Facilitating/Goal Hindering Behaviors" forms eventually emerged from the consensus-building process. However, the effort to push anecdotal responses into more general terms may have lost for the HSTP some valuable and specific input regarding supervisors' attitudes toward aides. For example, one end result of the effort to reach consensus was the goal of "cooperation with fellow workers." Earlier in the afternoon the statement had been made that some aides, "...are so concerned with outdoing each other that they forget the task for which they have been hired, which is caring for children." Somehow the earlier statement seems more valuable for planning and evaluating a training program than does the later, more distilled, version.

With the above-mentioned comment regarding this distillation process, it appears that supervising professionals want the Community College to help them develop a paraprofessional who...

1. regarding the aide and the agency/school...
   - is able to relate her own personal goals to those of the agency;
   - accepts the agency's ethical standards (confidence, trustworthiness, etc.);
   - can accomplish tasks on time, without continual prodding from supervisor;
   - communicates and cooperates with fellow workers (superordinate, subordinate and coordinate);
   - is clear about her role (function and status) within the organizational hierarchy;

2. regarding the aide and the client group...
   - accurately assesses needs;
   - helps the client accept the agency;
   - is comfortable with persons of different cultures/life styles;
   - can change the behaviors of clients in the direction advocated by the agency;

3. regarding the aide herself...
   - sees her job as an opportunity for personal growth (chance to improve skills/to advance in career);
   - evaluates herself realistically and critically;
   - has confidence and self-esteem.

The third and final section, devoted to skill development for perceptors, provided an opportunity for participants to set goals, help each other set goals, and make observations of the goal setting process. It was the most pointed effort to date of the HSTP to introduce training into the domain of the aide-supervisor interaction. Because of its triad arrangement it generated "private" information which stayed within the groups of three. If the previously mentioned assertion about the importance of the supervisor is true, then the supervisor's skill in helping an aide set goals - and helping the aide evaluate progress toward these goals - is an essential part of the aide's competent functioning on the job. The exercise generated intense activity among participants and seems to suggest that a subsequent workshop should deal with interactional skills in depth. It might also include paraprofessionals as participants, as recommended at a previous workshop.

Role playing of the case study of evaluating an aide emphasized that the basis of an effective evaluation conference is an adult transaction between supervisor and aide. Timidity, dependence, or deviousness on the part of either person renders this important effort ineffectual. Previously elaborated goals and a shared agenda are essential to effective interaction.

Most of the elaborated objectives of the workshop seem to have been met. Agencies got to know each other better; a definition of a fully functioning human service team member was explored and agreed upon; and participants had a chance to improve their supervisory skills. Workshop II seems to have been a successful extension of the overall training design of the Human Service Training Project.

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New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

"Workshop III: Roles and Role Expectations": a training workshop for human service professionals who supervise paraprofessional personnel, January 20, 1972, Dryden, New York.

PRE-PLANNING

The present workshop was the third in a series of five such training opportunities to be offered by the Human Service Training Project in 1971-72. It was shaped by the Project's desire to explore in greater depth the dilemmas that confront supervisors, and to provide a setting in which supervisors could listen to - and learn from - each other, and from the aides with whom they work.

Unlike previous workshops this one was less of a data-gathering device than a simple effort to build upon the trust that had grown up between the HSTP and community professionals. It was to be a low-key, sharing opportunity, with a minimum of task direction and a maximum of participant-directed exploration. HSTP staff would work closely with individual groups throughout the day. The notion of "rights and duties", central to role theory, was to be presented as a backdrop for discussion.

Arrangements were made for Workshop III to be held at the United Methodist Church of Dryden, midway between the population centers of Tompkins and Cortland counties - a location somewhat removed from the daily work environments of most participants. It was scheduled for Thursday, January 20th, from 11:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. in the church's community hall; lunch was catered by a local church's women's group.

Announcements with a return tear-sheet were sent to preceptors and to agency directors. Included was a task assignment form to be completed before the session. This preliminary task was to get participants focused on the job descriptions aides work under, and on the operations aides in fact perform. It involved finding/composing a job description, and then observing for a day the activities performed by the person (aide) holding that position.

OBJECTIVES

Objectives for the workshop included...

1. to give supervisors a chance to examine and articulate what they expect from aides;
2. to give both supervisors and aides an opportunity to examine and articulate what aides expect of supervisors;
3. to structure interaction between supervisors and aides so that dialogue between the two groups might be initiated;
4. to increase communication among the agencies from both counties; and
5. to provide information regarding the Human Service Program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College, and gain feedback regarding the program from preceptors.

DESIGN AND EXECUTION

The above objectives were translated into a one day, five hour long training workshop; it had two major sections and a third optional one:

1. "Duties: What can Supervisors Expect of Aides?";
2. "Rights: What Can Aides Expect of Supervisors?"; and
3. "Feedback on the Human Service Program at TC3".

The first section preceded lunch, which was at 12:30. The second ran from lunch until 3:00. The third section was for the benefit of those persons who wished to stay beyond 3:00.

The execution of the session is detailed in the attached "Summary". A major conclusion from the design is that the opportunity to deal with only one or two "tasks" was greatly appreciated by participants. It also generated a great deal of discussion, and gave everyone present a chance to delve more deeply into key issues. Previous, more frenetic, designs kept many issues before participants, but seemed to hit at major problems only at a superficial level. The present workshop also gave HSTP staff a longer time period to develop relationships with each of the groups. Participants were able to ask questions of staff. Finally, it seems that having fewer questions in mind beforehand seemed to allow more of the questions "buried" in the group to emerge.

An evaluation form administered at the conclusion of the day's activities produced the following crude ratings:

++	= 12
+	= 9
±	= 0
-	= 0
--	= 0

In general participants found the experience a worthwhile one. They most appreciated the discussion between professionals and paraprofessionals (8); as well as the freedom to speak out in a small group of colleagues (8); and the chance to share ideas and to hear the experiences of others (6). The convenience of lunch on-site together, the choice of topics, and increased HSTP staff involvement were noted favorably.

Participants liked least that working in small groups at times seemed tedious. They felt they missed what other groups were coming up with. More importantly, they asked specifically for further aide involvement.

Future sessions, then, might take as their central concern communication between aide and supervisor. They could include equal numbers of both paraprofessionals and professionals, including participants who work on the same staff team back home. They could also explore the nature of the trust relationship between the two groups by working out common solutions to problems presented in concrete case studies. In doing so they might push toward a more adequate definition of the boundaries between professional and paraprofessional. A small handpicked group of participants might best achieve these results, providing information that would be unavailable in a larger final workshop.

Twenty-two persons received five hours of directed learning activity. The goals of the session were achieved, and future direction emerged from the session. Additional conclusions are recorded in the "Summary".

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To: Participants, "Workshop III: Roles and Role Expectations," Dryden, New York, January 20, 1972; and other interested persons

From: Joan Wright, Human Service Training Project

Re: Summary of Workshop III

Our "summary" is just a chance for us to note some of the main points we feel emerged from a full day of activity and discussion: you may want to amend these by adding some points of your own.

RATIONALE FOR THE WORKSHOP

Since it began two years ago, the Human Service Training Project has included among its component tasks that of providing continuing education for the professionals who supervise paraprofessionals in various human service agencies in Cortland and Tompkins Counties. It is felt that supervisors should be aware of all aspects of the Community College's own efforts to provide training for aides, and should have maximum opportunity to participate in the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of the emerging Human Service Program at Tompkins-Cortland Community College (TC3).

Continuing education for professionals is based upon an assumption of professional dominance in the human services. In most agencies professionals determine policy regarding hiring, training, and career development; likewise they interpret, translate and pass along such policies to the aides, setting the tone in the day to day work environment.

In particular supervisors play a big part in defining the roles of aides, by developing job descriptions, assigning tasks and carrying out evaluation. As they define aide roles, so also are their own roles altered and re-defined at the same time. The recent workshop was an effort to explore the complementarity of this role definition process by bringing together professionals and paraprofessionals from a number of organizations.

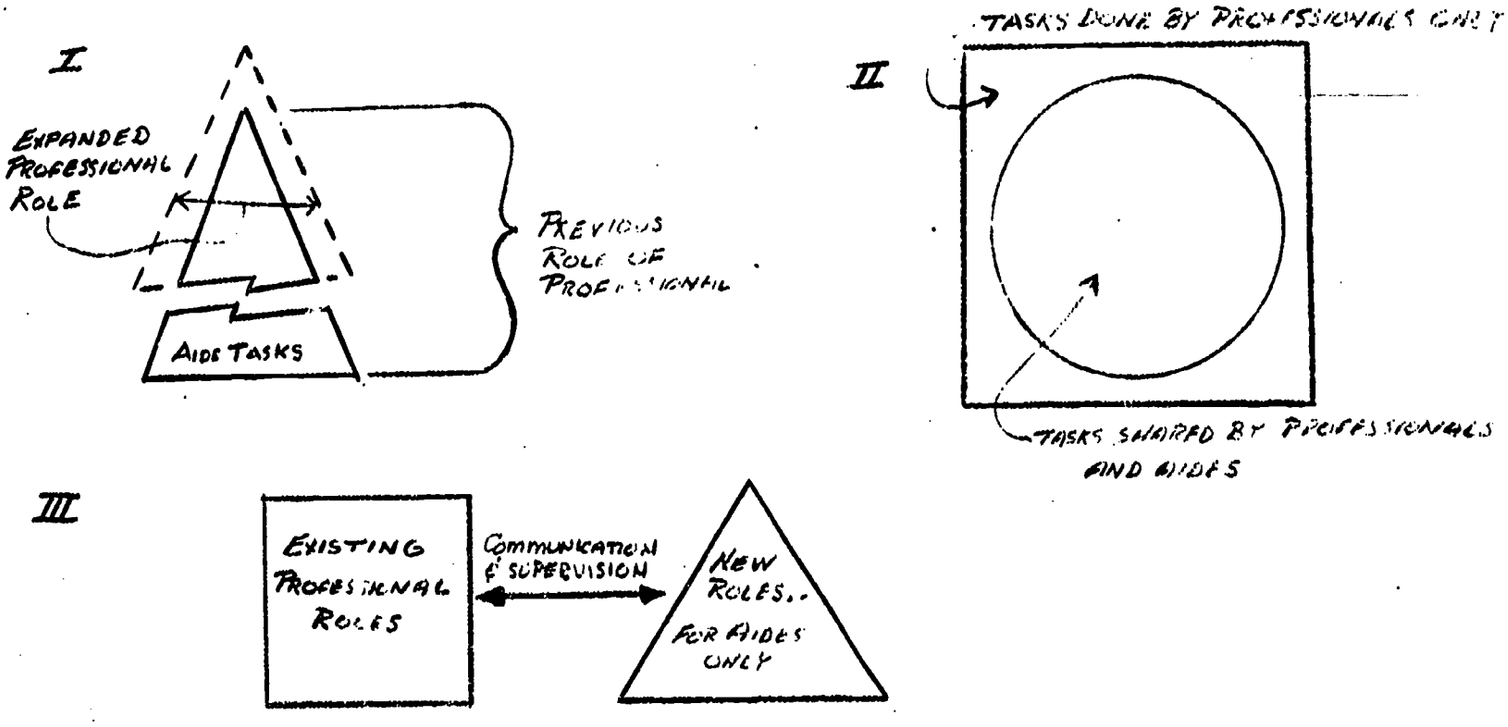
SUMMARY OF THE WORKSHOP

I. Duties: What Can Supervisors Expect of Aides?

The morning session was devoted to those aspects of the aide-supervisor relationship in which the supervisor initiates activities that shape the aide role. HSTP staff presented the notion of "duties and rights" as a backdrop for discussion. Three basic models for utilizing aides were presented, and it was suggested that each one serves to define aide duties in a different way. The first portrays aide as performing low level tasks to free the professional to carry out tasks for which he has been trained. Its goal is to increase the amount of service, but not necessarily to change content of that service.

The second model portrays the aide as a coworker who is able to perform some of the tasks previously within the professional domain, due to the presence of a trained supervisor. Again the goal is more of the same service. The third model portrays the aide performing tasks new to the organization, but within its overall mission. Here the goal is new service.

The process of defining aide duties was shown to include 1) describing a problem, 2) identifying an agency function to meet that problem, 3) establishing a position to fulfill that function, 4) describing the tasks to be performed by the person in that position, and 5) recruiting a person for the job. Original job definitions were seen as projections; it was stated that they needed updating so that evaluation would be on the basis of relating aide duties to functions, rather than aide duties to job descriptions. "Supervisor distance" was seen as critical to such evaluation.



Working in small groups participants focused on aide duties by sharing the job descriptions/task observations they had brought. Several generalizations seemed to emerge: Most model 1 aides have no formal job descriptions. Many also are supervised by several persons. Aides in these positions have high autonomy in that tasks are "given over" to them. This high autonomy is maintained in spite of very close propinquity i.e. it is possible to be very close to the aide all day and not really know what she is doing. This model exhibits flexibility in the aide role, but can also result in misunderstandings. Aide tasks are routinized; supervisor attention is elsewhere.

Few examples of model 2 seemed represented among participants. There seems little sharing of tasks within the professional domain, except when aide slots are filled by pre-professionals (college students, etc.) or by professionals operating at a level lower than their preparation would imply. One exception is in the Head Start program, where teachers and aides share a wide range of tasks.

Model 3 was seen as linked to problems of new program development. Job descriptions are shaped to fit national guidelines (which may or may not fit locally) in order to secure funding. Aide duties reflect their own definition of the functions they are to perform; updated job descriptions emerge over time.

In general there seemed to be a blurring of all three models. Job descriptions seemed to be of help in assisting aides to carve out roles for themselves. Distance is a real problem for the supervisor. He has a difficult time arranging systematic observation and evaluation of aides. Attempts to close distance can create other difficulties (involvement in aides' personal problems, etc.). There seems to be some ambiguity as to whether it is important to be able to perform all tasks the aide must perform, or whether it is more important to function as a skilled manager of human resources. In the latter case it was generally felt that the supervisor runs the risk of losing touch with problems "out in the field".

One group discussed present movement toward organization of aides. Most felt this will come about, and will have an impact on the role and duties of aides throughout the human services.

II. Rights: What Can Aides Expect from Supervisors?

Remarks by HSTP staff in the afternoon session highlighted the concept of "reciprocity". They emphasized that the elaboration of aide duties implies that aides play an important part in the operation of the organizations that employ them. And this fact establishes that the presence of aides makes legitimate demands on supervisors. HSTP findings regarding what aides expect of their superviors has been very general. Their findings have confirmed, however, that the supervisor is probably the most important person in the work life of the aide. The afternoon session was to push toward a better understanding of what aides expect. Aides were included as participants to assist in this effort.

One group centered its discussion on supervisor behaviors. It offered arguments for and against close personal relationships with aides, but consensus seemed to be reached on the issue of "revealing one's self" to aides: until the aide has knowledge of her supervisor as a person (vulnerabilities and all) she is liable to be untrusting or intimidated. One aide said she was unable to perform effectively with her supervisor until she saw the supervisor as "a human being, instead of someone in a private office.")

Achieving these ends requires explicit efforts toward operationalization within an organization. These efforts include:

1. setting aside special times for orienting aides to the goals of the organization, and for re-assessing the goals of the organization in the light of aides' observations;
2. stating roles in writing whenever possible, and updating these documents regularly;
3. setting aside regular blocks of time for joint planning with aides; and
4. going into the field with aides periodically.

It seemed apparent from the discussion that aides expect professionals to take an active part in career development. Participants felt that this put aide and supervisor alike up against the problems of credentialing. Both agreed that credentialing itself should not be a basis for higher pay, but that career advancement should be linked to increasing responsibility of aides. (Aides were quick to point out that this is not the way that professionals' careers are developed - that in fact credentialing, longevity, etc. play a major part in pay raises for professionals.)

Some participants noted the case of receiving particular aides through funds from other organizations. These persons have talents to offer - particularly in the case of university students in their field experience - but the organization must adjust to them rather than the other way around. Volunteer organizations often face the same kind of situation. In their cases they receive "personnel" more often than they create "positions".

Behind the credentialing question lay the immediate question of why take courses at TCI. It was agreed that involvement in education raises expectations all around. Supervisors expect better performance, and aides expect more responsibility/higher pay. The "little knowledge is a dangerous thing" syndrome seems to fluctuate with the labor market. Also, the surplus of professionals can be an increased threat to paraprofessionals when "worth" becomes equated with "education."

It was felt that because aide's roles are only in the process of developing, their decision-making responsibility places large responsibilities on their supervisors. That is, aides are confronted by situations calling for decision when no precedent is at hand. Therefore they need to be backed up in their decisions. Moreover, they could help in analyzing decisions for generalizability, and they need assistance in anticipating future decision situations.

Almost all of the "rights" of aides could be summed up in the following three attributes of an effective supervisor:

1. accessibility to supervisees
2. capability for listening
3. genuine appreciation for the work others do.

It seemed agreed that these attributes only emerge from persistent efforts on the part of aide and supervisor alike to make it happen. The present workshop raised further issues for consideration. Future sessions might attack such issues as:

1. how to break down generalizations about the supervisory function,
2. how to explore the nature of trust in supervisory interaction, and
3. how to elaborate a method for providing continually updated job descriptions, so that aides have a relevant yardstick for self-evaluation.

FUTURE WORKSHOPS

Workshop III was the third in a sequence of five such training opportunities to be offered in 1971-72. The next workshop is scheduled for the week of March 20th.

* * *

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

"Workshop IV: Goal-Setting by Supervisors and Aides": a training workshop for professionals who supervise paraprofessional personnel in human service agencies in Tompkins and Corland Counties, New York: March 23, 1972, in Dryden, New York.

Background

Each of the previous workshops had focused on the supervising professional as a key factor in the effective utilization of paraprofessionals. The earlier workshops (I and II) were concerned chiefly with large scale organizational responses to the fact of paraprofessionalism. They therefore dealt with organizational policies regarding hiring, training and career development. They looked at the supervisor's responsibility for interpreting, translating and passing along organizational policies to the aide, and they looked at the implications of team functioning for the organization as a whole. As such, they served as consciousness raising activities for many of the participants, and data-gathering devices for the Human Service Training Project.

The last workshop (III) turned its attention from these larger issues to the more specific problems of roles and role expectations in the supervisor-supervisee relationship. Task direction was minimized; participant directed exploration was emphasized; and aides were included in the session. The result was a more personalized workshop, with participants listening to and learning from each other, and reflecting on their own roles and expectations. The present workshop was intended to extend the kind of personal interaction begun in Workshop III by bringing together equal numbers of aides and supervisors and building an entire day's activities around skill-building exercises. The process of individual goal-setting was chosen as the content of these exercises, since it forms the basis of on-the-job learning and places special responsibility on the supervisor as a facilitator of aide learning. In particular, this process is important for the Human Service Program at the community college, in that it serves as the basis for the supervisor-aide-instructor conferences held three times a term.

Pre-planning

The usual 11:00 to 4:00 schedule was developed and the location was again set at the community hall of a church in Dryden - easily accessible to participants from Tompkins and Cortland counties. Announcements with a return tear sheet were sent to preceptors in the Human Service Program and agency directors. Included was a task assignment to be completed before the session. Aides were specifically invited, with major responsibility being placed on supervisors to bring aides they work with. The date of March 23 was set for this fourth of five workshops offered by the Human Service Training Project. Professor Donald Barr, Cornell, met with and assisted HSTP staff in developing the design for the day based on "force field analysis."

Objectives

Objectives for this session included:

1. to emphasize the necessity of goal-setting for on-the-job learning and growth;
2. to point out the relationship between goal-setting and evaluation;
3. to present one technique (force field analysis) for facilitating the goal-setting process at the dyadic level;
4. to practice this technique; and thereby
5. to increase interaction between participants - particularly between professionals and paraprofessionals.

Design and Execution

Translation of the above objectives into a five hour design resulted in a workshop with three major sections:

1. identifying and clarifying goals;
2. relating goals to problems; and
3. understanding and practicing force field analysis.

The first section was handled before lunch, the second after. Every effort was made to involve participants in exercises as soon as possible. A remarks-practice-process sequence was repeated three times throughout the day. Most of the tasks were carried out in dyads, and most of the data generated remained within the pairs, except for several discussion opportunities. The leaders likewise participated in the assigned tasks. The day's activities are outlined in the attached summary. The degree of involvement by participants remained high throughout the day.

Findings and Conclusions

Participants posted the "clarified" goals that emerged from their morning activities. These goals seemed to fall into two general categories:

1. personal growth - examples are...
   - "To have confidence in myself in what I do."
   - "Learning to relax on the job."
   - "To keep from getting sidetracked when I work with people who don't share my ... values."
   - "To be a better listener."
   - "To learn to speak up ... and not think my comment is insignificant."

2. job skills/behaviors - examples are...
   - "To set time for interaction with aides."
   - "To be better able to organize groups..."
   - "To improve communication with staff."
   - "To delegate more tasks."
   - "To set and keep specific times to meet with aides."
   - "To find ways to make course I teach more practical."
   - "To be a parent advocate."
   - "To organize a teen center..."

Information generated by the discussions is summarized in the attached summary under "content". A general conclusion is that for those participants who saw their

responsibility as supervisors in terms of assisting in the goal-setting process, the workshop was of real assistance. It gave them a theoretical base for work they were already involved in, and it offered them a chance to practice some skill-development. For those who did not see goal-setting as a part of their own role, the ensuing activities were at best "interesting".

An evaluation form administered at the end of the session produced the following rating of the workshop:

rating	number
excellent	3
good	17
average	4
fair	0
poor	0
	24

Participants "liked most" the chance to share ideas with other persons; meet persons; and be made aware of the situations in other agencies. There was a general feeling that it is good to have aides present and to hear their problems. ("It brought aides and supervisors onto common ground," etc.). Persons also commented that the topic and the activities were relevant and helpful. Participants "liked least" the confusion that results when many organizations (and therefore positions) are represented. They felt that the job of learning the other person's situation was a difficult one. Several persons felt the topic was not relevant to their own situation. This session was more "human relations" oriented than previous ones, and this generally drew a positive response ("I became aware of new things about myself," etc.).

In all, the session's objectives seemed to have been met. Twenty-eight persons had received five hours of instruction, and involvement of aides in the workshops had been increased.

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

To: Participants, "Workshop IV: Goal Setting by Supervisors and Aides"; and other interested persons

From: Joan Wright, Human Service Training Project

Re: Summary of day's activities, plus observations

Rationale

Individual goal-setting by supervisors and aides is essential to effective aide functioning on the job. Goal-setting provides a foundation for evaluation of individual performance by giving the aide a chance to clarify personal goals and to assess strengths and weaknesses. Then it is possible to map strategies for growth and to mark progress. Goal-setting is a process; as such it is built upon effective communication between aide and supervisor. The supervisor is cast in a consulting role, combining responsibility for making sure the process is operating, with specific skills in making it operate effectively. This workshop assumed that the supervisor recognizes this responsibility. It therefore focused on supervisor skill-building in:

1. identifying and clarifying goals,
2. relating problems to goals and
3. analyzing the forces operating for and against goal achievement.

Activities

Opening activities included an individual goal identification exercise; modeling of the goal clarification process; work in pairs (dyads) to clarify individual goals; and general discussion of the process. After lunch there were brief remarks and discussion regarding the relationship of goals and the problems behind them. This was followed by a more detailed explanation of a technique to analyze goals: "force field analysis." Participants then worked together in dyads, practicing identification of the problem and identification of major forces operative. The workshop concluded with a small group discussion of the uses of this technique, particularly as it relates to the supervisor's responsibility for

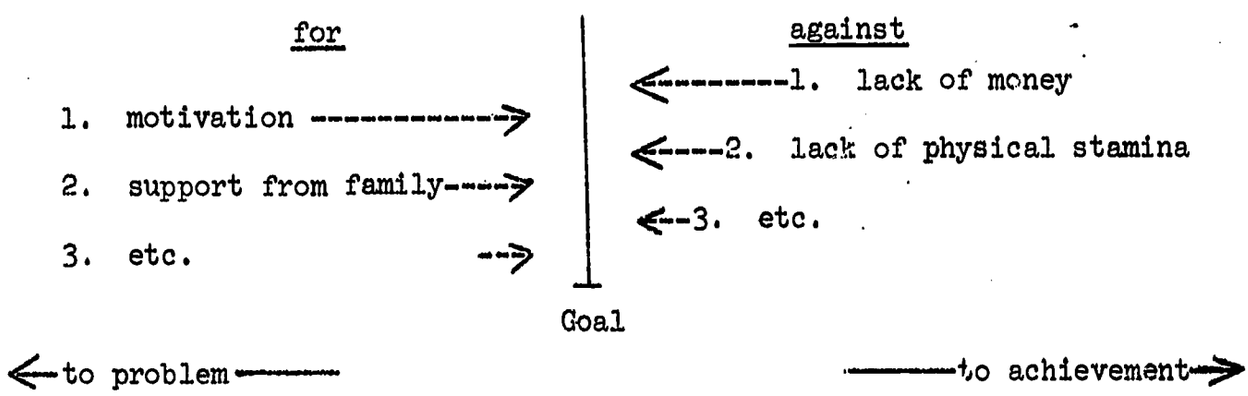
1. assisting the aide to clarify personal goals, and
2. interpreting and transmitting to the aide the general goals of the larger organization.

Content

1. Goal identification and clarification: persons occupying positions in organizations have personal goals that they attempt to relate to their work settings. It is important to bring relevant goals out into the open, since they form the basis for role expectations of both supervisor and aide (see "Workshop III: Role and Role Expectations"). Helping goals to surface often requires initiative by the supervisor: and clarifying these goals requires even more concentrated effort.

2. Goals and problems: persons too often jump from the identification and clarification of goals, to strategies for goal achievement. This by-passes two important processes. The first is that of probing the goal to see what problem it implies. This process often results in sharpening the goal even further. The initial goal of an aide "to become a better helper" (identified goal) may be made more explicit: "to take a course at the community college" (clarified goal). To jump immediately to strategies for goal achievement might suggest that helping an aide get into a course would accomplish the goal. However, probing the goal to identify the problem behind it ("I feel powerless because of my lack of education") might suggest a strategy that is more comprehensive than getting into a particular course; it might in fact mean designing career development, etc. Identifying the underlying problem then introduces a second important process, that of analyzing the "forces" operative in any movement toward or away from goal achievements.

3. Force field analysis: this is a technique derived from human relations theory (K. Lewin) for analyzing the forces that are working <u>for</u> the individual toward the achievement of his goal, as well as those that are working <u>against</u> him. Forces working <u>for</u> the aide in the above example might be "motivation" and "encouragement from family"; against the aide might be "lack of money" and "lack of physical stamina". Each of these has a "force" thats strength is indicated by the length of an arrow. Arrows <u>for</u> push the goal toward achievement; arrows <u>against</u> try to push the goal back towards its origin (the problem).



With the help of a supervisor, an aide can identify a force, list it, and estimate its strength. Both are then in a position to see where force strength must be increased and where it must be reduced to achieve the desired goal.

<u>Conclusion</u>

The leaders "picked up" the following information through the day's activities: undoubtedly there were many more feelings and reactions expressed, so participants are invited to add their own comments to these jottings:

1. Premature action - there is a strong push toward getting into solutions to problems (or strategies for goal achievement) before problems and goals have been adequately defined and clarified. Time is short, and persons in the problem-solving business feel a need to move fast.

2. Achievable goals - many goals are stated so vaguely as to defy evaluation; or so broadly as to defy achievement. But clarifying goals can be uncomfortable, because it implies a commitment to achieving them (unmeasurable or unachievable goals offer little threat).

3. Supervisor skills - listening; sharing feelings; asking probing questions ("It doesn't help to talk to a sponge!"); and creating a comfortable atmosphere - all are necessary for the process to work. Some aides may have to initiate the process and try to "help supervisors help them."

4. Supervisor initiation - to get this process functioning in an organization requires special effort from supervisors, but it may be more efficient than haphazard efforts done only in response to dysfunctions or crises. Helping aides pursue goals may place supervisor in conflict with his role as interpreter of organization's goals (but probably not).

***

Your participation and your contribution are appreciated. We hope to see you at our next workshop (tentatively scheduled for the week of May ____).

Joan Wright
Fred Peck

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

"Workshop V: The Outlook for Paraprofessionals in Cortland and Tompkins Counties"; a training workshop for paraprofessionals, administrators and board members from schools and community agencies in Cortland and Tompkins Counties, June 27, 1972, Dryden Central School, Dryden, New York.

Background

This workshop was the fourth and final training event scheduled for the 1971-72 program year. Set for late June, the workshop grew out of its planners' efforts to look to the past and to the future at the same time. Looking back at the preceding year, they identified the need for community involvement in the total project as one area of deep concern. Looking forward, they identified uncertainty regarding the future outlook for paraprofessionals as a second major area of concern.

It was decided to design a workshop that would address both of these concerns by focusing on the outlook for paraprofessionals in such a way as to increase involvement from a wide range of human service organizations. Increasing involvement for the purposes of this workshop was to consist of

1. increasing the breadth of involvement among organizations - for example bringing to the workshop representatives of as many community agencies and institutions as possible (but particularly the public schools); and
2. increasing the depth of involvement within organizations - that is bringing together at the workshop persons representing positions up and down the organization chart (but particularly top administrators and board members).

Objectives

It was felt that persistent lack of involvement by any sector of the human services, such as the public schools, or by any level of the human services organizational structure, such as policy makers, could undermine the Human Service Training Project's overall objectives. Therefore, objectives for this workshop included the following:

1. to bring together paraprofessionals, administrators, and board members from as many organizations as possible;
2. to give paraprofessionals an opportunity to share their own concerns with each other; and thereby
3. to give administrators and board members an opportunity to hear, and begin to respond to, concerns articulated by the paraprofessionals.

Preplanning

Human Service Training Project staff devoted one regular staff meeting and one special staff meeting to the question of community involvement in the project. These meetings catalogued the involvement of each agency/school in the two counties, and they pointed up the need for greater involvement/input from schools and from decision makers and policy makers. It was therefore decided to utilize the workshop to these ends by attempting to control participation as well as activities.

It was felt that paraprofessionals should attend in large numbers, so that they could feel the security of numbers and feel free to speak up in the presence of "higher-ups". Moreover, it was decided to have paraprofessionals serve as group leaders. Paras who had taken courses at the Community College (particularly the course in group leadership) were invited by letter to "join the staff" for the day and be a conference leader. They were given one evening's special training before the workshop in order to acquaint them with the morning task and to reduce their anxiety. For each paraprofessional group leader there was to be a second "recorder" or back up person (generally a professional).

To achieve a wide representation of administrators and board members, special letters were sent to each. Since Human Service Training Project staff were interviewing administrators during the month of June, they likewise made a point of inviting these persons and of securing the names and addresses of all paras employed in each organization. Paras received special invitations by mail or personal delivery at place of employment. Each of these invitations also contained a flyer announcing the event.

Arrangements were made for the workshop to be held at Dryden Central School, Dryden, New York, midway between the two counties. Lunch was to be catered and was to be free to participants. Child care was also to be provided. Reservations returned from the tear sheet on the letter of invitation indicated attendance by about one hundred thirty persons. Actual attendance was: eighty-three paraprofessionals, twenty administrators, six board members, seven persons from higher/continuing education and three staff members from the Human Service Training Project.

Design and Execution

Design for the workshop consisted of three main parts:

1. introduction and keynote address;
2. morning tasks and reporting; and
3. afternoon tasks and reporting.

Throughout the workshop an effort was made to include as many persons as possible, by inviting them to give extemporaneous comments, by asking persons to raise their hands "if you are a para in a school", etc. This seemed a successful device to let each participant know who was in attendance.

Utilizing a keynote speaker was a new practice for a Human Service Training Project workshop, which had normally tried to utilize local persons in small group settings. However, the personality and the presentation of Dorothy Winslow proved of great value in setting the stage (and the mood) for the entire day. she was chosen because

1. she is a non-credentialed paraprofessional - with whom paras might identify;

2. she is an agency administrator - with whom administrators might identify;
3. she is an "outsider" (from Syracuse), but is particularly sensitive to the issues this workshop was intended to deal with; and
4. she is an extremely articulate public speaker.

Her presentation is outlined in the attached "summary for participants". Her message was strong and effective and seemed to serve as a starting point for discussion in many of the groups.

The morning task groups, led by paras and consisting of approximately twelve persons (a mix of paras, administrators and board members) were divided between schools and community agencies. Here these divisions were legitimized and members were encouraged to focus on their own organization, from the perspective of their own position within that organization. Mixing positions, but holding the organization constant, seemed to work out well; most persons participated (each group had a preponderance of paras), and the task seemed an engaging one. The findings from these groups are listed in the summary. It should be pointed out that the use of paras as leaders seemed very successful. Reporting back (generally by paras) to the large group worked effectively, with nine groups reporting in a total of twenty minutes. There were brief remarks/responses by "representative" participants (for example a continuing educator, the chairman of one county's board of representatives, several paras, etc.), and this seemed an effective way to increase involvement in a short time.

Lunch lasted forty-five minutes, and a great deal of conversation continued throughout the whole period. It seemed that morning workshop groups stayed to sit and eat together.

Afternoon work groups were leaderless by design. Since they were "stratified", consisting of all board members, all paras, etc., it was felt that they would feel comfortable talking and establishing themselves as a group without formal leadership. Generally this seems not to have been the case. Here the great differences between those who operate in and around schools, and those who work in and around community agencies seemed to surface. In effect, it became apparent that being on a school board may give one little in common with a person who is ... board of another organization. The difference between morning and afternoon groups seemed to indicate that organizations have an influence that make dialogue possible in spite of differences in position; while position groupings provide less unity and/or solidarity.

Reporting back at the end of this task indicated that much work had been done in the groups, even if persons had felt less comfortable in their groups. Perhaps dividing by position, but also between schools and agencies, with trained leaders, would have facilitated interaction. Reporting back worked efficiently, but no time remained for additional remarks.

All in all, the design seemed an effective one. "Loading" the workshop with paras made the event one of consciousness raising and articulation, and this seemed to support the workshop's objectives.

Findings and Conclusions

The workshop's conclusions are listed in the summary. It seems apparent that community involvement/input was received through this event. It was covered by the media, written up in the newspaper, etc. Many paras heard themselves speak out, and heard other paras echoing their concerns. Administrators and board members were generally cast in a listening role. When they spoke, they seemed to be responding to what paras were saying. Possibly the fact that so few administrators and policy makers attended, especially from the schools, was in a sense a further statement to all present that for many persons paraprofessionals are not yet considered particularly important.

It seems apparent that further workshops and training events are in order. They were asked for by those who attended, and Human Service Training Project staff and leaders generally agreed that the time may be more opportune now than it had been previously for attacking the issues that the workshop raised.

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT

To: Participants in June 27 workshop on "Outlook for Paraprofessionals"
Administrators in schools and human service agencies in Cortland and Tompkins Counties
Other interested persons

From: Human Service Training Project
Workshop Staff

Re: Report on workshop, "Outlook for Paraprofessionals in Tompkins and Cortland Counties", held June 27, 1972, Dryden Central School

Rationale

Most paraprofessionals were introduced in Cortland and Tompkins counties in the 1960's when there was a shortage of manpower in the human services, when the war on poverty emphasized the creation of jobs for low-income persons who had skills but not credentials, and when federal funds were available for creating programs to hire paraprofessionals. Few employing organizations had thought carefully about how paraprofessionals would fit into their overall program - how the jobs would develop after the first year, how training would be provided, who would supervise, what benefits would be planned, what the paraprofessionals would see as a desirable future, etc.

Now the situation is changing. There is not the same shortage of trained manpower that existed ten years ago; persons with professional credentials are willing to take low-salaried paraprofessional jobs; paraprofessionals are joining together in many cases to negotiate for adequate remuneration and benefits; administrators are expected to provide better services for the same or less money; citizens, both clients and non-clients, are demanding to be heard in decision-making about human services; outside funds from state, federal, and private sources are much less readily available.

Therefore, the outlook for paraprofessionals is not clear at this point. This workshop was designed to give

1. paraprofessionals,
2. administrators, and
3. board members an opportunity to look into the future together - and possibly to help that future along.

Activities

The morning began with acknowledgment of participants from a wide range of community agencies and schools in both counties, followed by keynote speaker Dorothy Winslow, Director of Oakwood Day Care Center (Head Start) in Syracuse. The entire assembly divided into nine smaller work groups, mixing paraprofessionals, administrators, and board members, to work on a two-part morning task:

1. to rank five "possible futures" (see below) in an order from most likely to occur to least likely, and
2. to propose a "best possible future" for paraprofessionals.

Each group's proposal was reported to the entire assembly.

Possible Futures For Paraprofessionals

A. More and more mature women (and idealistic young persons) seek employment in human services (schools and community organizations). As a result, the labor supply grows so large that employers continue to pay low wages and benefits, knowing they have a large pool of willing job seekers.

B. Paraprofessionals continue to demonstrate competence in a wide range of jobs within human services; this factor plus tight public funds, results in the gradual replacement of professionals by paraprofessionals. Some professionals move 'up', many more are moved 'out'.

C. As paraprofessional positions increase due to lower wages, professionals organize to resist a paraprofessional takeover of service jobs; as a result, paraprofessionals are held to a $6,000 maximum annual income and to limited training. Access to positions above that are controlled by credentialing.

D. As more jobs go to paraprofessionals, the consumers blow the whistle, demanding first-class (that is professional) services. This results in a consumer controlled ceiling on the number of paraprofessional positions.

E. As paraprofessionals recognize and respond to an increasing number of needs among the persons they serve, their activities become formalized and eventually develop into new programs; the expansion of these new programs results in more jobs for paraprofessionals.

After lunch participants re-divided into ten groups - across agencies and schools - with paraprofessionals meeting separately from administrators, etc. These groups dealt with one question: What action do we need to take in the next year in order to deal with the concerns expressed this morning? The workshop concluded with the presentation of small group proposals for action.

Content

A. Keynote remarks: Dorothy Winslow presented a personal picture of how she as a non-credentialed paraprofessional functioning as an agency administrator tackles her own human service job - a job that is alternately "exciting, frustrating, challenging, overwhelming and draining". She characterized the human service "para" as people-oriented, dissatisfied with jobs that emphasize "cool efficiency", and generally gravitating toward work that takes her into the home life and institutional life of persons in need of help. The para's key attribute is "love for persons", and she is able to combine that love with an innate ability to push through agency and school obstacles to reach concrete solutions for people who need them. Unlike many professionals, who "stand at the top of the stairs and try to pull people up", paras get right down there with them, "and try to come up together with them".

She emphasized the dilemma of those who operate without benefit of credentials, subtly but continuously "put down for lack of preparation" by state and federal agencies. And she announced that she long ago refused to be labeled as "having

potential" if that meant she could "be somebody - only not now". To combat these forces paras have to have a strong sense of their own individual self-worth, and their collective importance. This implies collective bargaining to achieve the goal of "equal pay for equal work", particularly for those whose titles describe them as "assistants" but who in fact have no one to assist. Education is not to be discounted, since some parts of it may be relevant and all of it helps the paraprofessional understand professionals better.

She concluded that there is room enough, and need enough, for professionals and paraprofessionals alike in human services, and that competent paras teamed up with "unthreatened professionals" can improve services for those who need them most.

B. Morning task: Of the five "possible futures" most groups felt that A or B would occur. That is, the general economy and the realities of labor supply/demand are the factors controlling the outlook for paraprofessionals. There may be more jobs for paras and this fact may well come about through a mixture of recognized competence and lower costs. The least likely occurrence was D: that consumers would demand "professional" services, thus limiting the growth of paraprofessionalism.

The attempt, group by group, to reach consensus on the "best possible future" for paraprofessionals, produced a composite picture, suggesting that an ideal future would include the following six points:

1. an educated public - which would give paraprofessionals the recognition they feel they need and deserve; most participants felt that recognition of the value of paras is only starting to surface within the organizations where they work, and that it is virtually non-existent outside their organizations;
2. career ladders - which would detail an agency or school's commitment to systematic upgrading of paras as they gain work experience and/or education; this career ladder would show paras "which way is up" giving them goals to work toward in the future, and rewards to enjoy in the present;
3. education and training - which would be relevant to the kind of work paras do, and would be recognized across agency and school boundaries; many participants felt that the employing organization should assist paras by planning with them for educational opportunity; by supporting paras' efforts through tuition assistance, released time, etc.; and by integrating individual educational plans with the career ladder;
4. equalization of pay - which bases remuneration on an analysis of work performance as it relates to accomplishment of the agency/school's service objectives; it was felt that pay is presently keyed to pre-employment credentials rather than on the job performance;
5. on going evaluation - which would systematically give feedback on job performance to the paraprofessional; this evaluation should be one part of continuous evaluation of every functionary in the organization, and it should be used to revise and update job descriptions; evaluation should be provided by peers as well as by supervisors, and should be for the purpose of advancing growth in and on the job, not simply for the purpose of producing crisis judgments;
6. inclusive staff meetings - which would insure paras' input into school and agency planning, and which would give paras a voice in organizational decision-making.

C. Afternoon task: six groups of paraprofessionals, two groups of administrators, one group of board members, and one group of persons from institutions of higher and continuing education, each tried to formulate specific actions that would meet the concerns expressed in the morning session. Their proposals have been condensed into the following six groups:

Action called for	Objectives of this action	Action to be initiated by...	Action called for by...
1. organize paraprofessionals within/across agencies & schools	- increase sense of self-worth by paras - increase recognition of paras (in organization & community) - establish paras as a bargaining unit	- paras	paras administrators
2. develop career ladders within/across agencies and schools	- produce realistic & accurate job descriptions - increase & formalize opportunities for paras to advance - establish effective evaluation procedures	- administrators - boards	paras administrators board members
3. publicize the work of paras in the community	- develop community support for paras - develop community wide skills roster	- paras - administrators - boards	paras administrators
4. develop educational opportunities for paras	- to get "credit" for life/work experience - to secure tuition assistance, released time, etc. from employing organizations - to develop placement services for paras	- higher/continuing educators - administrators - boards	paras higher/continuing educators
5. develop in-service training	- develop skills of paras - communicate expectations of employing organization to paras	- administrators	paras
6. evaluation of staffing throughout agency or school	- clarify and define role of paras - develop understanding of team concept - increase communication among staff - involve paras in planning and decision-making	- administrators - boards	paras board members

D. Evaluation: Most participants felt that the workshop's greatest contribution was that it gave paraprofessionals a chance to hear each other, and that administrators and board members were able to hear from paras. Many persons expressed disappointment that so few board members and policy makers attended; and it was felt that administrators from schools were conspicuously absent. (As one person said: "The ones who need to hear this aren't here.") Many participants felt that more workshops are in order, and that they should focus on the various concerns expressed at this workshop. Both paras and professionals felt that a main topic for the future should be the development of a team approach. A number of persons expressed concern that the effort to achieve recognition and remuneration not overshadow paras' concern for the persons they serve. Administrators present seemed anxious to assist and support paras, and they came up with the following specific suggestions:

1. a community wide campaign to educate the public through the media - Liz Matuk to coordinate (tentatively set for October)

2. an information gathering effort to catalogue and summarize salary ranges, evaluation procedures, etc. - to assist in developing a community wide career lattice - Kathleen Beardsley, Chris Bolgiano, Celia Bolyard, Cathy Quimby to coordinate

3. a paraprofessional skills roster to be developed by paras, at Tompkins-Cortland Community College

4. a monthly newsletter to be developed by and about paras (perhaps through Tompkins-Cortland Community College).

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The Human Service Training Project staff appreciates the participation and involvement of all of the one hundred twenty persons who attended this workshop. We hope this summary will be helpful to you.

Joan Wright
Fred Peck

EXHIBIT E

ANNOUNCEMENT OF SEMINAR ON SUPERVISION OF PARAPROFESSIONALS

NEW YORK STATE COLLEGE OF HUMAN ECOLOGY
A Statutory College of the State University
CORNELL UNIVERSITY
Ithaca, New York

To: Human Service Personnel in Tompkins and Cortland Counties

From: Human Service Training Project Staff

Re: Description of CSE 531; Registration of Resource Persons

The Community Service Education Department of the College of Human Ecology will offer a new graduate level course during the spring semester for persons who have had or who anticipate having experience in the supervision of paraprofessional staff. A limited number of non-credit non-fee enrollments are available to human service practitioners in the community as resource persons. This is possible on a full-semester or occasional basis. A description of the course follows; persons who wish to receive additional information are requested to return the registration form below. [For persons who wish to take the course for credit, extramural registrations are available at the regular tuition rate ($75/credit hour) at the Extramural Division, Cornell.]

CSE 531. SUPERVISION OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN HUMAN SERVICES

Spring (January 24 - May 1, 1972). Credit three hours, Mrs. Wright. Monday, 7:30 - 10:00 P.M.

For persons who anticipate working with paraprofessionals in community service settings. The course will focus on the nature of professionalization; roots of paraprofessionalism; the New Careers concept; models of utilization of paraprofessionals; and team-building skills required by the professional. Attention will also be given to organizational practices that facilitate differentiated staffing.

.....

CSE 531: Registration of Resource Persons

___Yes, I am interested in participating on a non-credit basis as a resource person in this course. Please send further details on the meeting place, course outline, etc.

___I am interested in the possibility of participating occasionally in this course. Please send further details.

___I am not interested in participating this spring.

Name _____

Agency/School _____ Position _____

Address _____

_____ Telephone _____

Return by January 20 to: Human Service Training Project, 141 MVR Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14850

EXHIBIT F

ADVISORY COMMITTEE TO THE HUMAN SERVICE PROGRAM, 1971-72,
TOMPKINS-CORTLAND COUNTY COLLEGE

TOMPKINS-CORTLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE
State University of New York
Groton, New York

Members of The Advisory Committee
Human Service Program
1971 and 1972

Craig Boniface
Tompkins County Department of
Social Services
Ithaca, New York

Gary Buchner
DeWitt Junior High School
Ithaca, New York

Joseph Feller
Family Court Volunteer
Counseling Service
Cortland, New York

Robert Hamlisch
Tompkins County Mental Health Clinic
Ithaca, New York

Muriel Jenkins
South Lansing School for Girls
South Lansing, New York

Michael Joseph
Marathon Central School District
Marathon, New York

Thomas Lickona
Project Change
State University College
Cortland, New York

Ellen Lipton
Head Start Regional Training Office
Cornell University
Ithaca, New York

Beverly Martin
Central School
Ithaca, New York

Ruth Pettengill
Family and Children's Service
Ithaca, New York

June Rogers
Tompkins County Day Care Council
Ithaca, New York

Carl Savino
Cortland City School District
Cortland, New York

Cora Schofield
Cortland County Department
of Social Services
Cortland, New York

Daniel Sherman
Opportunities for Cortland County
Cortland, New York

Barbara Stewart
Tompkins County Cooperative
Extension Association
Ithaca, New York

EXHIBIT G

RATING SCALE FOR EVALUATING AN AIDE

HUMAN SERVICE TRAINING PROJECT
New York State College of Human Ecology
Tompkins-Cortland Community College

RATING SCALE FOR EVALUATING AN AIDE

Name of aide to be rated: _____ Aide's title: _____

Name of rating-supervisor: _____ Supervisor's title: _____

Date: _____ Employing Organization _____

Directions for rating-supervisor:

1. Fill in information at top of page.
2. Read the description across each row.
3. Choose the number from 5 to 1 that corresponds most closely to the behavior of the aide.
4. Write in that number in the box at the end of the row.
5. If you are unable to rate an aide in a particular item, due to insufficient opportunity to observe that behavior, write in a 0 in the box at the front of the row.

New York State College of Human Ecology
A Statutory College of the State University
Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

RATING SCALE

unable to evaluate 0	5	4	3	2	1	Rating (5 - 1)
1.	Has a thorough understanding of the goals of the organization.		Has some understanding of the goals of the organization.		Has very little understanding of the goals of the organization.	
2.	Almost always behaves in accordance with the goals of the organization.		Sometimes does, and sometimes does not, behave in accordance with the goals of the organization.		Rarely behaves in accordance with the goals of the organization.	
3.	Has a thorough understanding of the ethical standards of the organization (confidentiality, trustworthiness, etc.)		Has some understanding of the ethical standards of the organization.		Has very little understanding of the ethical standards of the organization.	
4.	Almost always complies with the ethical standards of the organization.		Sometimes does, and sometimes does not, comply with the ethical standards of the organization.		Rarely complies with the ethical standards of the organization.	
5.	Almost always completes tasks on time.		Sometimes does, and sometimes does not, complete tasks on time.		Rarely completes tasks on time.	
6.	Rarely needs prodding by supervisor.		Sometimes does, and sometimes does not, need prodding by supervisor.		Almost always needs prodding by supervisor.	
7.	Rarely has conflicts with fellow aides.		Sometimes has conflicts with fellow aides.		Almost always has conflicts with fellow aides.	
8.	Freely communicates useful information to supervisor.		Communicates useful information to supervisor when requested		Rarely communicates useful information to supervisor.	

5	4	3	2	1	Rating (5 - 1)
9. Rarely defensive when receiving feedback from supervisor.		Sometimes defensive when receiving feedback from supervisor.		Almost always defensive when receiving feedback from supervisor.	
10. Almost always functions in accordance with her role in the organization.		Sometimes does, and sometimes does not, function in accordance with her role in the organization.		Rarely functions in accordance with her role in the organization.	
11. Extremely effective in relating to persons of different cultures and life styles.		Somewhat effective in relating to persons of different cultures and life styles.		Extremely ineffective in relating to persons of different cultures and life styles.	
12. Generally able to assess needs of clients.		Sometimes able, sometimes unable to assess needs of clients.		Generally unable to assess needs of clients.	
13. Almost always able to motivate clients to change.		Sometimes able, sometimes unable to motivate clients to change.		Generally unable to motivate clients to change.	
14. Continually makes efforts to improve skills.		Sometimes makes efforts to improve skills.		Rarely makes efforts to improve skills.	
15. Shows a great deal of interest in advancing her career.		Shows some interest in advancing her career.		Shows very little interest in advancing her career.	
16. Almost always able to evaluate self realistically and critically.		Sometimes able to evaluate self realistically and critically.		Rarely able to evaluate self realistically and critically.	
17. Shows a great deal of confidence and self-esteem.		Shows some confidence and self-esteem.		Shows very little confidence and and self-esteem.	
18. Adjusts to changes in organizational routine (such as pressures for deadlines, etc.) with very little difficulty.		Adjusts to changes in organizational routine with some difficulty.		Adjusts to changes in organizational routine with a great deal of difficulty.	