

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Maureen McCurdy Haugen for the degree of Doctor of Education presented on May 20, 1982.

Title: Humanistic Program Evaluation: Application to an Oregon High School Counseling Program

Abstract approved: Redacted for Privacy
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The primary problem of this study was to evaluate the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. The intent was to determine the effectiveness of the program component in relation to the purpose it was designed to serve: providing information and guidance for high school students who were making decisions about what they would do after graduation from high school. Secondary problems were the choice of an approach to evaluation and the methods to be used to implement that approach. A humanistic approach, which would give access to qualitative information, implemented through intensive interviewing and participant observation, was selected.

The method of intensive interviewing was implemented through an open-ended interview format which asked for both information and opinions from respondents. Participant observation was carried out during both formal program activities and informal events which occurred relative to the program component studied, and involved counselors, teachers, students, administrators, and parents. Ninety-eight of the 107 students in the 1982 graduating class of Douglas High School participated in interviews conducted between December 1, 1981

and March 15, 1982. Observations of formal program events took place throughout the academic year during which the study was conducted. Informal observations had occurred throughout the four years during which the researcher had been a member of the professional staff of the institution in which the study occurred.

Major findings included support for the efficacy of the methodology employed as well as evaluations of the program component. As regards methodology, the interview and observation techniques revealed material unlikely to emerge in more objective (rating scale, management-by-objectives, or classic research design) methods. Students in interviews explained their reactions to program events, providing qualifications that more objective but less sensitive methods would obscure. The interviewer clarified questions to be certain students understood what they were answering, a procedure impossible with an objective rating scale. Observations of activities revealed the nature of relationships which existed in the institution, variations in relationships over time or changing situations, and the influence of relationships on the effectiveness of program components.

As regards evaluation, the program component was weak in the following areas: counseling services were inadequately publicized; students were inadequately informed of career options in the military (specifically, in military academies and through Reserve Officer Training programs); scholarship information was poorly organized for student use and inadequately publicized; and career guidance beyond the freshman career exploration class was insufficient. The program component showed positive strengths in such areas as annual pre-enrollment of students; keeping students informed of progress toward credits

for graduation; providing informational workshops in preparation of scholarship applications, financial aid, and the Scholastic Aptitude Test; providing access to military recruiters at student request; maintaining a library of college and career information; responding to student and parent requests for assistance; and exhibiting concern for and providing counseling services for individual students.

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HUMANISTIC PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPLICATION
TO AN OREGON HIGH SCHOOL
COUNSELING PROGRAM

by

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A THESIS

submitted to

Oregon State University

in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the
degree of

Doctor of Education

Completed May 20, 1982

Commencement June 1983

APPROVED:

Redacted for Privacy

Professor of Education in Charge of Major
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Date thesis is presented May 20, 1982

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the members of my doctoral committee, Dr. Glenn E. Clark, Dr. Charles E. Carpenter, Dr. Charles W. Cormack, Dr. David Eiseman, and Dr. Theodore M. Madden, for their help in completing this thesis. I am particularly grateful to Dr. Clark for his sustained support. I am also especially appreciative of Dr. Cormack's cogent criticism, searching questions, and conscientious guidance in the application of methodology.

To my counseling colleagues at Douglas High School, Robert S. Bartlett, Verna J. Kocken, and Richard L. Puhl, and to the registrar, Janyce Gee, I owe a great debt for their support and tolerance of my dedication to this project during an entire school year. Without their willing assistance the research conducted would not have been possible. I also want to acknowledge the contributions of the students in the graduating class of 1982, whose gracious participation was central to this effort.

I am grateful to my mother, Mildred Anna McCurdy, who taught me perseverance; and to the memory of my father, Donald Payson McCurdy, who gave me my first lessons in humanism, by the example of his life.

To my daughter, Inger Cynthia Haugen, I owe appreciation for her patience, independence, and tolerance of what she aptly re-named "mom's disturbance." I asked much of a small child, who displayed understanding and compassion beyond her years.

And most of all, I am grateful to my husband, Dr. Roger E. Haugen, for his unstinting support, recommendations of sources, sympathetic and insightful criticism, constant encouragement, and devotion to maintaining domestic order.

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HUMANISTIC PROGRAM EVALUATION: APPLICATION
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COUNSELING PROGRAM

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

To label an evaluation procedure "humanistic" is to invite some confusion, given the various connotations the term humanism carries. For purposes of this study, humanism or humanistic refers to a philosophical stance which emphasizes the worth and dignity of man and his capacity for self-realization. More specifically, humanism in the sense it is used here is concerned with the meanings individuals give to their own behavior, to the circumstances of their lives, and to the institutions, events, and relationships in which they are involved. These meanings are seen as the source of information that can be useful in evaluating a component of a high school counseling program.

The evaluation of counseling programs has long been a source of debate for practitioners. The present study was an attempt to apply to evaluation procedures methods which would yield information useful for assessing the effectiveness of the post-high school plans component of an existing high school counseling program. Useful information in this case was that which would reveal to what extent students' needs were being met, what needs were felt and were not being met, which activities in the program component had value for students and which did not. In another sense, useful information would reveal whether or not there were patterns of variation in assessment of the program associated with student characteristics. The intent was to discover how the program might be modified in order to fulfill student needs

more adequately.

Evaluators of counseling services have tended to rely on management by objectives or rating scale techniques. Such techniques may be somewhat flawed--behavioral objectives are traditionally designed by the counselor on the basis of counselor, rather than student, perceived needs; and rating scales, while they can yield valuable information, do not allow for student explanations or interpretations. The present study employed methods which revealed what was actually being done in post-high school plans counseling and elicited student evaluations of what was being done. The purpose was to examine subjective reactions to events, to discover from students what meanings a variety of activities had for them. The information collected was analysed to reveal patterns of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the program component. Patterns which emerged were examined for purposes of improving the program component, so that it would be more effective in terms of meeting student needs.

The Problem

The primary problem of this study was to evaluate the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. Oetting and Hawkes defined program evaluation as "collecting data that will help--immediately--in making decisions about programs" (1974, p. 435). Burck and Peterson identified the decisions to be made as being concerned with the continuation or modification of programs (1975). The intent of the evaluation undertaken here was to determine the effectiveness of the program component in relation to the purposes

it was designed to serve. The essential purpose of the post-high school plans component studied was to provide information and guidance for high school students who were making decisions about what they would do after they graduated from high school. The evaluation question here was: do the students being served find the program component effective in helping them with decision-making? On the basis of student judgments of effectiveness, information useful for modifying the program could be collected: for example, (1) were some activities of the program component more effective than were others; (2) did students need information or guidance which the activities of the program component did not provide; (3) were there students who did not have access to the activities the program component offered; (4) did the program component include activities which had no value to students; (5) were the procedures for eliciting student participation in activities adequate; and (6) were the purposes of the activities, as defined by program developers, consistent with the needs and purposes of students? The evaluation procedure employed in this study was intended to provide information which would be useful in answering these kinds of questions.

With the basic problem identified, the choice of an appropriate approach was critical. Because the concern was with the discovery of the meanings various activities or events had for students, a humanistic approach presented itself as most appropriate. An attempt was being made here to determine the effects of rather mundane information-giving and routine guidance on the experiential worlds of students. A mechanistically objective approach seemed unlikely to give access to the

meanings events had for individual students. For example, whether or not a student received information on the Scholastic Aptitude Test, and whether or not that same student took the test would not reveal how he or she responded to the scores earned on the test, or whether or not the student understood what those scores meant in relation to his or her prospects for college admission. Such personal considerations were involved in deciding both whether or not to pursue further education and, if so, what institutions and programs were open to the student. An approach to the problem which would make such personal experience available, a humanistic approach, was deemed preferable to an objective rating scale or survey approach.

Implementing a humanistic approach to the evaluation of the post-high school plans component of a counseling program was another problem. How could one most effectively elicit from students the meanings events had for them? The intensive interview method, as discussed by Lofland (1971), was selected. Lofland pointed out that the object of intensive interviewing is

not to elicit choices between alternative answers to preformed questions, but, rather, to elicit from the interviewee what he considers to be important questions relative to a given topic, his descriptions of some situation being explored (p. 76).

This method allowed the possibility for "humanistically entering the worlds of your clientele" (Clark, 1982). Collecting information from the experiential worlds of students and using that information to evaluate a component of a counseling program was the goal of this study. A method of information collection which would permit access to experience and meaning was considered appropriate to that goal.

Definitions of Evaluation

Evaluation was defined by Stufflebeam as "the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (1973, p. 129); by Worthen and Sanders as systematic efforts to define criteria and obtain accurate information about alternatives to enable the determination of the real worth of those alternatives (1973, p. 2); by Alkin as "the process of ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information, and collecting and analyzing information in order to report summary data useful to decision-makers in selecting among alternatives" (1973, p. 159); and by Oetting and Hawkes as "collecting data that will help--immediately--in making decisions about programs" (1974, p. 435). Oetting and Hawkes further distinguished between personnel evaluation, in which "programs and staff are judged on a good-bad continuum" and program evaluation, intended to "assess the effect of a program to see how well it works" (p. 435).

Riccio identified the purpose of evaluation as being "to ascertain the current status of a service or activity in a frame of reference and, on the basis of this knowledge, to improve the activity in terms of quality and efficiency" (1962, p. 100). Burck and Peterson characterized evaluation as being mission-oriented, providing information for decision-makers responsible for the continuation or modification of programs (1975).

On the basis of these definitions, the three essential questions in the evaluation of programs can be identified as (1) what

is being done, (2) is it worth doing, and (3) how well is it being done. These questions have been asked of the post-high school plans component of the counseling program at Douglas High School, in Winston, Oregon.

Limitations of the Study

The considerations for limiting the study to post-secondary plans counseling were fairly straight-forward. In addition to the altogether too familiar constraints of time and economic resources, was a consideration of the relative importance of the component selected. Leviton reported a self-evaluation survey in which high school planning, post-high school planning, and career education were ranked by students as the three most important counseling functions (1977). Pellegreno and Engen also used students to rate guidance services, and found that 75 percent of their sample considered counselors to be the most helpful people in the school system for planning after high school (1975, pp. 208-209). In a follow-up study, Brisson found that high school graduates expressed a strong need for counseling assistance in making educational plans, selecting high school courses, and making vocational plans (1975). Ripper, Hanvery, and Parker reported that students see counselor purposes, in descending order of importance, as being to assist pupils with vocational planning, educational planning, and personal problems (1965).

In even more pragmatic terms, post-high school plans are included in the Oregon Department of Education goals for counseling. Effective in 1976, the Oregon Administrative Rules, Division 22,

Minimum Standards for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, District Guidance and Counseling, stated that each local board was to approve a district guidance and counseling program that included goals for students to develop decision-making skills, understand opportunities and alternatives in educational programs, and set tentative career and education goals (Oregon Department of Education, 1979, 581-22-254, p. 9). In response to this directive, Winston-Dillard School District #116 developed a policy which included the following general philosophy and goal statements:

PHILOSOPHY: The Winston-Dillard School District #116 recognizes the student as an individual with his own abilities and interests. The board supports a counseling and guidance program which encourages optimum development of self-understanding and self-direction with an acceptance of responsibility to self, family, school, and community.

GOALS. The program will consist of activities and experiences which are designed to provide opportunities for development in the following areas. . .

Decision-making skills. . . .

Understanding opportunities and alternatives available in the education program

Setting career and education goals (1980).

In accordance with district policy, Douglas High School counselors developed a School Plan for Counseling and Guidance, including the following goal statement:

The goals and objectives of the Student Services Department of Douglas High School are as follows:

A. To serve all Douglas High School students in accordance with Board Policy on Counseling and Guidance.

1. To provide the opportunity for the development of decision-making skills. . . .
3. To provide the opportunity to examine available alternatives within the educational program
4. To provide the opportunity for establishing and implementing personal career and educational goals (1980).

Revisions in Standards for Public Schools (Oregon Department of Education, 1980), included more specific statements regarding the role of counseling in relation to post-secondary planning. Standard 581-22-702 for guidance and counseling reads as follows:

Each school district shall provide a coordinated guidance and counseling program to support the educational and career development of students.

The district shall:

- (a) Adopt guidance and counseling program goals which will assist students to:
 - (A) Develop decision-making skills,
 - (B) Obtain information about self,
 - (C) Understand the educational opportunities and alternatives available to them,
 - (D) Establish tentative career and educational goals,
 - (E) Accept increasing responsibility for their own actions,
 - (F) Develop skills in interpersonal relations, and
 - (G) Utilize school and community resources;
- (b) Specify instruction, guidance and counseling activities for the achievement of the goals;
- (c) Assign guidance and counseling responsibilities to each school and to the appropriate personnel; and
- (d) Evaluate guidance and counseling programs for all grades. . . .

Each school shall provide a guidance and counseling program which:

- (a) Specifies goals including those assigned to the school district program;
- (b) Identifies staff responsibilities and instructional, guidance and counseling activities to achieve guidance program goals;
- (c) Identifies each student's guidance and counseling needs; and
- (d) Assists each student to develop an educational plan in grades 9-12 which identifies a tentative career goal and reviews the student's progress at least annually; and
- (e) Assigns each student to a certified staff member for individual support and advice.

The financial investment of the community in post-secondary education lends additional support to classifying counseling for post-

secondary plans as an important function of secondary counseling programs. The Oregon State Governor's budget recommendations for the 1979-81 biennium included \$352,715,055 in state funds for the state's eight colleges and universities, attended by over 60,000 students. An additional \$98,019,571 in state support was budgeted for local community colleges (Newbry & Smith, 1979, p. B-6). At the national level, the projected federal budget for post-secondary education in the United States for 1979 was \$15.2 billion (Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1979, p. 137). Oregon higher education anticipated revenues in the form of federal funds in the amount of \$419,898,875 for 1979-81 (Newbry & Smith, 1979, p. B-7). Proprietary schools in the United States, while not receiving public funds, were attended by some 766,865 students in 1979, representing a considerable personal investment on the part of those students (Dearman & Plisko, 1979, p. 33). It seems clear that helping high school students learn to make appropriate decisions about what to do after high school is an important function of a secondary school counseling program, and is a function that should be evaluated in terms of effectiveness.

A final consideration for selecting the post-high school plans component of the program for study was the fact that a series of activities intended to facilitate student post-high school plans decision-making was clearly defined and readily identifiable. The students involved participated in pre-enrollment planning, which included selecting a high school program of studies which was intended to help prepare them for post-secondary education or employment. They participated in information workshops on the Scholastic Aptitude Test

and financial aid. They were given opportunities to meet with military recruiters, representatives of local businesses and industries, and representatives of public and private colleges and universities. They were informed of the availability of scholarships and were assisted in applying for them. And they had access to counselors for individual assistance in decision-making.

As regards the decision to conduct the study using only one institution, Burck and Peterson pointed out that one of the distinguishing characteristics of evaluation research is that "evaluation is done at the site of the intervention (in the field, usually)" (1975, p. 564). Carr went further, to state that "the information gathered in evaluation need not be generalizable to other programs or situations. . . the impact of evaluation is directed at the present" (1977, p. 115). Evaluation, then, is specific to a particular program conducted in a particular way within a specific setting at a given time. It might be noted that, even though the results of a particular evaluation study may not be generalizable to situations dissimilar to those in which the evaluation was conducted, the methods for obtaining those results may indeed be applicable to quite different situations.

Rationale

The purpose of the present study was to apply to an evaluation procedure methods which used subjective and interpersonal knowing, and to employ that procedure in evaluating the post-secondary plans component of an existing high school counseling program. Rogers defined subjective knowing as "the formation of inner hypotheses which

are checked by referring to our inward flow of experiencing as we live in our subjective interaction with inner or outer events" (1969, p. 24). Interpersonal or phenomenological knowing he defined as hypotheses which are checked by using "whatever skill and empathic understanding is at my command to get at the relevant aspect of your phenomenological field, to get inside your private world of meaning, and to see whether my understanding is correct" (p. 29). In his discussion of the "human intelligence as the basic research instrument," Levine pointed out both the influence of the observer on what is observed and the involvement of the observer with the phenomena being studied (1974, pp. 665-666). The present study intended both to acknowledge the mutual involvement of the researcher and the subjects, and to employ a procedure which included subjective and interpersonal knowing in the evaluation of counseling programs.

What was undertaken here was action research, identified by Blackwell as "research concerned with school problems, carried on by school personnel, to improve school practice" (1965, p. 242). In more formal terms, this was an ex post facto evaluation study, which, as Kerlinger pointed out, while it is "scientifically worthless and misleading" (in the sense that "the minimum of useful scientific information requires at least one formal comparison"), it is an important and legitimate strategy (1973, p. 318). He stated that

in studying life we depend on such "experimental" evidence. . . . the paradigm of thinking in practical affairs, which is implied by [ex post facto design], is not being criticized. . . . It is only when such a paradigm is labeled as scientific, or believed to be scientific, that difficulties arise. Even in high intellectual pursuits, this paradigm must be used (p. 318, emphasis added).

An ex post facto design, or action research, would appear to be appropriate for the present study.

That the evaluation of counseling is an issue in secondary education is clear from the sheer weight of publications devoted to the topic in the past ten years. Riggs, in his commentary on trends in counseling evaluation, listed some 70 journal titles published between 1969 and 1977 concerned with evaluation of personnel and programs alone (1979, pp. 54-59). Wells and Ritter decried the tendency of counselors to perform "routine tasks" at the expense of much needed evaluation and innovation (1979, pp. 170-175). Wiggins pointed out that

it has been suggested that one of the major reasons counselors are last hired and first fired lies in the area of accountability: more precisely, in the lack of accountability evidence that demonstrates that counselors are truly a positive influence in the lives of others (1977, p. 48).

Rothney and Farwell, in 1960, stated that "as the guidance movement enters into its second half-century, there is general recognition of the need for evaluation of its services, but little evidence that the need is being met" (p. 168). In 1970, Gamsky echoed that observation with his statement that "although there is general recognition of the need for evaluation of counseling services, there is little evidence that this need is being met" (p. 36). More recently, Pine identified evaluation as being "of paramount concern to all counselors regardless of their theoretical and philosophical biases" (1975, p. 136).

That evaluation of counseling is a problem in secondary education is equally apparent from the note, often strident, sounded by many of those who write on the question. The emphasis, as indicated

above, has been on procedures which define behavioral objectives and success criteria. All but one of the authors cited by Crabbs and Crabbs in their review of evaluation literature recommended a behavioral objectives approach to the evaluation of counseling services (1977, pp. 104-109). That lone exception was Gubser (1974), who commented on the limited utility of behavioral objectives in counseling and guidance. He pointed out that because a behavioral objectives approach is primarily concerned with short-term goals, its applicability to evaluation of counseling, where "what is learned. . . may not be applied for years" (p. 298), is at best tenuous. Sprinthall cited the dichotomy between the objective and the humanistic approaches as one reason for the paucity of counseling evaluations (1975, p. 311). He went on to say that

educators, either in counseling or curriculum development, have simply been content to shun research, too often deciding, since scientific or empirical research has produced so little new knowledge, to reject the whole enterprise. Nowhere is this clearer than in the area of evaluation and assessment of school programs. The humanist in us understands and is horrified by the assumptions of scientific research, so we do nothing. We are too busy. And so we, in effect, turn over the problems of research evaluation to a band of eager methodologists, and then reserve the right to criticize and reject their research (p. 313).

Evaluation as legitimate applied research is supported by people both within and outside education. Gamsky stated that "the counselor should be and usually is more concerned with an evaluation of his effectiveness than with discovering principles of universal applicability" (1970, p. 36). He expressed concern that an over-emphasis on basic research has resulted in a failure to attempt

necessary applied research. Rausch, on the other hand, proclaimed that "to learn about human and interhuman processes is basic to psychology" (1974, p. 678). He argued that the traditional research model yields little of value to the psychological practitioner, and encouraged intensive, qualitative studies, including evaluation, as appropriate tasks for graduate students. His intention, in part, was that psychologists in the field might continue to conduct applied research beyond their doctoral studies, if they had had experience with such research as students.

Given that the development of evaluation procedures and the field-testing of those procedures is acceptable applied research, another question presents itself. Is it appropriate for an investigator to put evaluation procedures to the test in his or her place of employment? Sprinthall pointed out the need for field-based evaluation in the "natural setting" (1975, p. 314). He declared that "research and development work could be situated in the schools and communities where the education process occurs, established as a part of the ongoing school operation, not as something alien to it" (p. 314). Wiggins pointed out a need for local, ongoing evaluation, stating that "counselors must initiate evaluation procedures based on their own goals and objectives. . . . accountability procedures must become an integral part of a total program" (1977, p. 50). Pine advocated "action research types of evaluative studies conducted at the local level to demonstrate the worth and importance of counseling in the school," stating that "every school counselor must spend part of the time in evaluative research" (1975, p. 316).

Public school personnel in the state of Oregon are mandated by the State Standards for Secondary Education of the Oregon Administrative Rules to develop and employ procedures for the evaluation of all curriculum areas and all programs (Oregon Department of Education, 1980, p. 13). How that evaluation is conducted is essentially the responsibility of each school's administrators. As funds for outside evaluation are not allocated, it is customary for evaluation to be conducted on an in-house basis by professional personnel working within the area or program being evaluated. It was the purpose of the study undertaken here to apply evaluation procedures which can be used on an in-house basis by counselors, and to test the effectiveness of those procedures to determine whether or not they would yield information of value in program development. It seemed to be both essential and appropriate to field-test the procedures in the circumstances in which they were intended to be used.

Concern has been expressed (Clark, 1980; Hall, 1980), that students may not be candid with an evaluator who is a known member of the faculty in their own school. One of the difficulties with evaluation of counseling on any but the most cursory survey or tabulation basis is the fact that there is a tendency to think of counseling as being of a very personal and sensitive nature. While it is true that much of the work done by high school counselors fits that description, in actual fact a considerable amount of counselor time is devoted to rather mundane dissemination of information. That the task may be mundane makes it no less important, when the information sought provides either the basis for decisions about what to do after

graduation from high school or the means for implementing college and employment plans. While students may be reluctant to be entirely honest with a faculty member about personal problems they have discussed with another counselor, it is less likely that they would fail to be candid about more routine matters: did they know whether or not to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test, or did they know what courses they needed to earn the program endorsements they wanted to appear on their high school transcripts.

Wells and Ritter (1979, p. 170), have suggested that evaluation may elicit feelings of hostility on the part of colleagues. Because of the time involved in preparation for and implementation of evaluation, a frequent reaction is one of relief when "someone else" accepts the responsibility for evaluation as a part of his or her professional work load. Part of the task of the evaluator is to elicit support and cooperation from colleagues.

The essential point of the evaluation procedure employed for this study was recognition of the mutual involvement of the researcher and her sources with each other and with the program component being evaluated. It was this mutual involvement which was being examined as a source of information too often overlooked in research in human interactions.

In summary, the primary problem of this study was to evaluate the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. Emphasis on behavioral objectives and criterion measures of success has dominated the field of counseling program evaluation. Clearly, counseling programs need to be evaluated in terms of

effectiveness: how best to fulfill that need is a matter of some debate. This study was an attempt to fulfill the need for counseling program evaluation via a humanistic approach.

The following chapter presents a discussion of the history of the problem, tracing developments in philosophy that have resulted in the dichotomy between a behavioral and a humanistic approach to the study of human experience.

Chapter 2

HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM

For more than 40 years, those concerned with counseling and guidance have agreed that the effectiveness of programs and processes in the helping professions needs to be evaluated (Bardo, Cody, & Bryson, 1978; Dressel, 1953; Metzler, 1964; Williamson & Bordin, 1941). The problems confronting evaluators of counseling and guidance are numerous. Such considerations as time for evaluation, identification of adequate criteria, preparation of counseling personnel for evaluation, and the differences between research and evaluation appear repeatedly in the literature (Bardo & Cody, 1975; Carr, 1977; Pine, 1975). However, the most persistent concern seems to be centered in philosophical issues, as evidenced in Duncan's discussion of traditions in educational evaluation in the United States. Duncan suggested that the values of the society are centered in three traditions, the scientific, the professional, and the democratic, which are not entirely compatible. He maintained that the principles of validity and reliability of the scientific tradition, the principles of equality, individual rights, and personal integrity in the democratic tradition, and the principles of autonomy and responsibility in the professional tradition can result in conflicts for those engaged in evaluating social institutions (1980, pp. 141-144). Professional judgment, for example, may conceivably attribute merit to a program for which scientific validation is either weak or entirely lacking.

More specifically to counseling, Carkhuff identified two

"dynamic forces," existentialism and behaviorism, as significant orientations in counseling, pointing out fundamental differences in philosophical stance between these two orientations.

Existentialism, with its emphasis upon (1) the counselor assuming the client's frame of reference and understanding his phenomenological field. . . . and (2) the client's freedom in discovering the meaning in his life. . . is in many ways antithetical to the second major movement. "Understanding is not enough," say the behaviorists, in their utilitarian view of counseling as a process of "whatever ethical activities a counselor undertakes in an effort to help a client engage in those types of behavior which will lead to a resolution of the client's problems (Krumboltz, 1965)." (1966, p. 467).

In reference to the evaluation of counseling effectiveness, this dichotomy has manifested itself in two opposing views, articulated by Williamson and Bordin in their critique of methodology.

Progress toward adequate evaluation of counseling has been impeded by two types of attitudes held by some personnel workers. Some counselors evaluate by means of arm-chair methods. That is, the effectiveness and general worth of counseling is held to be self-evident. . . Other personnel workers appear to believe that counseling cannot be evaluated. They maintain that the counseling process is so personal and individual that any attempt by the counselor to study it will impair his efficiency as a counselor and will create an artificial situation which will not even remotely resemble the real counseling relationship.

On the other hand, those who believe that counseling can and should be evaluated have taken one of three approaches. First, there is the approach which clings to traditional statistical methods in utilizing only those criteria that are objectively observable. . . . Second is the approach which utilizes non-statistical case study methods of evaluation. The third approach attempts to avoid the objections to the other two methods by using various objective and systematically derived criteria which are combined by means of impartial judgmental treatment in contrast with statistical summations (1941, p. 6).

That the philosophical dichotomy continues to exert an influence on the evaluation of counseling and guidance is apparent in contrasting arguments published within the past decade. Raush urged researchers in psychology to "scuttle a narrow, parochial, out-dated definition of research--one that would eliminate major contributors from Darwin to Freud to Piaget--in favor of definitions appropriate to natural and social sciences and the humanities" (1974, p. 679). However, the main thrust continues to be the development of evaluation methodologies based on management-by-objectives, criterion-based, or classical research (test-retest, experimental vs. control group) models (Carr, 1977; Helliwell & Jones, 1975; Humes, 1972a & 1972b).

Views of Reality

The source of these opposing positions derives ultimately from the ongoing debate between the view of reality of the positivist and that of the humanist (the latter Matson's term for those who oppose a positivistic/mechanistic view, 1966, p. 114). The positivist view holds that "it is only in the sciences--and especially in physics--that we have anything that can be called knowledge (Jones, 1975, p. 220). For the positivist, the "'facts' of any science were solely those gathered through external observation, so for scientific purposes the 'inner life' was held to be simply inaccessible and irrelevant" (Matson, 1964, p. 34).

The rejection of "psychology" (consciousness) was in effect a denial of rationality and of all distinctively human qualities; while the reduction of man to a merely biological object restricted him also to a passive and irrelevant role in the ongoing movement of social progress (Matson, 1964, (p. 35).

In his discussion of phenomenology, Jones (1975) identified the essential differences in positivist and humanist, as represented here by phenomenological, views of reality. While the positivist holds that "consciousness can be safely ignored," the phenomenologist considers that consciousness is not only important but intentional (p. 251-252). Where positivists maintain that "explanation consists in the analysis of complexes into their parts," a reductionist view, phenomenologists are "impressed with the interconnectedness of things" (p. 252). Both positivists and phenomenologists have been concerned about the relation "between the world that physics discloses and the world of ordinary perception;" however, for the positivist a "properly rigorous logical analysis of language," disinterested in "man's existential, or moral, relation to the aseptic world of physics," would dispose of the puzzle (p. 252). Phenomenologists, on the other hand,

were unwilling to write off as 'subjective' the experiential world of lovely, hateful, enduring and transitory things; hence, they took their stand on this experiential world. . . . rejected that bifurcation of nature to which, it seemed, physics had committed modern culture (pp. 252-253).

And, finally, "both movements believed there is a barrier between our minds and things and that it is the business of philosophy to overcome this barrier" (p. 253). For the positivist, the barrier was "sloppy language," to be overcome by clarifying "linguistic muddles and confusions" via an ideal language in which precision was a keynote (pp. 253-254).

For the phenomenologists the barrier consisted less in language than in preconceptions--such as the atomistic preconception that dominated much of the thinking of the earlier analytical philosophers. Thus clarity was their aim, too, but it

was to be achieved by looking at things directly, instead of indirectly through a pair of philosophical spectacles. They felt no particular need to prune language; indeed, their method actually encouraged it to flourish. Their effort to describe the unusual and surprising things they encountered when they did succeed in looking at things directly, led them to employ a terminology so complex, elaborate, and esoteric that it repulsed philosophers of the analytic persuasion (p. 254).

Nature of Scientific Enquiry

In terms of research in the social or behavioral sciences, this broad-based argument finds expression in opposing views regarding the nature of scientific enquiry. The positivist approach relies on "quantitativism, behaviorism, and a positivist epistemology" (Matson, 1964, p. 67). Polanyi stated that

modern man has set up as the ideal of knowledge the conception of natural science as a set of statements which is "objective" in the sense that its substance is entirely determined by observation, even while its presentation may be shaped by convention. This conception, stemming from a craving rooted in the very depths of our culture, would be shattered if the intuition of rationality in nature had to be acknowledged as a justifiable and indeed essential part of scientific theory. That is why scientific theory is represented as a mere economical description of facts; or as embodying a conventional policy for drawing empirical inferences; or as a working hypothesis, suited to man's practical convenience--interpretations that all deliberately overlook the rational core of science (1958, p. 16).

In the social and behavioral sciences, this ideal of knowledge results in the position that scientific enquiry appropriately concentrates on externally perceivable reactions and measurable data (Matson, 1964, p. 66-68), a position held by the behaviorists. Fodor, in his

discussion of psychological explanation, stated that

to qualify as a behaviorist in the broad sense of that term that I shall employ, one need only believe that the following proposition expresses a necessary truth: For each mental predicate that can be employed in a psychological explanation, there must be at least one description of behavior to which it bears a logical connection (1968, p. 51).

This basic proposition is manifested in Carnap's contention that "there cannot be a term in the psychological language. . . . which designates a kind of state or event without any behavioristic symptom" (Jones, 1975, p. 233).

But "symptoms" evades the issue. Few people would deny the claim that psychological processes have observable, behavioristic symptoms. . . . The real question is whether the psychological process is reducible to symptoms; whether, for example, the patient's Oedipus complex is the same thing as his violent physical attack on his father. Not everyone would agree it is, and some psychologists and philosophers of science would go so far as to say, not only that the process and the symptom are not identical, but that it is impossible even to talk about the symptom (as a physical event), without presupposing the process (as a psychological event) (Jones, 1975, p. 234).

The effort to couch psychological statements in terms of observable behavioral events is known as operational analysis, introduced by the mathematical physicist, Percy W. Bridgman. According to operationalism, the "meaning of a proposition is simply the particular set of 'operations' required to implement or verify it" (Matson, 1964, p. 237). Operationalism seemed to supply the methodology necessary to fulfill the goal of absolute objectivity in scientific enquiry, and was embraced by physical and social scientists alike. Becker, in his history of sociology, noted that "by 1920 sociology had undergone a startling change, and opted for methodological rigor after the model

of the physical sciences, aided by a sharp impetus from behaviorism in its sister discipline, 'scientific' psychology" (1968, p. 74).

But meanwhile a curious thing was happening. The author of operationalism had himself begun to reappraise and revise his concept in the light of momentous developments in his own fields of physics and mathematics. . . . And the conclusion to which Bridgman found himself more and more drawn was "the insight that we never get away from ourselves"--that the operations involved in any scientific performance, or for that matter in any human act, are ultimately and irreducibly individual. There was, he concluded, simply no escaping the personal reference point, the stubborn particularity of the solitary knower doing his job (Matson, 1964, pp. 237-238).

Polanyi asserted, in proposing an alternative method of scientific enquiry, that insistence upon a remote objectivity in science is futile.

I start by rejecting the ideal of scientific detachment. In the exact sciences, this false ideal is perhaps harmless, for it is in fact disregarded there by scientists. But we shall see that it exercises a destructive influence in biology, psychology, and sociology, and falsifies our whole outlook far beyond the domain of science. I want to establish an alternative ideal of knowledge, quite generally (1958, p. xiii).

Ultimately, what both Matson and Polanyi are saying is that the positivist, reductionist, objectivist approach to scientific enquiry is inadequate, because it ignores the participation of the knower, both scientist and subject, in what is known. Polanyi stated that "into every act of knowing there enters a passionate contribution of the person knowing what is known" (1958, p. xiv). In his discussion of scientific discovery, he argued that, far from being objectively detached, the scientist is passionately involved in his work: "the excitement of the scientist making a discovery is an intellectual

passion, telling that something is intellectually precious, and, more particularly, that it is precious to science (p. 134).

Rogers anticipated Polanyi's concern with his 1955 essay on the differences he perceived in psychological research and therapy.

Gradually, I have come to believe that the most basic error. . . was in the description of scienceThe major shortcoming was, I believe, in viewing science as something "out there". . . . Science exists only in people (1955, p. 274).

As regards the subject of scientific enquiry, Matson pointed out that

one of the most remarkable developments in contemporary perceptual theory has been what may quite simply be called the rediscovery of consciousness. What is especially in point is the discovery of numerous investigators that the subjects of their tests are able to report their perceptions, to talk about their own experience, with unsuspected accuracy and reliability. . . . In short, the subjects have known what they were doing. . . . paralleling this rediscovery and reinstatement of the conscious subject in perception is a recent trend in the neighboring field of motivational theory--the dawning recognition, in Gordon W. Allport's words, "that the best way to discover what a person is trying to do is to ask him" (1964), p. 173).

In his criticism of psychological experimentation, Newell stated "that the same human subject can adopt many (radically different) methods for the same basic task. . . implies that the 'normal' means of science may not suffice" (1972, p. 299). He suggested that the "normal" means of science tend to overlook such idiosyncratic factors as personal goals, background knowledge, and the value of the task to the subject. What would appear to be needed are methods in science which include introspection, intention, and respect for the subject being studied. What Matson means by respect for the human subject is "taking him seriously

'on his own terms,' both in his conscious purposes and in the deeper values he is seeking to actualize" (p. 162)

Psychology and Enquiry

At the level of psychology, the argument traced from philosophy through the nature of scientific enquiry manifests itself in the opposition between behaviorist and humanist or "third force" psychologies (Maslow's terms, 1968, 1970, and 1971). Koch characterizes the behaviorist perspective as based on objectivism, the Stimulus-Response orientation, peripheralism, and environmental determinism (1968, pp. 7-9). Objectivism in the behaviorist sense insists upon "objective techniques for securing data and the corollary disposition to (in Watson's phrase) 'bury subjective subject matter'" (p. 7). Stimulus-Response orientation refers to the contentions that "all lawful psychological statements are to be expressed in terms of stimulus and response" and that all problems of learning are to be phrased in terms of conditioning (pp. 8-9). Peripheralism is concerned with how "phenomena traditionally classed as 'mental' might be treated in S-R terms," that is as the interactions between "receptors, effectors, and their most direct nerve connections" (p. 8). Peripheralism depends on the reduction of psychological processes to observable symptoms, discussed by Jones, quoted above. Environmental determinism refers to the behaviorist contention that the "human machine behaves in a certain way because environmental stimulation has forced him to" (Z. Y. Kuo, quoted in Matson, 1964, p. 45). Matson pointed out that "behaviorism as a science came to stand for the deliberate limitation of scientific interest to the

objectively observable," that is, to overt behavior (p. 39).

Humanist psychologists object to this limitation of scientific interest. Maslow (1968, pp. 214-219), after calling into question the assumption of scientific detachment or objectivity, stated that

we must help the "scientific" psychologists to realize that they are working on the basis of a philosophy of science, not the philosophy of science, and that any philosophy of science which serves primarily an excluding function is a set of blinders, a handicap rather than a help. All the world, all of experience must be open to study. Nothing not even the "personal" problems, need to be closed off from human investigation (p. 218).

Lest he be mistaken as attacking science, Maslow went on to say, "rather I am suggesting that we enlarge the jurisdiction of science so as to include within its realm the problems and the data of personal and experiential psychology" (p. 218). This is consistent with the criticism of a strictly positivist approach to science formulated by philosophers of science and psychology such as Matson, Polanyi and Fodor. With particular reference to existentialist philosophy, Matson stated the position thus:

man's deepest and most reliable knowledge of the world around him--in particular of himself and others--is attained not through detachment but attachment, not by reductive analysis but constructive synthesis, not in a state of estranged aloofness but in something like an act of love. To regard man as an indivisible subject rather than an assembled product--to meet him on his own ground and in his own terms--is, in the existentialist view, not just a moral imperative but a heuristic necessity to be faced by all who seek the truth. There can be no science of man that does not see him whole, as at once organic and humane--both as acting and reacting, behaving and intending, determined and determining, being and becoming (1964, pp. 222-223).

Rogers, in discussing the phenomenological-existential trend

in psychology, predicted that one of the major consequences would be a "more inclusive and a more profound science" (1969, p. 32).

Psychology will now be capable of focusing on a broader reality, which will include not only behavior, but the person and perspective of the observer, and the person and perspective of the observed. . . . To limit oneself to consideration of externally observable behaviors, to rule out of consideration the whole universe of inner meanings, of purposes, of the inner flow of experiencing, seems to me to be closing our eyes to great areas which confront us when we look at the human world. Furthermore, to hold to the beliefs, which seem to me to characterize many behaviorists, that science is impersonal, that knowledge is an entity, that science somehow carries itself forward without the subjective person of the scientist being involved is, I think, completely illusory (pp. 32-33).

Rogers has, according to Patterson, been accused of "having set psychology back 50 years," which he goes on to maintain may well be a good thing, psychology having got on the wrong track (1965, p. 998).

Counseling and Enquiry

And, finally, at the level of the evaluation of counseling, the dichotomy as identified by Williamson and Bordin (1941) and by Carkhuff (1966), cited above, is extant. Goldman (1976), in reviewing research in counseling, indicated that

we have. . . focused too narrowly on the traditional goals, standards, and methods of the physical sciences, even when our research in counseling has been concerned with essentially practical problems of a highly intangible nature. Our textbooks and teachers of research have been too much bound to those traditions and have sanctified precision, measurement, statistical methodology, and the controlled laboratory experiment (p. 545).

In a symposium on research in counseling, Shoben stated that "until the operational criteria used in specific studies are related to the realities of the client's actual world, their meaningfulness remains moot and controversial" (1953, p. 289). Landsman, discussing the implications of existentialism for counseling, suggested that improvement in counseling research and evaluation would come not from "imitation of the methodology of the contemporary behavioral scientist but rather in the innovative creation of designs and tools more applicable to the depth orientation of the existentialist" (1965, p. 571). Carkhuff pointed out in his review of the literature which had been published in 1965 that "not enough meaningful questions are asked. The truly critical variables receive the least attention" (1966, p. 476).

Riccio, on the other hand, exhorted counselors to state objectives "in terms of the desired behavioral outcomes of students," to develop lists of specific activities structured as a means for realizing those objectives, and to evaluate success on the basis of criteria, defined as "observable or measurable factors" (1962, pp. 100-106).

Michael and Meyerson stated the behaviorist view even more strongly.

The phenomenon with which counselors deal, then, is behavior, and the independent variable which controls behavior must be environment. A behavioral system attempts to specify, without reference to hypothetical, inner-determining agents, the conditions and process by which environment controls human behavior (1962, p. 382).

And, further, they stated that

observable behavior is the only variable of importance in the counseling and guidance process, and it is the only criterion against which the outcome of the process can be evaluated (p. 395).

Strike, incidentally, in a review of Skinner's Beyond Freedom and Dignity, discussed the peculiar behaviorist use of the term "control."

Behavior is autonomous when it has (or could have) among its causes processes of evaluation or reasoning, when the environment functions as evidence. However, Skinner's use of "control" obscures this distinction. Every kind of influence becomes an instance of a single logical type, control. . . . It does not mirror the distinction between persuasion and manipulation, between influences which retard reason and autonomy and those which enhance them (1975, pp. 125-127).

Maslow, as well, objected to the behaviorist contention that the environment controls human behavior.

Man is ultimately not molded or shaped into humanness or taught to be human. The role of the environment is ultimately to permit him or help him to actualize his own potentialities, not its potentialities. The environment does not give him potentialities and capacities; he has them in inchoate or embryonic form. . . . let us avoid this confusion. A teacher or a culture doesn't create a human being. It doesn't implant within him the ability to love, or to symbolize, or to be creative. Rather it permits, or fosters, or encourages, or helps what exists in the embryo to become real and actual. . . . The culture is sun and food and water; it is not the seed (1968, pp. 160-161).

These objections notwithstanding, the primary emphasis continues to be on an objectives approach to evaluation of counseling services. Krumboltz, while he agreed that counselors must state the "goals of counseling in terms of overt behavior change," also suggested that the different goals of different clients must be taken into account (1966, pp. 156-157). His contention was that if counselors succeed in helping people to change their behavior in the direction of more competent actions, "they will receive more positive feedback from their friends,

relatives, and employers; then their feelings about themselves will improve as a matter of course." He failed to consider the possibility that friends, relatives, and employers may not only fail to recognize "more competent actions," but that they may actively resent them, resulting in neutral or negative feedback. This is the kind of objection humanists raise to the behaviorist insistence on considering only observable behaviors.

O'Hare and Lasser developed an outcome-referenced evaluation device, built on behavioral objectives and behavioral counseling practices. They appear to consider only outcome-referenced evaluation to be sufficiently "objective" to yield useful evaluation information. It is worth noting that the desired behavioral outcomes for students were selected by teachers; and that the counseling role was essentially one of helping teachers learn to modify their own behavior in order to facilitate modifying student behavior (1975, pp. 93-96).

Helliwell and Jones (1975) developed a model program of accountability in which "guidance results are evaluated in terms of outcomes based on observable student behaviors" (p. 155). They give no examples of objectives or of measurement instruments, but express their concern over the failure of participating teachers and counselors to write proper behavioral objectives and success criterion measures.

Humes did give some examples of appropriate behavioral objectives in his description of a management by objectives approach to guidance evaluation.

1. To demonstrate individual growth increase in personal and educational development for 90 percent of the students based on a rating sheet that will be

completed by the counselor at the beginning of the seventh grade and the end of the ninth grade.

2. To provide counseling for all students who desire, or who are referred, to the counselor for counseling within three days after request, with verification of this to occur by examination of guidance office records.

3. To see at least once in the guidance office and by the end of the year 90 percent of students assigned to the counselor. This will be determined by the maintenance of a counselor record of interviews.

4. To demonstrate improvement in 75 percent of the students who are seen three or more times for counseling over the school year. This will be documented by the counselor's interview records.

5. To involve 100 percent of the entering seventh grade students in an orientation program, either individually or in groups, and to determine if 90 percent of the students have profited by this program by being able to answer correctly 15 of 20 true-false questions on the junior high school test and its makeup three months after school opens.

5. To acquaint students with a variety of educational and occupation information over a three-year period so that 90 percent of ninth grade students can answer correctly 20 of 25 true-false questions pertaining to a selected sample of the above information (1972b, pp. 315-316, emphasis added).

The objectives cited above are consistent with Hume's statement that a systems approach reduces complex problems and relationships to "simple outputs" (p. 314). One recalls Carkhuff's concern that insufficient attention is given to critical variables.

It would appear that Rogers's promise of a "more inclusive and a more profound science" remains a promise, as yet unfulfilled at least in the realm of counseling evaluation. Caliste reviewed research reports of experimental efforts purporting to evaluate counselors and found them lacking because of a tendency to use single-criterion instruments.

He went on to say

The most disconcerting characteristic of the accountability thrust involves overemphasis on observable behaviors and minimal emphasis on a

better understanding of people.

The behaviorist finds solace in measuring the amount or degree of observable change resulting from the intervention of an independent variable. Thus, needs assessment instruments, and criterion reference measures have been proposed. A criterion reference test yields measurements directly interpretable in terms of specific performance standards. Counselor competency and thus accountability for school counselors would be measured by observable behaviors within the school setting. It demeans the counseling process to infer competence on the basis of immediate changes in students, especially on short-range goals. The school counselor is a pragmatic and philosophical practitioner charged with responsibility for inducing self-direction in his students. He must deal with an elusive concept, the mind, an unobservable aggregation of ideas which comprises the sum total of the conscious state of being and thus remain subject to fluctuating pressures of environmental demands. . . . Counseling is a process, not an event (1978, pp. 234-235).

The major impetus in evaluation of counseling programs continues to be on the development of behavioral objectives and evaluation by observable criteria. As yet, only one way of knowing, objective knowing, has been employed, or at least reported, to any appreciable extent. The literature reviewed in the following chapter substantiates the need for evaluation and documents the emphasis on objective knowing in evaluation studies. Further, the review presents criticisms of objective approaches to evaluation and recommendations for a methodology for a humanistic approach.

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Need for Evaluation

The need for evaluation of counseling programs finds expression in the literature from essentially two points of view, that of preservation of jobs for counselors and that of improving the quality of services offered. The first point of view is frequently associated with questions of accountability, or providing to consumers evidence that the cost of counseling is justified. Humes cited the demands of the "general public" for accountability of guidance programs, declaring that "the very existence of guidance as an educational speciality may be at stake" (1972b, p. 313). Buckner pointed out that the "accountability of the counselor's time and activity has received increased attention in recent years" (1972, p. 187). Warner indicated dissatisfaction with the professional literature, stating that

while not negating good intentions, good thought pieces, or even pre-experimental research projects, I believe that these are not sufficient in an age when those who pay the bill for counseling services are asking "How do you know you make a difference?" Good evaluation and research procedures can lead to answers to this question (1975, p. 792).

Baker, having quite candidly stated that adequate accountability of counseling is required to "preserve jobs" for counselors, cited other rewards of evaluation, among them the acquisition of evaluative skills, program improvement, and the "positive effects of positive feedback" (1977, pp. 53-55).

During the past four years, the cry for evaluation has continued unabated, sometimes with greater, sometimes with lesser urgency in its tone. Bradley labeled accountability "the word of the day. . . . Educational budgets are being cut from national to local levels, and schools and all organizations are hurting. Some schools have already eliminated counseling jobs" (1978, pp. 42-43). Riggs identified modern consumer awareness as the source for the current attention to counselor evaluation.

In the past ten years, the evaluation of counselor effectiveness has become a primary concern. The consumer movement and the response to it of the counseling field, as seen in the emphasis on increased professionalization, are major factors in the current efforts in the areas of accountability and program evaluation (1979, p. 54).

This concern for economic accountability was shared by Knapper, (1978) and by Wheeler and Loesch (1981).

The rather overwhelming concern of these writers with justifying the existence of counselors and counseling programs suggests that they are among those Williamson and Bordin identified as arm-chair evaluators, taking the effectiveness and general worth of counseling as self-evident (1941, p. 6). The emphasis on time-cost analysis tends to obscure any consideration of the non-economic evaluation of counseling as an effective means for helping people to confront life problems. Others have been less ambiguous. In his 1964 review of publications addressing the evaluation of counseling and guidance, Metzler labeled the research as "notable by its weakness" (p. 285). He expressed concern that confusion about the goals of counseling and guidance has resulted in evaluation research efforts that "have made only minimal

contributions and have proven to be of little value to existing programs" (p. 288).

In an editorial addressed to the readership of Personnel and Guidance Journal, Goldman called for effective evaluation studies, which would allow counselors to determine whether or not particular practices would be applicable to their clients in their professional settings (1973, p. 522). He suggested that traditional evaluation research reports have been too limited in scope to provide such information, or so "technical in nature that the average [counselor] simply would not get much out of them" (p. 522). He maintained that the need for evaluation of counseling is not being met. Evaluation of effectiveness of counselors was identified as a need not being fulfilled by Haase and Miller (1968), Schmidt (1974), and Lindley (1974).

Apparently, whether one addresses the problem from the point of view of preserving counseling, and incidentally, counselors, as a viable aspect of educational programs, or from the point of view of examining the worth of counseling to clients, counseling and guidance programs need to be evaluated.

Evaluation Studies

Early evaluation of counseling effectiveness, as exemplified by Froehlich's work, concentrates on efforts to identify criteria for which comparative data might be collected (1949, pp. 255-267). Froehlich identified three criteria, occupational adjustment, attitude toward counseling, and change in occupational or educational status, which were to be measured by client self-report and interviewer assessments.

This was among the first of the criterion-referenced studies which have dominated the field, and one of the few which recognized the potential worth of the self-reports of subjects as well as more objective measurement criteria. Froehlich considered the criteria selected for his research to be appropriate to measure the degree of client change in various aspects of life, and the extent to which counseling may have influenced change (p. 267).

Kaczkowski and Rothney pointed out 25 years ago that

the need for and the importance of evaluation of counseling has been emphasized many times in the professional literature, but very few evaluative studies have appeared (1956, p. 231).

Kaczkowski and Rothney's research was intended to identify factors which might be involved in the relative degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the post-high school graduation activities of counseled and non-counseled males and females. While "no clear cut distinction between counseled and non-counseled groups" was found, the authors suggested that the six month interval between counseling and follow-up may not be sufficient to allow the effects of counseling to be manifested (p. 235). Perhaps more important was their contention that "criteria need not be developed before evaluation is done" (p. 235). In using discriminant analysis, for example, "the group to which an individual belongs is the criterion which orients the analysis of data" (p. 232).

Using as criterion variables self-awareness, career decision-making ability, career problem solving ability, and career planning ability, Cates evaluated individual vocational counseling and systematic

group counseling as to their relative effectiveness with rehabilitation clients, all handicapped veterans (1979). He found no difference between individual counseling and control no-treatment groups. Veterans involved in systematic group counseling, however, evidenced enhanced self-concept, career competencies, and career maturity.

The criteria used in the Froehlich and Cates studies would not meet the requirements for success criteria advocated by Dressel. He identified the problems involved in the evaluation of counseling, including the definition of criteria, employment of an appropriate research design, and financing for evaluation, concluding that "it is apparent that all too little attention is being given to the definition in operational terms of outcomes of counseling" (1953, p. 287). He recommended a traditional research design involving the development of hypotheses stated in operational terms and statistical analysis of data, including comparisons of processes in terms of explicitly stated outcomes (p. 286).

Criterion-referenced evaluation has attracted the attention and efforts of many researchers since its introduction. Riccio, in presenting an argument for criterion-referenced research, listed the following requirements: (1) a statement of objectives "in terms of desired behavioral outcomes of students;" (2) a list of specific activities structured as a means of realizing objectives; and (3) research methodology for determining whether or not objectives have been met (1962, p. 100). He identified as an acceptable criterion "some observable or measureable factor which can be used to indicate that an objective of the guidance program has been reached" (p. 106). He did not

suggest that reports of clients might be criteria for success or failure of a program, or that the objectives of clients need to be considered.

Having stated that "the central purpose of counseling. . . is to help each client resolve those problems for which he requests help," Krumboltz went on to say that if the client is "still bothered by the problem" after termination of counseling, the counselor has failed; whereas, if the client has either resolved the problem or planned a course of action for doing so, the counselor has succeeded (1965, p. 384). He recommended the use of client's requests as the basis for generating success criteria for counseling (p. 384). In a later publication, Krumboltz clarified his position somewhat by advocating that the goals of counseling be stated in terms of overt behavior change (1966, p. 153). Measuring overt behavior change would be considerably less complex than measuring whether or not, and to what degree, a client is still bothered, after counseling, by the problem for which he sought counseling in the first place. If, however, the presenting problem is not one that can be addressed in terms of changes in overt behavior, the process of evaluation has been forwarded little by Krumboltz's suggestion.

Bardo tested the procedures and generalizations involved in criterion-referenced evaluation, using counselor-generated measurable program objectives and criteria for success levels, concluding that comparisons of areas of strength and weakness, as revealed by student achievement of criterion levels, can give insight into the effectiveness of various practices (1973). Effective practices, in this instance, would be those which result in students' reaching acceptable levels towards objectives designed by counselors.

Humes advocated a management-by-objectives approach to the evaluation of counseling and guidance, citing specifically planning, programming, budgeting systems (PPBS) methods (1972b, pp. 313-318). He maintained that a systems approach "reduces problems and relationships to simple outputs to be used for problem-solving and decision-making" (p. 314). He said of objectives for a PPBS approach that they

are accomplishments that can be measured within a given time frame. The objectives are measurable and state specifically how the degree of achievement will be measured. Objectives are grouped and arranged with reference to the goal that is supported (p. 314).

Reporting on the application of a PPBS approach to the evaluation of a junior high school guidance program Humes noted that an effort to analyze the total pupil personnel services organization was abandoned because of the diverse nature of the program. The guidance element was selected for analysis because of its "potential as a problem area for the school district" (p. 315). Six of the objectives written for the evaluation are cited above (p. 12). Humes noted in his discussion that

the quantitative approach in the described program analysis leaves much to be desired. For example, it does not get at those relationship variables that are considered crucial in terms of counseling outcomes. However, one may make a case for the assumption of those counseling outcomes should the desired objectives be achieved. Counseling outcomes are exceedingly elusive indicating that perhaps a pragmatic assessment of guidance program productivity is as useful as any other technique (p. 317).

Management-by-objectives continues to be advanced as an appropriate technique for evaluation of counseling (Helliwell & Jones, 1975; Koch, 1974; Krumboltz, 1974; Lasser, 1975).

Miller and Grisdale reviewed reports of systems analysis approaches to the evaluation of guidance programs, noting the strong emphasis on needs assessment, goal writing, and measurable outcomes (1975, pp. 145-154). They called for concentrated efforts to establish success criteria, or "product evaluation measures" (p. 154). Pine as well expressed concern with the need for measurable success criteria, maintaining that "measuring the outcomes of counseling is basically a question of measuring human behavior, for if counseling has been successful, positive behavioral changes have take place" (1975, p. 138). He went on to note that people may vary in what they deem to be positive behavioral changes (p. 138). Further, he indicated that

The criterion problem is perhaps the single most vital issue affecting the process of evaluation. Generally speaking, the application of most criteria identified in counseling research literature has not yielded data to validate conclusively that counseling is helpful. Perhaps this is because criteria have not been derived from the individual client's unique situation (p. 138).

Burck and Peterson advocated evaluation based on the development of clear goals and performance objectives, the latter characterized by "a specific behavior, an assessment situation, and a minimum standard of performance" (1975, p. 567). Evaluation methods using other than an objectives approach, they viewed dimly, as at best inadequate (pp. 565-566). Bardo, Cody, and Bryson, having cited the difficulties involved in program evaluation and suggested some possible solutions, recommended a behavioral objectives or criterion-referenced evaluation procedure. Unlike many writers, they presented samples of their objectives and success criterion standards, which included the following:

Educational Objectives. The student will become aware of elective and extra-curricular activities available in the school.

Item. Given a master list of courses, the students will indicate electives their classes can take.

Criterion. At the time of registration, 80 percent of all students will be able to identify the elective courses on the registration sheets that are available to them at their grade levels. . . .

Social Objective. The student should become aware of the skills needed for effective functioning in a social group, such as cooperation, compromise, and respect for others.

Item. Students should be able to identify those characteristics or traits that an individual should possess in order to be a good member of a group.

Criterion. Eighty percent of the ninth-grade students will be able to identify skills needed for effective functioning in a social group (p. 207).

They commented that the objectives selected dealt with the awareness level only, "to point out that criteria need not be difficult or impossible to determine" (p. 207).

A variation on the theme was Patza's study of student ratings of counselor-generated counseling objectives stated in terms of student behavioral outcomes. He found a high degree of agreement between counselors and students in the relative importance of objectives, noting that no group rated any of the given objectives as below average in importance (1977). Ratings of counselor-generated objectives were also considered by Cook (1980).

Knapper, concerned about counselors' identifying behavioral outcomes, specific goals, performance objectives, and measurable criteria for a counseling program, developed a model which he characterized as "essentially an environmental assessment that provides information relative to society needs, expectations, and desires" in its external component, and a "self-monitoring process that provides

performance data" in its internal component (1978, p. 30). His model involved eliciting evaluative data from people outside the profession, and incorporating that information into an intra-professional monitoring system (pp. 29-30). Orlich developed a planning and evaluation grid based on observable behaviors (1979, pp. 22-27). He recommended that the entire planning and evaluation system be based on such a model, relying on operational definitions of the variables of the counseling program, suggesting that "states suffering from a 'Proposition 13 mentality' [reduction in tax revenues] surely desire a mechanism similar to this one" (p. 27).

The evaluation of counseling has not been confined exclusively to measurement-by-objectives. In recent years, studies investigating the role of the counselor as perceived by various others in the school setting, counselor effectiveness as measured by survey results, awareness of counseling services, various counselor attributes as they influence student ratings of effectiveness, and comparisons of the effectiveness of different kinds of intervention have emerged. Cox (1969) and Leviton (1977) both found that, among school personnel or other helping professionals, counselors were seen as best able to help students with problems of educational or career choice, but were much less likely to be approached for help with personal problems. In a follow-up study using a questionnaire administered one, three, and five years after graduation, Brisson found that high school graduates expressed strongly-felt needs for counseling assistance in making educational plans, selection of high school courses, and vocational guidance, but little need for personal counseling (1975).

Lundt (1981) found that grade 11 students completing a 28 item 5-point rating scale rated counselors as effective in terms of availability, communication skills, personal qualities, skill in making individual assessments, interest in students, providing consultation services, and fulfilling overall counselor roles. In his attempt to determine student perceptions of student personnel services at a state community college, Turner administered a questionnaire, the results of which suggested that students perceived student personnel services favorably, technical students less favorably than university transfer students, females more favorably than males (1980). Carney, Savitz, and Weiskott employed a telephone interview technique to examine university counseling services, finding that 28 percent of those interviewed had no awareness of the counseling center and its services. Of the 24 percent who had used counseling services, 90 percent rated the counseling they had received as from somewhat to very helpful (1979, pp. 242-249).

Chambers (1979) and Melchior (1980) addressed themselves to studies of counselor attributes as they may influence client ratings of counselor effectiveness on rating scales. Sabey compared traditional pre-marital counseling using the Marriage Expectation Inventory, with Couples' Self-Awareness Exploration and Evaluation (Co-See), a directed interview program, as interventions to enhance a couple's communication, clergy self-confidence in pre-marital counseling, clergy willingness to spend time in pre-marital counseling, the general satisfaction of couples with the counseling they received, and the willingness of couples to seek third-person help for marital problems. He found the

Co-See program to be superior to the traditional approach, from the point of view of both clergy and counseled couples, on the parameters investigated (1981). Miles evaluated two training procedures, Parent Effectiveness Training and Microtraining, as to their value in teaching parents and parishioners basic listening and communication skills (1980). Using a pretest-posttest control group design, Price found a program of two 14-week activity-interview group counseling treatments to be effective in enhancing the self-esteem and improving the classroom behavior of teacher-referred students (1980). Horton evaluated the effects of the College Entrance Examination Board program, Decisions and Outcomes, on the decision-making skills of grade 11 students (1980). Pledger found that a work center program involving counseling of referred students was effective in enhancing students' attitudes toward school, reducing the number of school leavers, reducing the number of suspensions from school, and increasing attendance at schools with the program as an alternative to suspension (1980).

In what she characterized as a humanistic evaluation of health care policy in Great Britain and the United States, Fuchs identified tendencies toward dehumanization in health care, using existing public documents, case studies, evaluation studies, findings from medical experiments, and statistical data as sources of information (1980). Her criteria for degree of dehumanization included the extent to which health care services failed to recognize the individual as whole and unique; to treat the individual as an end rather than the means to an end; to encourage autonomy for the medical practitioner and freedom for the patient; to encourage patient participation in treatment; and to

recognize the equality of status between physicians and patients. She pointed out that research in medicine has concentrated on questions of efficiency, cost-effectiveness criteria, and the functional nature of various aspects of health care, tending to ignore patients and physicians as human beings with social and psychological as well as physiological needs. The same might be said of evaluation of counseling programs.

Criticism of Studies

Educational evaluation generally has been under attack for a number of years and from a number of fronts. Guba cited the discrepancy between evaluation results and practical experience, noting that

the traditional methods of evaluators have failed educators in their attempts to assess the impact of innovations in operating systems. Indeed, for decades the evidence produced by the application of conventional evaluation procedures has contradicted the experimental evidence of the practitioner. Innovations have persisted in education not because of the supporting evidence of evaluation, but despite it (1969, p. 29).

Guba reviewed the history of evaluation in education, citing the shortcomings of definitions of evaluation based on measurement (which gives evaluation a focus on the development and interpretation of instruments, obscures the need for value judgments, and limits evaluation to those variables for which adequate measurement instruments have been or can be developed); the congruence between performance and behavioral objectives (which reduces evaluation to consideration of student behaviors, and concentrates almost exclusively on terminal rather than on-going assessment); professional judgment (which relies on external visitation teams and is essentially an accreditation rather than an

evaluation device; and surveys (which lack precision and objectivity and "hide both the data considered and the criteria or standards used to assess them, because the process is implicit") (pp. 33-34).

In reference to evaluation of counseling, Gamsky, having cited general recognition of the need for such evaluation, expressed concern that over-emphasis on basic research has resulted in a failure to attempt necessary applied research--including evaluation (1970, pp. 36-42).

He pointed out that in evaluation, either holding things static, as for traditional experimental-control group designs, or disrupting routine or upsetting faculty is administrative anathema (p. 39). He indicated the need to consider the goals of the institution as well as those of the individuals who function within the institutional framework.

Gamsky also suggested that, although preferable to the classic basic research model for evaluation, "field research is usually informal, often difficult, and sometimes a messy business," characteristics which discourage researchers from attempting it (p. 41). Balaban maintained that "evaluative efforts have, for the most part, been as unsuccessful as the Great Society programs which spawned them" (1973, p. 60). He went further to state that

program evaluations of broad-aim programs have suffered from inappropriate and ineffectual application of quasi-experimental and experimental designs. Even when appropriately applied, experimental designs relate specifically to outcome evaluation.

Study of process and input are also required in program evaluation (p. 67).

Process, Balaban explained,

is a particular conceptual focus. It is conceived as a connecting link between input and outcome. Process refers to effects or events set in motion by such

input as personal activity and program implementation and to the conversion of those inputs to outcomes (p. 61).

Ripstra set out to evaluate the quality of experimental research in counseling and counselor education reported in Journal of Counseling Psychology, Personnel and Guidance Journal, and Counselor Education and Supervision from 1962 through 1973 (1975). Trained raters using the Evaluation Instrument for Experimental Methodology found that 38 studies randomly selected from each three-year span covered by the study showed a slight positive increase in graphic illustration over time. However, in total, the quality of experimental research reports, including method, results, and discussion, was characterized as barely adequate.

Part of the problem with evaluation research seems for some to be the lack of reference to the subjects of studies. Arbuckle rather early on discussed reality as dependent on one's participation in it, and values as existing only within the human community (1965). He pointed out that the client is the central figure in counseling, the one whose decisions and observations count (pp. 558-559). However, rarely does evaluation seek to consider the clients' experiences of reality. The closest attempts stop with observations of client behavior or client ratings on scales constructed without client participation. Carkhuff pointed out that

counselor variables do not operate in vacuo, but, rather, interact with relevant client variables, such as initial level of functioning or dysfunctioning, expectations and perceptions of the counselor's role, and personality and other more demographic characteristics (1966, p. 469).

He underscored the necessity of client involvement if anything were to happen in counseling (p. 472), and insisted that "outcome indices should include a variety of different measures assessing significant areas of human functioning," these measures to include client self-reports (pp. 474-475). He maintained that in evaluation of counseling, "not enough meaningful questions are asked. The truly critical variables receive the least attention. In some way, our efforts must translate to human benefits" (p. 476). Baker simply suggested that students and parents should evaluate school counselors (1972, pp. 64-65).

These general objections to the practice of counseling evaluation are reflected in those criticisms aimed more specifically at the studies using a measurement-by-objectives or criterion-referenced approach. Shoben pointed out that "in research on the effectiveness of counseling . . . until the operational criteria used in specific studies are related to the realities of the client's actual world, their meaningfulness remains moot and controversial" (1953, p. 289). In his critique of educational objectives generally, Eisner maintained that "objectives clearly and specifically stated can hamper as well as help the ends of instruction" (1967). He suggested that "several limitations to theory in curriculum regarding the functions educational objectives are to perform" exist (p. 253). He summarized his analysis of the assumptions and limitations of educational objectives by stating that

I have argued in this paper that curriculum theory as it pertains to educational objectives has had four significant limitations. First, it has not sufficiently emphasized the extent to which the prediction of educational

outcomes cannot be made with accuracy. Second, it has not discussed the ways in which the subject matter affects precision in stating educational objectives. Third, it has confused the use of educational objectives as a standard of measurement when in some areas it can be used only as a criterion for judgment. Fourth, it has not distinguished between the logical requirements of relating means to ends in the curriculum as a product and the psychological conditions useful for constructing curriculums [sic] (pp. 258-259).

Levinson criticized measurement-by-objectives as being concerned with the objectives of the organization or institution to the exclusion of those of individuals within the institution, a point of view that suggests Gamsky's concern for institutional goals, mentioned above, has been over-emphasized (1970, pp. 125-134). Levinson stated that

The greater the emphasis on measurement quantification, the more likely the subtle, nonmeasurable elements of the task will be sacrificed. Quality of performance, therefore, frequently loses out to quantification (p. 127).

He went on to note that

everyone is always working toward meeting his psychological needs. Anyone who thinks otherwise, and who believes such powerful internal forces can be successfully disregarded or bought off for long, is deluding himself (p. 129).

Ebel shared the concerns expressed by Eisner and Levinson, pointing out that

behavioral consequences are not the real objectives of instruction. Those objectives are, rather, the knowledge and understanding, the attitudes and values which induced the behavior or made it possible. To stress behavior as the objective is somewhat inaccurate and misleading (1970, p. 171).

He stated further that

behavioral objectives seem quite inappropriate to instructional efforts whose aim is to enable the

student to respond adaptively and effectively to unique future problem situations; to equip him to make, independently, but responsibly, the kind of individual choices and decisions which are the essence of human freedom (p. 172).

Ebel suggested that "simply stating that something is an objective does not make it a desirable one" (p. 172). Campbell argued that "experimental evaluation of social innovations" is inadequate at least in part because of the "misleading faith in operational definitions and criterion variables" (1970, p. 110). He advocated multiple modes of measurement, a variety of aspects and perspectives from which to evaluate social phenomena (p. 110). He pointed out that "not all remedial programs that are worth undertaking can be meaningfully evaluated, and this fact should not prevent the ameliorative effort from being made" (p. 111).

May, in his discussion of counseling, expressed concern that the need to serve large numbers of people in the school setting has resulted in failure to counsel any (1971, pp. 376-382). It is possible, considering his point of view, to see behavioral objectives as a means for managing large numbers. May listed a series of "salient questions" regarding the moral aspects of decision making, to which he suggested counselors address themselves:

Can society afford less attention to emotional and affective aspects of living? . . . Is efficiency synonymous with good? . . . Can feelings of worth and dignity be encouraged if our behavior reinforces feelings of redundancy and worthlessness? Is the measure of service solely the number of people to whom it is extended? Are the quality of service and its ultimate effect on the recipient important? Is our goal to control, to restrict, and to manage? Or is our goal to free people, to encourage development of responsible independence? Is autonomy a mark

of the adequate personality? Is there room for goals which emerge during the course of relationships? Or is our sole concern the achievement of predetermined goals? (p. 381).

These questions address one of the problems Gubser saw in a behavioral objectives approach to counseling evaluation, the fact that such an approach, "by its very nature, deals with short-term goals . . . behavioral objectives have limited utility in the areas of counseling and guidance. What is learned in the counseling process may not be applied for years" (1974, p. 298). He recommended that evaluation avoid normative data. Instead,

to take one or a few students and empirically demonstrate that through counseling a lessening of their problems was achieved or they were aided in their selection of appropriate careers could in many instances be more defensible than some normative-based mass evaluation of counselors (p. 298).

Hirsch maintained that "evaluation on the basis of measurable and behavioral objectives runs the danger of omitting important criteria because they are not available to listing or behavioral evaluation. This in turn might eliminate them altogether" (1975, p. 63). She stated in addition that "accountability is a defensive reaction to public criticism, and it has failed several times in the past" (p. 64). Her concern was that a combination of accountability and competency-based teacher education might result in education's becoming exclusively a matter of meeting previously stated behavioral objectives which may or may not reflect the goals either of education or of individual participants in the educational enterprise.

Caliste shared her concern, as evidenced in his statement that

in attempting to rekindle public confidence in our schools, some educators have reactivated the educational term accountability and use it to convince the public that we can now hold teachers, counselors, and other school personnel responsible for achieving a specified level of performance. Such assertions also infer, if they do not state, that failure to meet the predetermined standard could produce serious consequences resulting from charges of incompetence. . . . That accountability will result in major gains in education is a fraudulent claim not supported by previous efforts using this method (1978, p. 323).

He reviewed reports of experimental research efforts purporting to evaluate counselors and found them lacking, for a number of reasons: inappropriate criteria, a limited field of study, reliance on a single criterion, and lack of specificity in such multiple-criterion approaches as were reported.

Traditional research methods applied to evaluation of counseling have also come under criticism. The more moderate critics are exemplified by Cherns (1969) and Wortman (1975), who concluded that there is a place for both pure and applied research in studies of social phenomena. Cherns suggested that there are four essential types of research, pure basic, objective basic, operational, and action, the last of which includes evaluation. He maintained that "the further we proceed down the list from pure research to action research, the more is utilization likely, but the less generality is possessed by the results" (1968, p. 214).

In his analysis of evaluation, Wortman concluded that whether pure or applied research is the appropriate approach depends upon the questions being asked and the competence and training of the evaluator (1975, pp. 562-575). Wortman likened evaluation research to a "complex

set of feedback processes," which "vary greatly in their level of precision, and pose numerous challenges and opportunities for psychologists," both those trained in traditional experimental methods and those developing various field study procedures (p. 574).

Having noted the relative lack of association between counseling research and practice, Pine identified problems of traditional research in attempting to address counseling questions (1981, pp. 495-501).

First, the application of the experimental design requires that experimental and control conditions be held constant throughout the experiment. . . . In accepting the rigorous conditions of the experimental method, one is asked to fit counseling services or a program to the design, rather than vice versa. The use of the experimental method would, then, conflict with the fundamental principle that evaluation should lead to continual improvement and modification of counseling. . . .

A second major weakness of the experimental method as an evaluation tool is that it yields data about the effectiveness of a counseling approach or program after the fact. . . . Often by the time experimental data have come in, it is too late to make decisions about plans and procedures that may determine the difference between the success and the failure of a particular program.

Finally, the experimental method is typically used to study discrete elements of a problem, and, therefore, often yields isolated factors associated with specified outcomes that have doubtful application to the complexities, convolutions, and changing contexts of varied counseling and guidance situations (pp. 495-496).

He went on to say that "the fact is, in real life, people do not get assigned to each other, to problems, and to time and space with rigorous experimental randomness and neat design (p. 496). Pine advocated what he referred to as collaborative research, the fundamental principle of which "is that the research process is based on a system of discussion, investigation, and analysis in which the researched are as much a part

of the process as the researcher" (p. 497).

Among others, Landsman had anticipated Pine by a number of years, when he indicated that

I see the intimations of improvement not in imitation of the methodology of the contemporary behavioral scientist, but rather in the innovative creation of designs and tools more applicable to the depth orientation of the existentialist (1965, p. 571).

Raush argued that traditional research models yield little of value to the practitioner in psychology, and urged intensive, qualitative studies (1974, pp. 678-681). Oetting and Hawkes pointed out that, unlike traditional research, evaluation does not only measure outcome:

First, it should assume that a particular intervention will not have the same effect on everyone. Some measure of client characteristics that specifically relates to differential effects of the intervention is needed. Next, there should be some assessment of the intervention process, first to show that the description of the intervention was accurate in terms of what actually took place, second to evaluate differences in process for different groups or individuals. Often, an overall effect is minimal, while a group that was high in a particular aspect of the process will show effects. Finally, multiple measures of outcome are needed partly because some measurement methods might work while others fail, but also because a pattern of results is often more informative than one single measure (1974, p. 437).

Gadlin and Ingle were even more explicit in their criticisms of traditional laboratory methods in psychological research, echoing the philosophical and scientific arguments presented earlier in this thesis (chapter 2).

Basically, psychologists have begun to wonder about the external validity of the results of laboratory experiments. Included among these doubts is the concern that perhaps people behave in significantly different ways in the laboratory than they do in "real life." Indeed, many suspect that people behave as they do in experiments because of direct or indirect features of the experimenter-subject

relationship. To these critics, the experiment does not fulfill its own criterion of objectivity (1975, p. 1003).

They maintained that "it is not the setting of research that needs to be changed, but the nature of the research relationship, on the one hand, and our consciousness of that relationship, on the other" (p. 1008).

They pointed out the need to recognize that human behavior includes the behavior of psychologists, and suggested considering and treating subjects as informants, in the anthropological sense (p. 1008).

The ongoing argument is evident in Elms, who identified as problems for research in social psychology (1) both the increasing numbers and increasing complexity of research studies which result in little improvement in understanding human social behavior, and (2) the power of cultural variables to influence human behavior. He stated that

as if this growing awareness of the true scope of human complexity were not enough, social psychologists have also recently become much more concerned with the difficulties created by interactions between researcher and research subject (1975, p. 968).

He advocated abandonment of a particular theoretical model to guide research in favor of theoretical pluralism.

Theoretical pluralism may be disturbing to those who feel they need certainty, and it may appear inferior to the unitary paradigms enjoyed in certain of the physical sciences. . . . such pluralism is likely to impede the field's progress much less than a temporary all-out adherence to one model. It may also prove in the long run to be a more adequate way to treat human thought and behavior than the near-absolute reductionism of the physical sciences.

Pluralism is appropriate with regard to methodology as well. . . . Not every problem can be studied effectively in the same way, and any attempt to eliminate a research procedure by fiat, for whatever reason, is likely to sow more confusion than clarification (pp. 972-973).

Cronback, in his discussion of scientific psychology, pointed out that the fact "that the dimensions of the situation and of the person enter into complex interactions" is often overlooked in research which attempts to reduce complex phenomena to simple, manageable, readily measurable outcomes (1975, p. 116). He noted that

Some 30 years ago, research in psychology became dedicated to the quest for nomothetic theory. . . . Model building and hypothesis testing became the ruling ideal, and research problems were increasingly chosen to fit that mode (p. 116).

He was concerned that there had been a failure to consider the implications of pure research, stating that "we need to reflect on what it means to establish empirical generalizations in a world in which most effects are interactive" (p. 121), citing the inability to control all the variables in social settings so that pure research could be conducted adequately. Having noted that conditions or circumstances change over time, Cronback mentioned the tendency "to speak of a scientific conclusion as if it were eternal, but in every field empirical relations change" (p. 122). He concluded his discussion by recommending a return to the use of observation in research:

Originally, the psychologist saw his role as the scientific observation of human behavior. When hypothesis testing became paramount, observation was neglected, and even actually discouraged by editorial policies of journals.

An observer collecting data in one particular situation is in a position to appraise a practice or proposition in that setting, observing effects in context (p. 124).

Goldman decried the aridity of counseling research, stating that seemingly obsessed with statistical method and so-called objectivity of data collection, researchers often produce tables and figures full of tests of significance signifying nothing, because behind the

numbers often lies nothing more than answers to ambiguous questions, or observed behaviors whose meaning is unclear. . . . Most of the studies reported [in recent issues of Journal of Counseling Research] are highly microscopic in scope, dealing with very limited questions, and often dealing with them in simulated, pseudo-counseling arrangements rather than in the real experience of counseling and change (1975, pp. 545-546).

He called for research which would treat the subject as an informant, which was macroscopic, which was conducted in the field, and which relied on individuals for information. Goldman discussed the human being as research instrument, pointing out again that it is impossible to exclude the researcher as a variable in research projects.

In her presentation of an intensive experimental model, Anton cited as one of the failings of traditional research the fact that models using comparative group designs reveal little about the individuals with whom counselors are primarily concerned (1978, p. 274). She was concerned that rigid adherence to one model violated the purpose of the process of experimentation, replacing it with the idea of "the experiment" itself as an end (p. 273). She cited the prevailing tendency in social science research to define scientific as synonymous with statistical, as a source of inadequate research in human interactions.

Goldman also considered equating scientific with empirical quantitative methods an error in counseling research and evaluation (1978, p. 41). He identified a

flaw in the reasoning that would have us generalize from controlled laboratory experiments to real life. That is the very fact that in real life people do not get assigned to each other, to problems, and to time and place at random. If we really want to shed light on real life, we must either study real life or simulate in the laboratory all the conditions of real life that might possibly be important in

determining cause-and-effect. From this point of view, the ultimate test is a naturalistic field of study that is done with whatever rigor is possible (p. 42).

In a discussion of methodology which attempted to put the debate between quantitative and qualitative or pure science and applied science on a less acrimonious footing, Polkinghorne suggested that humanistic research "is identified. . . by its commitment to testing a theory which proposes that humans can act in a purposeful manner through participation in their own meaning-filled experiences (1980, p. 6). He maintained, reminiscent of Cherns and Wortman, that the appropriate methodology for any research is that which will provide answers to the questions being asked, identifying the differences in purpose for designs of an empirical-experimental nature and those of a structural nature. The former are theory-testing designs, the latter designs which "seek to locate underlying themes or patterns for the observed events" (pp. 6-7). He mentioned participant observation and intensive interviewing as tools for structural research, tools which have enjoyed a history of use in anthropology. The search for structures takes place in the social world, Polkinghorne pointed out, "and this world retains its own meaning structures within which the social members participate" (p. 7). He stated that

part of the reason for replacing [in the philosophy of science] the concept of absolute validation is the growing awareness that what is known and what are "facts" depends upon the meaning constructs of the knower (p. 7).

Sprinthall summarized the criticism of research and evaluation in counseling and guidance by saying

in my view, then, we must confront the research problem directly; namely, to discard the dominant physical science-laboratory experiment tradition. Following that view simply continues the myth that somehow we can reduce human activity to a single variable at a time, find the equivalent of the atoms of human behavior in sequence, and add them together as a wall of knowledge that will inform practice. Such a continuing search is important, of course, but the physical science model leads us in the wrong direction and, as a result, is essentially unsolvable (1981, p. 488).

Perhaps more to the point is Maslow's observation that "we must also accept honestly and express candidly the profound truth that most of our 'objective' work is simultaneously subjective" (1968, p. 217). The objective-subjective dichotomy, then, is more accurately perceived as a continuum. Research has been, for the most part, concentrated at the objective end of the continuum; it may be time to explore the subjective.

Several themes manifest themselves running through the criticism of evaluation research. Traditional experimental methods are not considered to be appropriate; behavioral objectives, based on predetermined operational definitions and specific, measurable success criteria are deemed at best inadequate and at worst destructive to counseling goals; action research, field-based research, and applied research are used variously to mean study of the phenomenon in the time and setting and under the conditions in which it occurs; and very little in way of application of the various styles of action research, field-based research, and/or applied research has been reported. It would appear that the methodology for applied research in counseling, the subjective end of the continuum, is still in an early developmental stage.

Methodology

As evidenced in the foregoing criticisms of evaluation studies, a need for alternative approaches exists. Discontent with the results of evaluations using classical research models and measurement by objectives to the exclusion of less rigid procedures has been voiced in many ways by numbers of critics. Few seem to remain of those whom Williamson and Bordin identified as maintaining that counseling cannot be evaluated (1941, p. 6). However, little agreement as to what constitutes an appropriate approach to evaluation, beyond the insistence that more subjective methods are needed, is in evidence. As Burck noted,

logically it seems that no one evaluative model or method is the one. Selection of a model must depend on the population served, the purpose of the program, and more particularly what it is the program sponsors and decision-makers want to find out (1978, pp. 188-189).

He delineated some of the essential differences between research and evaluation which render traditional physical science methods inappropriate for evaluation studies: "the aim of evaluation is to establish worth, effectiveness, and efficiency, whereas the aim of research is to describe relationships of cause-effect between and among variables" (p. 179). Oetting defined evaluation as a process of "collecting data that will help in making decisions about programs" (1976, p. 11). He suggested, too, that in part the different purposes of evaluation and traditional scientific research render the methods of the latter inappropriate when applied to the former. He also distinguished between evaluation and monitoring, which provides data on how time is spent and numbers of clients served, but does not consider the effectiveness of

time and service (p. 11).

Lazarsfeld and Barton, having recognized the dichotomy between those who "want to start measuring social phenomena with all the precision of the most advanced sectors of physical science" and those who deny that measurement is possible, recommending instead a purely intuitive approach to understanding society, stated that

the false assumption underlying both positions is that science can be carried on only with one particular kind of device--the quantitative scale with equal intervals and a zero point--and that aside from this device there is nothing but a chaos of guesswork and intuition. . . . It is the contention. . . that there is a direct line of logical continuity from qualitative classification to the most rigorous forms of measurement (1951, p. 155).

Goldman, in his introduction to a collection of research methods which can be used by counselors, indicated that the problems confronting counselors and counseling programs "will be far better served by research methods that study people in their real contemporary worlds" (1978, p. 5). He noted that

we are in a field that deals with nonprecise phenomena, with intangible qualities, and with constantly changing people and situations. It is therefore highly appropriate that our major research methods include the subjective and qualitative and the relatively unfettered approaches. . . . Ours is not an exact science or an exact practice. It is therefore illusory to expect that our research will be exact (p. 9).

He emphasized the value of local studies for counselors, suggesting that they have more to offer in terms of useful information and supplying evidence for the effectiveness of counseling than do national studies (p. 22).

Various styles of research have been recommended to fill the

void felt by researchers in counseling. Smith described naturalistic enquiry, which she identified as a "more general term for ethnography, sociological field methods, case study methods, participant observation, ecological psychology and psychodynamic social psychology" (1981, p. 585). She mentioned the intensive character of naturalistic enquiry, which is conducted over a period of time and considers the ecology, context, or milieu in which a case occurs, case referring to a group, community, institution, program, social system, or an individual (p. 585). She identified as the major problem with naturalistic enquiry the fact that it is labor intensive, requiring the commitment of a researcher to a task for a relatively long period of time. A second limitation, noted in passing, is that training programs for naturalistic enquiry are "tied to the disciplines of anthropology or sociology and therefore are not widely accessible" (p. 589).

Blackwell proposed action research as an alternative approach to educational research generally, defining it as "research concerned with school problems, carried on by school personnel, to improve school practice" (1965, p. 242). Franseth defined action research in more general terms as a "systematic examination conducted by individuals or groups studying their own practices in search of sound answers to unresolved problems in their work and aimed at improving their own performance on their own jobs" (1965, p. 246). Nuttall and Ivey suggested that "action research is always for a purpose: to check whether or not a helper intervention has benefited a client, to examine whether or not a specific new program made a difference in the lives of its participants, to evaluate the effectiveness of an organized set of

helping services" (1978, p. 81). The point of action research is to provide information which will be of use in improving counseling, throughout the counseling process as well as at its conclusion.

Whatever the label applied to the research styles proposed as alternatives to classical research models and measurement-by-objectives, several features emerge. Evaluation in counseling and guidance should take place in the setting where the activity occurs; the subjects of the investigation should be treated as informants; the researcher is a part of the ongoing events and situations being studied; the purpose of evaluation is to determine worth, value, or effectiveness of counseling programs or counselors; and the ultimate goal of evaluation is to elicit information which will lead to greater worth, value, or effectiveness of counseling for those who use counseling services. In general, what is being advocated is the collection and analysis of subjective and interpersonal information. Specific techniques for conducting such research are mentioned in the counseling literature, but rarely explored in a comprehensive manner. As Smith suggested, they are techniques generally identified with anthropological and sociological fieldwork (1981). Among them are intensive interviewing and participant observation.

Of these two data-collection methods, interviewing enjoys more popular understanding, if less detailed description and discussion in the professional literature. As Kerlinger put it

the interview is perhaps the most ubiquitous method of obtaining information from people. It has been and is still used in all kinds of practical situations: the lawyer obtains information from a client; the physician learns about a patient; the admissions officer or professor determines the suitability of students for schools, departments, and curricula. Only recently,

however, has the interview been used systematically for scientific purposes, both in the laboratory and in the field (1973, p. 479).

Kerlinger suggested that one of the merits of the interview is that it is relatively direct, going to the source for information in a straightforward manner. He pointed out that the interview is "probably man's oldest and most often used device for obtaining information" (p. 480), having important qualities that more objective measures lack.

When used with a well-conceived schedule, an interview can obtain a great deal of information, is flexible and adaptable to individual situations, and can often be used when no other method is possible or adequate. . . . An interviewer can know whether a respondent. . . does not understand a question and can, within limits, repeat or rephrase the question. Questions about hopes, aspirations, and anxieties can be asked in such a way as to elicit accurate information. Most important, perhaps, the interview permits probing into the contexts and reasons for answers to questions (p. 480).

He cited as the major shortcoming of the interview the fact that it requires a great amount of researcher time. He concluded that, used with a carefully constructed schedule, the interview is probably the "best instrument available for sounding people's behavior, future intentions, feelings, attitudes, and reasons for behavior" (p. 488).

Anderson, in his discussion of research in employment and vocational counseling agencies, suggested that the interview serves two essential functions. The first is to fill in the gaps in client files, where information not requested on standard application forms is necessary or useful. The second is to collect specific data for a study (1978, p. 328).

Borg and Gall characterized the interview as a method unique in descriptive research, "in that it involves the collection of data

through direct verbal interaction between individuals" (1971, p. 211). This they considered the source of both its greatest advantage and disadvantage as a research tool. The principal advantage they saw as the adaptability of the tool.

The well-trained interviewer can make full use of the responses of the subject to alter the interview situation. . . . the interview permits the research worker to follow-up leads and thus obtain more data and greater clarity. The interview situation usually permits much greater depth than other methods of collecting research data (pp. 211-212).

They considered the very adaptability of the tool to be its greatest disadvantage, as well, because it "leads to subjectivity and possible bias" (p. 213).

In contrast to interviewing, participant observation has enjoyed a history of use and discussion in the literature of anthropology and sociology, recently finding advocates in education. Participant observation is defined as "a process in which the observer's presence in a social situation is maintained for the purpose of scientific investigation. . . . the observer is part of the context being observed" (Schwartz & Schwartz, 1955, p. 344). As participant observer, the researcher studies interactions in a setting in an effort to define interpersonal processes and social structure, and to examine the effects of processes on the participants in the social structure. The observer is in immediate contact with the people and institutions being observed. Vidich suggested that when studying an aspect of his own society, the participant observer "has the disadvantage of living in a society in which his experience is limited, while, at the same time, he is regarded as a knowledgeable member of all segments of it" (1955, p. 357).

He maintained that "participant observation enables the research worker to secure his data within the mediums [sic], symbols, and experiential worlds which have meaning to his respondents" (p. 354). Becker echoed this perception of the method, when he stated that "the participant observer gathers data by participating in the daily life of the group or organization he studies (1958, p. 562).

In his discussion of participant observation as a method applicable to program evaluation, Balaban defined the two aspects of the method.

The "participant" aspect of the method involves becoming and/or being a member of a system, setting, or program. The "observer" aspect of participant observation is the research component of one's role (1973, p. 62).

In a later publication, Balaban identified the essential stages for participant observation (1978, pp. 155-175). The first stage is entry into the situation, which includes permission to conduct and continue research, as well as gaining acceptance by the members of the setting (pp. 157-159). The second stage is becoming actively involved with the people in the setting, which provides "an excellent means of capturing data about people's spontaneous interactions without disrupting the social fabric" (p. 159). The third stage is recording activities, observations, thoughts, feelings, interactions, and insights.

The value of the participant observer rests with an ability to understand how the people being studied think, feel, and behave, while he or she maintains a detached observer stance, which allows for accurately recording and incisively interpreting data (p. 161).

Balaban listed as limits to the method bias or selectivity, taking things for granted, an inability to understand the researcher's impact on the

situation, conflict between one's participant and observer roles, and the amount of time and energy which is required for this kind of research. Such limitations can, he maintained, be minimized through the use of a knowledgeable other, of an experienced observer who can check recordings, or of an adversary who will challenge observations and conclusions (p. 162).

Ogbu, in a discussion of ethnographic research in schools, pointed out that to be effective, a participant observer must be more than a "scheduled visitor" to the school or program being studied (1981, p. 6). He was concerned that "selective ethnography," or studies concentrating on particular aspects of an institution, may yield inaccurate pictures of the situation, recognizing at the same time that the holistic ethnography he advocated may well be beyond the temporal and financial resources of most school researchers (pp. 11-13).

Goetz and LeCompte acknowledged the cost of time needed for both collection and analysis of data, noting that traditional (Ogbu's holistic) ethnographic studies may not be possible (1981, p. 56). They went on to discuss the problems of analysing data collected in ethnographic studies, proposing a number of analytic approaches. Analytic deduction consists of searching the data for categories of phenomena and relationships between phenomena, which categories are subject to change over time (p. 57). The constant comparative model "combines inductive category coding with a simultaneous comparison of all social incidents observed" (p. 58). Typological analysis involves devising typologies "from a theoretical frame or set of propositions or from common sense or mundane perceptions of reality" (p. 59). Enumerative

systems are simply frequency counts, requiring precise identification of phenomena or categories of phenomena. They are seen essentially as supportive evidence for other forms of analysis (pl 60). Standardized observation protocols provide a system for observing particular categories of events, and coding objective data (p. 63). Goetz and LeCompte pointed out that

recent stress on the use of observational techniques in educational research and evaluation departs from experimental and positivistic approaches, which have dominated the field. Two factors have generated this interest in observational research techniques, which are often termed ethnography, although that designation is more correctly applied only to certain categories of observational research. One is the failure of conventional research to explain the outcomes of innovation, particularly where summative measures registered no impact. The second is a demand by policy makers for research and evaluation techniques that provide process data as well as the usual input and output information (pp. 51-52).

The literature reveals not only that researchers in counseling express a need for evaluation procedures which operate on the subjective end of the research continuum, but also that techniques that can be employed in such procedures exist and have been both recognized and applied in the social sciences. It remains to test their efficacy in the evaluation of counseling and guidance programs.

Summary

The literature reveals a need for evaluating counseling programs. This review of the literature has indicated that a number of evaluation studies have been undertaken, with emphasis on the development of behavioral objectives and the identification of success criteria. Approaches to the problem employing test-retest and comparative analysis

models appear, as well. The criticism of counseling program evaluation studies has centered on an objection to the application to studies of social institutions and human interaction of methodology that may be more appropriate to the physical sciences. A subsidiary concern has been that the findings of evaluation studies employing pure research or basic research methods bear little relationship to what actually goes on in the counseling process. Recommendations for action research, for an ethnographic approach to research in counseling, and for studies conducted in the field abound in the literature. However, there is little evidence that these recommendations have ever been implemented.

The study undertaken here, described in the following chapter, was an attempt to employ field-based action research in the evaluation of the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. The intent was to field test subjective information collection procedures to determine whether or not they are indeed viable and whether or not they will yield material useful in program development.

Chapter 4

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The primary purpose of the present study was to apply to an evaluation of the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program methods which would provide access to subjective and interpersonal knowing as sources of evaluation information. This chapter is devoted to (1) a description of the setting in which the study was conducted; (2) descriptions of the activities associated with post-high school planning in the setting; and (3) a discussion of information collection and analysis procedures employed in the study.

Description of the Setting

The setting in which field research takes place may itself have some influence on the activities and events which occur in that setting, and on the interpretation of those activities or events by the people participating in them. The economic circumstances of the community supporting a public school have an immediate impact on both the programs and the atmosphere of that school. The fact that the setting in which a program operates is a public school influences role definition and program content. Therefore, a description of the setting seems desirable.

The informants for the study are the 107 members of the 1982 graduating class (grade 12) at Douglas High School. Douglas is a small, comprehensive, four year public high school located in a semi-rural area of Douglas County. The economic base of the community is logging,

plywood and lumber mill working, and agriculture. During the past 18 months, the lumber industry throughout the state has suffered a serious decline, resulting in unemployment for loggers and millworkers. Douglas County has seen a number of mill closures or reductions in operation time, with the immediate effect of economic hardship for the families of some students and the elimination of some employment opportunities for youngsters planning to enter the work force directly from high school.

Douglas High School is located in Winston, seven miles south of the nearest major population center, Roseburg, a town of approximately 20,000 population. The high school faculty consists of 42 teachers, four counselors, and two senior administrators (the building principal and the assistant principal, the latter responsible for discipline/attendance and curriculum). The investigator is one of the counselors on staff at Douglas High School, in the fourth year of that assignment. All counselors are available to all students on a student-request basis. The investigator, although not primarily responsible for the program component evaluated, does participate in activities associated with that program component.

The school plant is 27 years old, and is suffering the consequences of overcrowding and budgetary restraints. The original buildings were intended to accommodate 225 students. A building bond approved in the late 1960's provided an additional four classrooms. A second building bond approved in 1972 provided the addition of metals and woodworking shops, which brought the optimum capacity up to 450 students. The plant is currently serving 580 students, and has served

as many as 700 in a given school year. The community regularly approves the operating budget, occasionally, as in the present year, rejecting the original budget proposal when it is presented, and accepting a reduced budget request at a second election. Funds for remodeling or restoring buildings, with the exception of repairs clearly needed for maintaining occupancy (as in the case of a new roof for the high school this year), are routinely reduced or eliminated from the budget request after the first defeat.

The campus is situated on a large tract of sloping lawn and old oak trees. The grounds are spacious, away from the town's small commercial area, and near only a few private residences. Students are permitted to leave campus during the lunch period, but it is otherwise a closed campus. Bus service is available, but numbers of students, particularly juniors and seniors, drive their own cars to school or ride with friends who drive.

The curriculum at Douglas High School is standard for a public school in Oregon, as attested to by a visitation team during the 1980-81 academic year. Four vocational clusters are available to students: metals (welding), agriculture, secretarial, and clerical. These program offerings are intended to provide entry-level job skills for students who complete them. A standard college-preparatory program is available, including foreign languages (French and Spanish), chemistry, physics, and four years of mathematics. Choral and instrumental (band) music, journalism, and fine and applied arts are included in the curricular offerings, as are home economics and woodworking. Numbers of elective courses in the social sciences and literature are available for those

students who want more than the minimum requirements necessary for graduation. Of the credits required for graduation, 50 percent are prescribed, including the courses which meet state minimum competency standards for a high school diploma, and 50 percent are elective. Elective courses are chosen by students to fulfill the requirements for any of four transcript endorsements: minimum graduation requirements, general education, vocational education, and college preparatory. The administration, counseling personnel, and English and mathematics faculties are considering increasing district requirements for graduation to include four years of English and two years of mathematics, as opposed to the three years of English and one year of mathematics required by the state for minimum graduation standards.

Extra-curricular activities include inter-scholastic athletics for both boys and girls, student organizations associated with home economics and vocational agriculture, a chess club, an art club, drama, student government, and the usual round of seasonal dances and awards banquets. There is an active chapter of National Honor Society, which sponsors a peer-tutoring service for students requesting academic assistance.

Typically, approximately 45 percent of graduating students indicate in an exit interview that they intend to go to college after graduation. Approximately 25 percent actually do enroll either at Umpqua Community College, just north of Roseburg, or at four-year institutions. Some 10 to 12 students elect the military each year. And from 10 to 15 usually marry immediately or soon after graduation.

The atmosphere of the school, superficially, at least, has been

characterized by casual observers, such as substitute teachers, as friendly. A sense of cooperation usually prevails between faculty and administration. There do exist cliques both among students and faculty, but strong factionalism is unusual enough to invite comment when it appears. The administration encourages teachers to communicate problems to parents clearly and immediately when they arise.

Counseling personnel are responsible for neither attendance nor discipline problems, which are referred to the assistant principal. Scheduling of courses, record maintenance, and schedule changing are among counseling responsibilities, along with academic, vocational, and personal counseling. The counseling staff is supported by the school registrar, who serves as receptionist in the student services center, accepting requests for interviews with counselors; coordinating student aides; and supervising the distribution and collection of grade report materials, as well as handling clerical responsibilities associated with record maintenance. Counseling personnel work closely with faculty and administration in curriculum decisions, classroom management, and resolution of academic problems or teacher-student conflicts. The counselors coordinate and supervise pre-enrollment each year, conduct academic orientation for freshmen, provide learning skills workshops for freshmen who are interested in receiving academic assistance, and coordinate the administration of standardized tests. In general, counselors at Douglas High School provide support services for groups and individuals in the institution.

Post-High School Planning Activities

The various activities associated with the post-high school plans component of the counseling program at Douglas High School are summarized below. Included in each summary are the purpose or purposes of the activity and the procedures for soliciting student participation in it. It should be noted that the purposes are institutional purposes. Part of the intent of this study has been to determine the degree to which institutional purposes are consistent with student purposes.

It should also be noted that the activities described are not by their nature humanistic or existential. They tend, for the most part, to be rather objective, mundane vehicles for the dissemination of information. However, the activities may well have powerful personal meaning for the students who participate in them. The financial aid workshop, for example, was primarily intended to see that every student who wanted to apply for financial assistance to pursue further education was given an opportunity to do so. Financial aid forms were distributed and explained, assistance was offered for completing and filing the forms, and suggestions were made for estimating eligibility for aid. Whether or not a student actually qualified for financial aid, and the kind of aid for which a student was eligible, may well determine whether or not it was possible for that student to continue education beyond high school. A student who had been accepted at a four-year state university, and who found that there was not sufficient money through financial aid, summer work, and parent contributions for enrollment in the school selected, may well be confronted with far-reaching revisions

in plans and expectations, as well as profound personal disappointment. Therefore, merely describing the activities cannot indicate the possible implications they may have had for students.

Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration

Students were required to complete for graduation a course entitled SUTOE, or Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration. This course fulfilled the State of Oregon minimum requirement for career awareness, exploration, and tentative planning. Most students would have completed the course as freshmen or sophomores, but transfer students whose transcripts did not show an equivalent career education class were enrolled regardless of their grade levels. Course content included completion of the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) and the Worker Trait Interest Check List (ICL), and use of the Career Information System to explore specific career and occupational interests. Course assignments included reports on occupations or careers of students' choices, involving use of the Career Information System and Dictionary of Occupational Titles, interviews with people employed in the selected occupations or careers, and visits to the sites where those occupations occurred. In addition, representatives of a variety of occupations and careers, including military recruiters and apprenticeship advisers, addressed the SUTOE classes.

The purposes of the course included providing students with accurate information about their own abilities and interests to be used in making well-informed decisions about the occupations or careers they may have wanted to pursue after graduation from high school.

A more immediate purpose was to assist students in making high school program choices which would help provide preparation for pursuing career goals.

SUTOE, while not taught by counselors, was included as a part of the student services program at Douglas High School. Counselors worked closely with the SUTOE teacher, housing GATB and ICL results in students' files in student services to use in personal career guidance. The class was the primary medium for career education, and was therefore a major activity in the post-high school plans component of the counseling program.

Pre-Enrollment

Students participated in pre-enrollment each spring for the following school year. Students in grade eight at Winston Junior High School, who would attend Douglas High School in grade nine, and all freshman, sophomore, and junior students at the high school were involved in pre-enrollment.

Originally, the purpose of pre-enrollment was simply to facilitate scheduling classes and students for the following year. However, over time, pre-enrollment evolved into a program-planning procedure. The pre-enrollment materials included a list of course offerings which indicated for each course the units of credit it carried, its status as elective or prescribed, the grade levels for which it was available, and any pre-requisites it needed. In addition, the course list provided brief descriptions of elective courses. The pre-enrollment packet itself contained information on graduation requirements, endorsement program requirements, and planning guides for each year of high

school. The packet also included a list of occupations and careers indicating the program endorsement which would be a minimum recommended for high school students planning to pursue each of the occupations or careers.

At the high school, pre-enrollment occurred over a week of class time, the daily schedule being re-adjusted to arrange for 50 minutes per day of pre-enrollment time. Students were assigned to faculty advisers in a ratio of 10 students per adviser. During the regularly scheduled class periods in the remainder of the day, counselors were available for students who wanted additional assistance.

Pre-enrollment at the junior high school was coordinated by the junior high school counselor with the cooperation and assistance of one of the eighth grade teachers, who devoted class time to helping students prepare for pre-enrollment. High school counselors spent one day at the junior high school, to answer questions and to help students complete their course request forms.

The first step in pre-enrollment at the high school was an assessment of credits earned. Students were given copies of their transcripts for conducting credit checks. Pre-enrollment beyond that point involved selecting an endorsement program, indicating a tentative career goal, and selecting for the following year courses which would contribute to the completion of graduation and endorsement requirements.

Senior Credit Check

The senior credit check, an activity conducted within the first three weeks of the academic year and immediately following the end of the first semester, was intended to locate and credit deficiencies in

the transcripts of those students expecting to graduate during that year. Coincidentally, an endorsement credit check was conducted, to determine whether or not students were completing the requirements for the particular programs of study they had elected to follow. The counselor responsible for verifying completion of graduation requirements evaluated each senior's transcript prior to the beginning of the school year, and indicated which classes the student had selected for completion during the senior year. When school started, the counselor contacted those seniors whose transcripts and pre-enrollment showed credit deficiencies. The counselor assisted with any program changes necessary for completing graduation requirements. This activity was a complement to the credit checks the students had been conducting annually with faculty advisers during pre-enrollment for the following year. Because of the ongoing nature of credit checks, a student's status should not have come as a surprise.

At intervals of four weeks during the school year, the counselor alerted any senior whose progress reports suggested he or she was in danger of failing a class required for graduation. The counselor also arranged for academic assistance where it was indicated. The second semester credit check involved both notifying students of first semester courses they had not completed successfully and helping them find alternative ways to meet graduation requirements. These alternatives could include enrollment in courses at Umpqua Community College, completion of state requirements by correspondence, or adding classes in place of study halls or home release for the second semester. Throughout the year, parents were also notified of any academic problems a student

was experiencing. The purpose of this activity was to ensure that each student had ample opportunity to correct any deficiencies that might prevent receiving a high school diploma.

Transcript Endorsement

In an effort to encourage students to plan high school programs that would prepare them to pursue their post-high school goals, a transcript endorsement policy was implemented during the 1978-79 academic year. Four programs of study were identified: minimum graduation requirements, for those students who had as a goal simply earning enough credits to graduate; general education, for those students who were vague about post-high school plans, but wanted to have a solid academic background as a basis for post-high school training or higher education when they did make a decision; vocational education, for those students who wanted to master job entry-level skills in any one of the four vocational programs offered by the school; and college preparatory, for those students who wanted to have the high school background recommended for admission to the state colleges and universities. Program endorsement information was included in the pre-enrollment process, and progress toward endorsement goals was evaluated at each succeeding pre-enrollment.

Students who were included in this study had been in the freshman year of high school when the endorsement policy was implemented. It was possible for them to plan three years of high school electives which would complete whichever of the program endorsements they selected. Program endorsements relied exclusively on elective credits. State minimum graduation competencies were met through courses designated

as prescribed, which all students must have completed with a passing grade if they were to receive a high school diploma.

During the academic year in which this study was conducted, the endorsement program was being reviewed by a committee composed of two counselors, two teachers, and three students representing a variety of student abilities, interests, and grade levels. The purpose of the review was to determine whether or not the available endorsements represented student accomplishments adequately. This review was a direct result, incidentally, of comments made by students who participated in preliminary interviews for the preparation of the interview format used in the present study.

Scholarship Workshop and File

As information on scholarships arrived in student services, the counselor responsible for the collection and dissemination of such information organized it in a file to which interested students had access. Application requirements, deadlines, and eligibility for each scholarship were noted, to be announced in the daily bulletin at appropriate times.

Beginning in the current academic year, the counselor responsible for college application and scholarship information initiated a workshop on scholarships for interested students. The workshop included completion of a student activity reporting form, writing a resume, writing a personal statement, and preparing a scholarship portfolio of background information, academic records, awards, and news releases. Students were advised on collecting recommendations, given information

about filing the Financial Aid Form, and introduced to the scholarship file. The final event of the workshop was video-taping of mock interviews, to help students see how they presented themselves to interviewers.

The purposes of the workshop were to distribute information, to encourage students to collect and organize application materials, and to increase student awareness about the availability of scholarship funds for post-secondary education. Students participated during study hall time or on a release from regular class time.

College and University Visitations

Representatives from the state colleges and universities visited high schools throughout the state early in the school year. The purpose was to provide college-bound seniors with an opportunity to ask questions about programs, entrance requirements, and costs at the various schools. Students were notified via the daily bulletin and in information sheets distributed in the government classes, which all seniors were required to attend, of the date of the visitation and of the procedures to follow for participating.

The visitation consisted of a general meeting which all interested students attended, where information of a general nature was presented. This was followed by a series of special interest sessions, conducted by the representative of each college or university, for students interested in that particular institution. Each student could attend two special interest sessions.

Throughout the school year, representatives of private schools

visited the high school to talk with seniors who were interested in their schools. Again, students were notified of dates and times through the daily announcements and via a visitation bulletin board outside the student services center. Students were excused from classes to meet with representatives.

As should be apparent, the scholarship workshop described above and the college and university visitations depended largely on the cooperation of classroom teachers. Every effort was made to schedule events in such a way that students could use study hall time to participate, but in the case of seniors who did not have study halls--those taking an overload of courses or those on home release for part of the day--and in the cases of events which occupied more than one class period of time, the cooperation of teachers was a key to student participation.

Financial Aid Workshop

A standard form for application for financial aid was used for both private and public post-secondary institutions in Oregon. At the end of the first semester and the beginning of the second semester, the counselor responsible for information to college-bound seniors conducted a workshop in financial aid. The purpose was to distribute Financial Aid Forms, which included application forms for basic education opportunity grants, to those seniors who were interested in applying for such aid. The workshops were held in personal finance classes, which were required of all seniors. The timing was selected to see that all seniors had an opportunity to receive the forms, whether their personal finance classes occurred first or second semester, and coincided with

the filing time appropriate for financial aid applications.

The counselor reviewed with students eligibility requirements, application deadlines, and the procedures for completing the forms. The intent was that every eligible student who was planning to continue his or her education would have the information and materials required for applying for financial aid. In many cases, the Financial Aid Form must have been on file for a student to be considered for institutional scholarships, as well as for public funds.

In addition to the workshop for students, one evening workshop was conducted for parents, who usually provided the information needed to file the Financial Aid Form. Students seeking additional information or assistance with application procedures were welcome to attend the evening session.

Scholastic Aptitude Test Workshop

The Scholastic Aptitude Test workshop, like the financial aid workshop, was essentially intended for the dissemination of materials and information. Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores were included, along with high school grade point averages, in considering applications for admission to Oregon state institutions of higher education. The counselor visited government classes in the fall to distribute SAT booklets, explain to students who should write the SAT and why, explain about costs, application deadlines, and testing site locations. The counselor reviewed the SAT booklets with students, pointing out the sample tests and the instructions for using the booklets.

Armed Services Vocational Aptitude
Battery and Military Recruiter
Visitations

During the junior year, any interested student could write the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB), which was administered at the school by local military recruiting officers. Periodically during the school year, recruiters visited the school to talk to SUTOE classes. Students who requested it could arrange to have recruiters visit the school to interview them individually. The purpose of this activity was to make information on the military available to those students who wanted it.

College Catalog and Career
Information Library

While not precisely an activity, an important resource for post-high school planning was the library of catalogs and career information maintained by counselors in the student services center. Counselors were available to assist students in locating materials from public and private colleges and universities and from proprietary and trade schools. Career information materials were also housed in the collection for student use. The purpose of the library was to make information readily available to students.

As should be apparent from the foregoing summaries of activities associated with the post-high school plans component of the counseling program, considerable counselor and student time and energy were devoted to this area of concern.

Information Collection and Analysis

The point of evaluation is to indicate whether or not the program component being studied is doing what it is intended to do; in this case, assisting high school students in making plans for what to do after graduation. The results of evaluation should be useful in modifying the program component, where necessary, to make it more effective. Those activities or aspects of activities within the program which students find effective in making and implementing post-high school plans are strengths in the program, and should be maintained. Any part of the program which does not serve this end, or any student need which is not being met, indicates a weakness in the program, an area which needs modification either to eliminate that which lacks utility or to develop procedures to meet perceived needs. Specific activities are likely to have varying degrees of utility for the students engaged in them, depending on those students' plans and expectations. It is unlikely, for example, that the Scholastic Aptitude Test workshop would be judged equally valuable by a student who intended to attend a state university and by a student who had applied for an apprenticeship in carpentry.

Two research methods, intensive interviewing and participant observation, are particularly appropriate for collecting subjective and interpersonal evaluation information. Lofland said of intensive interviewing that

its object is not to elicit choices between alternative answers to pre-formed questions, but, rather, to elicit from the interviewee what he considers to be important questions relative to a given topic, his descriptions of some situation being explored.

Its object is to carry on a guided conversation and to elicit rich, detailed materials that can be used in qualitative analysis. Its object is to find out what kinds of things are happening, rather than to determine the frequency of predetermined kinds of things that the researcher already believes can happen (1971, p. 76).

Participant observation he defined as "the circumstance of being in or around an ongoing social setting for the purpose of making a qualitative analysis of that setting" (p. 93). Having noted that the "strategy of being with and around the participants of a setting over a period of time is the most directly involving and therefore the most intimate and morally hazardous method of social research" (p. 93), Lofland encouraged the participant observer to include in field notes a running commentary on his own state of being during field work.

The field notes are not only for recording the setting; they are for "recording" the observer as well. The observer has his personal opinions of people; he has emotional responses to being an observer and to the setting itself. He can feel discouraged, joyous, rejected, loved, etc. In order to give himself some distance on himself, the observer should also be recording whatever aspect of his emotional life is involved in the setting. . . . Such keeping track can serve at least two important functions. (1) In being at least privately honest with oneself about one's feelings toward objects, events, and people, one may find that some of the participants also feel quite similar things and that one's private emotional response was more wide-spread, thus providing a clue for analysis. . . . (2) Periodically, one will review his notes, and during analysis one will work with them intensively. A concurrent record of one's emotional state at various past times, might. . . . allow one to scrutinize one's notes for obvious biases he might have had (pp. 106-107).

Intensive interviewing and participant observation, then, not only recognize the involvement of the researcher in his research, but provide some guidelines for identifying and controlling for biases on

the part of the researcher. At least equally important, these methods are, by definition, ways of exploring the involvement of the subjects with the activity being studied. Additionally, these are information collection techniques well suited to evaluation research, in that they can provide access to the reactions or responses of those whom a program has been intended to serve.

Information Collection

All members of the senior class of Douglas High School were asked to participate in intensive interviews with the researcher, in which students' impressions of the activities relative to post-high school planning were explored. The purposes of the study, as well as the confidential nature of the material collected, were explained to students. Any student who objected to being interviewed, if the objections could not be readily overcome, was eliminated from the study. Of 107 seniors, 98 were interviewed for the present study.

The possibility of employing a design using samples of counseled and noncounseled students, rather than the entire class, was considered. It was rejected, however, because of the nature of the program component being studied. Post-high school plans counseling began in the eighth grade at Winston Junior High School with pre-enrollment and in the freshman year at Douglas High School with SUTOE, a required career education class. Activities such as annual pre-enrollment and periodic senior credit checks rendered it unlikely, if not impossible, that any student would escape post-high school plans counseling entirely. Therefore, identifying an uncontaminated noncounseling group for comparative purposes was deemed outside the realm of possibility.

Lofland suggested that studies based on intensive interviewing typically involve between 20 and 50 subjects (1971, p. 91). However, he was referring to those kinds of studies which concern themselves with the whole of complex social systems or institutions. In the study here undertaken, which was concerned with the evaluation of a particular, and relatively limited, aspect of one program within an institution, it seemed appropriate to interview all whom that program was intended to serve, if possible.

Interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed by the researcher. Interview protocols, as per Lofland, included

(1) summaries and notes of what the interviewee said generally at some point; (2) verbatim transcription of responses that seem important at the time of writing; and (3) ideas, little, tentative pieces of analysis (1971, p. 91).

The interview format employed for the study appears in the appendix.

Before information collection for the study was initiated, the interview format was tested on a group of five students who had graduated from Douglas High School with the class of 1981. Their comments and recommendations for clarifying the questions and making them more comprehensive were incorporated in the interview guide that was used. In addition, professional counseling colleagues of the researcher contributed to the final form of the interview guide.

For purposes of comparability of responses, all questions included on the interview format were asked of all students who participated in interviews. The student responses gave rise to further questioning for clarification of responses, meaning of responses, or additional information.

As participant observer, the researcher maintained field notes of observations of activities as they occurred, of student-counselor interactions relevant to post-high school planning, of student requests for information, and of informal interactions between faculty, students, counselors, and parents as they were relevant to post-high school plans.

In terms of the phases for participant observation identified by Balaban, (cited above, p. 67), entry into the situation in this case required only the building principal's permission to conduct and continue research, as the researcher was already an accepted staff member whose professional assignment included the evaluation of counseling programs. Active involvement with people in the setting was also established, requiring only extension and focus on a particular program component for purposes of research. Recording activities, observations, events, thoughts, feelings, interactions, and insights, therefore, was the only significant change required for moving from the role of counselor to the role of participant observer.

Information Analysis

For purposes of analysis, Lofland's suggested six units of organization for qualitative materials were employed.

1. Acts. Action in a situation that is temporally brief, consuming only a few seconds, minutes, or hours.
2. Activities. Action in a setting of more major duration--days, weeks, months--constituting significant elements of persons' involvement.
3. Meanings. The verbal productions of participants that define and direct action.
4. Participation. Persons' holistic involvement in, or adaptation to, a situation or setting under study.
5. Relationships. Interrelationships among several

persons considered simultaneously.

6. Settings. The entire setting under study conceived as the unit of analysis (1971, pp. 14-15).

In terms of the present study, acts included such events as students requesting information of counselors, brief exchanges between students regarding the program component under study, or faculty reactions to requests for their participation or cooperation in a program activity. School attendance itself constituted an activity, as did SUTOE class or ongoing credit checks. Meanings were both observed as they occurred and elicited in interviews. Participation was observed in such events as college and university visitations, use of the scholarship file, and time spent with counselors on the question of post-high school plans. Relationships relative to the subject of the study were observed both in the counseling center and in activities conducted elsewhere on campus. The school was the setting, its rules, regulations, and purposes defining the parameters of events that occurred there. Obviously, the units identified by Lofland are neither discreet nor exclusive, but represent an heuristic device for coping with qualitative materials in which there is considerable interaction. An act, for example, may well include verbalizations that reveal meanings.

Having collected qualitative material on the various units of the social phenomenon under consideration, it remained to analyse that material for purposes of evaluating the effectiveness of formally designed activities which were a part of that phenomenon. Relative to the analysis of acts, Lofland suggested identifying acts that recur and seem to have importance for all or various types of participants, and identifying phases (beginning, middle, and conclusion), of recurring

acts (p. 20). As to activities, he suggested identifying the most general as well as more specialized activities, and who among the participants carries on these activities. Further, the phases or stages of activities should also be identified (p. 24).

"Meanings," Lofland said, "tend to be transbehavioral in the sense that they define, justify, and otherwise refer to behavior and are not simply a description of it. Meanings interpret behavior among participants in a social world (even though they may also describe it)" (p. 24). In analysing meanings, it was important to remember the possibility that there may be discrepancies between the constructions put on various terms by members and by the observer, and to seek to eliminate those discrepancies by eliciting clarification from members. We do not all mean or understand the same thing, for example, by the word "democracy." Analysis of meaning again moves from the general or all-pervasive (such as reactions to counseling per se) to the specific (as to the purpose of the credit check). Analysis also included the discovery of the phases of meaning through which participants moved (p. 31).

Analysis of participation centered primarily on the identification of patterns of participation, and the association of those patterns with particular members or groups of members in the social phenomenon being studied. Participation patterns may be in part a function of participants' labels for those who participate in particular ways, a function of the formal description of the setting itself, or a function of the particular area of participation. Patterns may be member-developed and designated or constructed by the observer on the

basis of observation of activities. Analysis included identification of phases and cycles of participation, where they existed (p. 41).

As regards relationships, analysis, according to Lofland, is concerned with both lasting and transient relationships, the phases through which participants in relationships move, and the cycles of relationships within the setting (p. 47). Further, how relationships are influenced by the nature of the setting, or by role definition, was of importance in the present study. Analysis of the setting itself included a description of the setting, variations in patterns within subsettings (as between the administration office, the classroom, and the counseling center), and changes occurring within the setting (p. 53).

Analysis, as Lofland suggested, occurred throughout the process of material collection, categories and classifications of information changing as indicated by the materials themselves. Interview and observation materials were organized originally in terms of isolated activities and the purposes they were intended to fulfill. As collection and analysis proceeded, organization was altered to reflect emerging patterns.

Generally, the concern was with three questions: (1) what is being done, (2) is it worth doing, and (3) how well is it being done? More specifically, the question was: to what degree do program elements meet the felt needs of the students the program is intended to serve? Counselors and other educators plan programs based on what they have observed to be the needs of students. On the basis of the Oregon Department of Education Administrative Rules (1979), it would appear that students need, among other things, to

1. develop decision-making skills,
2. understand educational opportunities and alternatives, and
3. establish tentative career and educational goals,

which needs are met primarily through the efforts of the school counseling and guidance program. Judging from the activities designed by counselors at Douglas High School, professional counselors think students need to

1. make well-informed decisions about what to do after high school,
2. know where they stand in regard to programs toward graduation and how to correct any credit deficiencies,
3. know what kinds of opportunities in career or occupational preparation they are acquiring through their high school programs,
4. have both general and specific information on scholarships, public financial aid, and entrance requirements for college or university,
5. have specific information about institutions they want to attend,
6. have information about their personal attributes as applicable to various kinds of employment,
7. have information about the channels through which various career and occupational skills are acquired, and
8. have access to sympathetic and knowledgeable professionals who are prepared to provide specific information and personal counseling for decision-making.

To what extent are these identified needs congruent with the needs felt by students? Do there exist felt student needs which are not being addressed by the program component? To what extent are needs being met? Which of those needs identified and addressed by the program are not indeed felt by the students? These are the general evaluative questions examined in the study, through the information collected by participant observation and intensive interviewing.

Summary

In the foregoing discussion, the setting in which research was conducted and the events studied were described. Methods of information collection and analysis were discussed. The study was concerned with evaluation of a series of activities developed by counselors to assist students in a small, semi-rural public high school in making decisions about what they would do after graduating from high school. Intensive interviewing and participant observation methods were used for information collection. The analysis of information was conducted coincidentally with information collection, and involved the identification of patterns of participation in and reaction to activities.

The information collected through intensive interviewing and participant observations is presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 5

INTERVIEW AND OBSERVATION RESULTS

This study was undertaken over the period of an academic year. The primary information collection method was intensive interviewing. Interviews were supplemented by observations of student participation in events, of activities taking place in the counseling center, and of interactions between counselors and students, counselors and faculty, and counselors and parents. The procedure and the material collected are presented as follows: (1) a discussion of the interview procedure; (2) summaries of interview results and responses; and (3) a discussion of observations.

Interview Procedure

A preliminary contact with each student was arranged to elicit student participation in interviews. At this meeting, the purposes of the study and the procedures to be used were outlined briefly to the student in very general terms. Of the 107 students contacted, two declined to participate, stating simply that they would rather not. No further effort, after the initial meeting, was made to elicit their participation. Two early graduates were unavailable to participate in interviews: of these, one had been contacted and had agreed to participate, only to find that the appointment made was in conflict with his job situation; the other decided on very short notice to take advantage of having completed course requirements and to begin her college

program at Umpqua Community College in the spring term. All other early graduates were interviewed before they left the high school at the end of the semester. Two students were suspended from school as a result of violation of school policies, and were unavailable for interviewing. One of these had agreed to be interviewed, and had begun an interview before his suspension. Two students were unavailable for interviewing because of irregular attendance, being absent from school repeatedly on days when interview appointments had been arranged. And a ninth student was unavailable for interviewing because of her schedule: she had no study halls or student aide classes, was involved in drama and athletics after school, and devoted herself to family and church functions on the weekends. She could not find a free hour in her schedule to devote to an interview. Thus, a total of 98 of the 107 graduating seniors was interviewed for the study.

Interviews were conducted during study halls or other unassigned student time, such as after school or during class periods when the students' services as teacher aides were not required. Because of the difference between the time required for interviewing and the length of class periods, numbers of interviews were conducted over a period of several days, adjusted to the students' availability and the interviewer's schedule. Approximately 50 percent of the interviews required more than one class period of time. Three interviews required considerably more than two class periods of time, because of student concerns which were presented during the interviews and which took precedence over the research being conducted.

Interviews were held in the interviewer's counseling office in

the school student services center. During their four years of high school, 72 percent of the respondents had been in the office for schedule changing, to discuss academic or personal problems, to be enrolled as new students, to request credit checks, or to acquire information about courses and programs. While it cannot be considered to have been a neutral setting, the counselor's office had the advantages of being both convenient to all parties involved and familiar to most.

When students arrived at the office for their interview appointments, the purposes and procedures of the interviews were explained in greater detail. Students were told that the study was being conducted to provide information for evaluating a part of the counseling program, that evaluation of school programs was required by the Oregon Department of Education, and that the information collected was being used as well for the interviewer's doctoral research. Students were told that, in order to save them some time, their particular post-high school plans would be shared with the counselor who conducted exit interviews with all seniors in the spring. Aside from that, they were assured that their opinions of and reactions to the program component being evaluated would be held in strictest confidence. Students were asked to be as candid as possible, since the whole point of the interviews was to discover what needed to be changed in the post-high school plans activities, and that, while their contributions would not have a very profound effect on what was offered to them, they might help make the program more effective for students following them. They were told that they could feel free to interrupt the interviewer at any time and to question the direction of the interviewing. Students were also told

that questions would ask for both information and opinions. They were encouraged to request clarification for items they did not understand, and were told that they would be asked to elaborate on responses that left the interviewer in doubt about what they meant to say. In addition, they were assured that only the interviewer would be listening to the tape recordings being made, and that as soon as the information had been taken from them, the tapes would be erased.

All interviews were tape recorded. The interviewer maintained running notes as well, on interview format guides duplicated for that purpose. Tape recordings were reviewed for information missed in note-taking, for precision in reporting responses, and for cues to information students needed and had not yet been able to acquire from counselors. After the tapes were reviewed, they were erased to protect student anonymity and confidentiality, and used in further interviews.

The content of the interviews was determined by the program component being studied. Questions about student use of and reactions to counseling services generally, and about their reactions to particular program component activities were asked. The interview guide, which appears in the appendix, was developed to keep the interviewer "on track" and to provide as comprehensive coverage of the subject matter as was possible. In the case of students who had not participated in an activity, as for example students who had transferred to the high school with credit in career education and were therefore not required to enroll in the career exploration course, questions were deleted from the interview. This accounts for discrepancies in numbers of student responses where they occur.

Following is a summary of the results of interviews, including both numbers or percentages of responses to information items and student comments associated with questions which asked for their opinions about program component activities. The comments which are included represent information that would be unlikely to emerge in more objective evaluation procedures; vary from the majority of student concerns; or elaborate on routine responses.

Interview Results and Responses

The presentation of interview results and responses is organized on the basis of the divisions of the interview format. In each case, material is further subdivided by individual items. Where appropriate, responses are categorized, and percentages of students responding within each category are presented. In some cases, where an individual student's responses fell into more than one category, the numbers or percentages reported in the categories will equal more than the total number of students who responded, or more than 100 percent. In other cases, when students could not specify the nature of their responses, the total numbers presented in categories will be fewer than the number or respondents. For each activity, a summary table of those student comments which could be clearly classified for simple tabular presentation, is included.

General Reactions to Contacts and to Participation in the Program

The interview proper was opened with questions designed to

determine the use seniors had made of the counseling services. To the question, "This year, have you seen a counselor for anything other than a schedule change," 55 percent of the respondents replied in the negative. Of the 45 percent who had seen counselors for something other than schedule changes during the senior year, 36 percent had presented personal problems; 29 percent sought information on college programs and admissions; 13 percent wanted academic assistance; nine percent were volunteering their services for the peer tutoring program; six percent wanted additional information on financial aid for college or university; 4 percent were seeking recommendations for scholarships; two percent wanted information on the Scholastic Aptitude Test; and two percent wanted information on the State Police Academy. Four students saw counselors to arrange for early enrollment at Umpqua Community College, so that they would meet the April 1, 1982, deadline for eligibility for Social Security education benefits.

When asked "Have you ever seen a counselor for help in deciding what you want to do after you graduate from high school," 63 percent responded that they had not. Of the 36 students who had sought counseling for help in making post-high school plans, all but one said they were satisfied with the results of the contact. The one student who was not satisfied with the results of counseling indicated that he had had no help, and still did not know what he was going to do. For 80 percent of the students, counselor contact had been confined to requesting information on training programs or specific courses. Seven percent of the students indicated that the counselor had helped them decide what to do, and nine percent indicated that the counselor had

helped them decide where or how to carry through with plans they had already made themselves. One student who was still undecided about what to do after graduation suggested that the counselor contact had helped to "narrow things down a bit and sort them out."

When asked, "Have you ever seen a school counselor for help in planning a high school program which will prepare you to meet your occupational or career goals," 48 percent of the respondents answered in the negative. Of the 52 percent who indicated that they had seen a counselor for this purpose, only one student expressed dissatisfaction with the contact. The bulk of the requests for assistance had to do with high school course planning, accounting for 54 percent of the contacts. Confirmation of credits toward graduation and endorsement requirements were the other two concerns identified by students. Three students indicated that they had not followed through on the plans they had made with counselors' assistance. Student responses to opening questions are summarized in Table 1.

Students volunteered the following comments about the counselor contacts they had had. The young man who was dissatisfied said, "I didn't know what I wanted to do--I still don't." Others presented a variety of benefits from counselor contact. "It gave me a better idea about how to go about what I want to do." "It really helps, especially with the college prep program." "Counselors provide useful information and correct misinformation you get from friends and some teachers." "The counselor helped me plan a program to complete my high school graduation requirements and begin my vocational training at the college at the same time." "The counselor gave me a harder high school

Table 1
Student Use of Counseling Services

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
Saw counselor, 1981-82 school year, for other than schedule change	5	4	1	12	4	4	5	9
Saw counselor regarding post-high school plans sometime during four years of high school	7	3	3	7	2	3	3	8
Saw counselor regarding career planning sometime during four years of high school	7	6	4	8	8	4	3	11

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

program than I'd intended to follow. It's worth it to get college prep." "Counseling made it possible for me to make up classes I'd failed, and improve my grade point average." "I've gained a lot of confidence from teachers and counselors. I feel it's important to have a counselor as a friend."

Post-High School Plans

Fifty-two percent of the students indicated that they intended to pursue college or university education after they graduated from high school. Fifteen percent indicated that they wanted to attend a technical or trade school, 15 percent that they wanted to find employment as soon as they graduated, five percent that they wanted to be housewives (including two students who were married before the end of the first semester), and 7 percent that they wanted to enter the military. Of those remaining, one student was working toward an apprenticeship in meat cutting; one was interested in law enforcement; one intended to become a missionary; and one wanted to become a jeweler through a correspondence course. One was undecided. Of those who indicated that they wanted to go to work immediately after high school, 13 percent expressed an interest in going to college after they had worked for a number of years.

In some cases, what students actually expected to do varied from what they wanted to do. Three students who wanted to attend trade schools expected to find work instead, at least for a year. Two who indicated that they wanted to attend college expected to find work instead, while one expected to get married rather than go to college.

Of those who indicated that they wanted to go to college, one had some doubts about where he would be going. He had been nominated for the Air Force Academy, but his scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test were not sufficient for admission to the Academy. Therefore, he was considering either a private or state university instead. Four students were considering the military if college or employment plans failed to materialize. One did not know what she would do if she were not able to find money for her occupational training program at the community college.

When asked how they had decided what to do, students gave a variety of responses. Twenty-three percent indicated that they were planning to do what interested them. Thirteen percent said "it's what I've always wanted to do," and suggested that they had never considered anything else. As one young man put it, "It's the natural order of events--grade school, high school, and college. I've always known that's what I'd be doing." Prospects for employment in a particular field and training needed for employment were indicated by 12 percent of the students as major factors in their decisions. Parental influence and peer influence were cited as factors in making their decisions by 15 percent and by eight percent, respectively. Other influencing factors cited were work experience, successful participation in the Douglas County Career Education Skills Contest, prayer, high school course work, the scholarship workshop, and technical school representatives. Eight percent of the students indicated that, still being a bit uncertain about their plans, they really could not say how they had decided what to do. One student said, "If I don't get the job I

want [electronics training] in the Air Force, I won't go. I guess then I'll see about college."

Of the students interviewed, 83 percent indicated that their parents were supportive of their plans. One young woman, the eldest of nine children, said, "Dad's worried about money. He doesn't want me to go in debt for college, and how I'll pay for it is completely my concern. The family can't help with money." Twelve students indicated that their parents did not say much about their plans, the most frequent reaction among them being, "they want me to do what I want to do--it's my decision." In the cases of two students, their parents disagreed with each other, one parent supporting their child's plans, the other opposed to them. One student said her parents did not support her plans because "they think I'm irresponsible, too afraid to get out and try anything--which is true." Another indicated that her father wanted her to go to college, and that what she wanted to do was be a housewife and mother. She was concerned about the conflict this disagreement was creating at home, and suggested that she would be taking some secretarial courses at the community college to pacify her father.

Other students indicated specific parental influences on their decisions. "Dad's been talking about the job market around here." "My dad was an Army Military Policeman. He says it's a good career opportunity, and it's something I'm interested in. I may decide to make a career of it."

Another student identified other influences: "I wanted to be a veterinarian, but I hate math and science. One of the counselors recommended other areas, and one of the teachers helped. I'm glad I

decided on journalism."

When asked about their friends' reactions to their plans, 43 percent of the students indicated that their friends did not say, or that they did not talk among themselves about what they would do after high school. One young man summarized the feelings expressed when he said, "My friends don't talk about the future, beyond about next week." Six students said that their friends opposed their plans, four indicating that some of their friends "think it's dumb to go into the [service]." One young woman said, "Some of my friends don't think I'll make it [in college]." Another said that

my friends don't think I'll go very far, because they don't think I can set my goal and achieve it. They know what I'd like to do is dance, and that I'll never have a career in that. My best friend has faith in me--everyone else thinks I'm kind of dumb.

Other comments were varied, reflecting sometimes what students thought of their friends' attitudes. "Most of my friends are just staying around here." "Some think I should go to college. It's up to me." "My friends think it's funny that I'm planning to go to college, because I haven't done that well in school." "Some people say college isn't needed. I think it is for me." "My friends are just peers. They shouldn't tell me what to do." "Some say I'm stupid to go into the Army, but it's a better way for me to pay for college than a lot of loans and stuff." Of those whose friends were supportive, the most frequent comment was, "they say go for it."

When asked whether or not anyone had helped them make their decisions about what they wanted to do after they graduated from high school, 34 percent of the students maintained that it had been an

independent decision. Another 35 percent indicated that their parents had been primary helpers in decision-making. Other influential people identified were peers (by 18 percent of the students), counselors (by 11 percent of the students), siblings, employers, teachers, close relatives, and college representatives. The young woman who planned to be a missionary indicated that God had helped her make her decision, as had elders in her church. One student indicated that the Veterans' Administration counselor had helped him make a decision.

Students volunteered the following comments about people who had helped them decide what to do after graduation. "My brother in the Army enjoys being a military policeman. I think I'd like it." "A lot of people of tried to help me--my folks, teachers, counselors--but I think they finally gave up on me." "My parents want me to go to college, but they want me to stay around home for another year, until I'm more mature --attend UCC [Umpqua Community College]." "Going to college was a decision I basically made myself, but being more specific about it, I've had help from my parents, counselors, and friends in college, for narrowing down schools and majors." One young man responded to the question from another point of view: "People have helped me decide what not to do, like drama. That can only be a hobby unless something happens to get you really going with it."

Asked how well they could picture themselves doing what they had selected as a career or occupation, 75 percent of the students said that they saw themselves doing that, the most common comment being an exclamatory "I want to do this." Nine students indicated that they had trouble picturing themselves doing any particular thing, which they

considered to be a source of their inability to make firm career decisions. Of the five who could not see themselves doing what they had decided to do, one said, "I can't really get a mental picture. I'd prefer to be here [Winston], because I can get land from my dad for a house, but I can't picture where I'll be or what I'll be doing after college." One young woman said,

I can picture myself being an athletic trainer [her career choice], but I really see myself as living in the country and being a housewife. What I really want to do is marry somebody rich who can give me the kind of home I want.

One youngster who could not picture himself doing what he was planning to do indicated that he really did not like studying, and was concerned that he would not be able to survive the college education necessary for his plans. One young woman said, "I can't picture myself being a stewardess, because I really don't know what they do. It just seems like it would be fun." Yet another, who had no difficulty envisioning herself in a career role, said, "I can picture myself doing a lot of things, but haven't decided on anything. I think about teaching music, but then I think about all those ungrateful kids!"

Five visualized themselves following their goals to the point of being independent business people in small shops. These students represented a variety of commercial interests. One saw herself teaching pottery and owning a craft shop; one aspired to owning a shop for diesel engine repairs; one wanted an independent communications equipment repair service; one anticipated owning a jewelry store; and one said, "I want a little gas station, where I can do anything and everything to cars. That's what I've always wanted."

Students identified money for college or training as the primary obstacle to reaching their goals in 41 percent of the cases. Study habits and personal motivation were identified as obstacles by 10 percent. Keeping up with course work was a concern for nine percent of the students. Local employment opportunities were cited as obstacles by 11 students who intended to seek employment upon graduation, or 73 percent of the total who wanted to go right to work. Three students who wanted to find employment after graduation cited their own lack of training and experience as problems. Three indicated that making a decision about a goal was the primary obstacle to reaching a goal.

One student identified "doing what I want to do instead of what my mom wants me to do" as her major obstacle. Another said

I can see myself getting satisfied with being an average student about this time of year [January-February], and average students don't get that much financial assistance to carry on with school.

Other concerns presented themselves: "War would stop me--nothing else will;" "Where to live is a problem. I can't live with my parents all my life;" "Too many people are after the same job I want;" "I don't know anything about it, where there are schools I can take." Two students saw themselves as their only obstacles to achieving their goals: "Just myself--to overcome the problems I give myself;" "Just me--the only thing that's stopping me is me, if I don't keep going."

Table 2 presents a summary of student responses to questions about what they planned to do after graduating from high school.

Table 2
Students' Post-High School Plans
and Feelings about Plans

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR 19	GE 8	VOC 5	CP 13	MGR 15	GE 15	VOC 7	CP 16
Plan: Work	2	0	1	0	5	3	3	1
College	9	5	1	13	3	4	2	14
Marriage	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Military	0	0	0	0	3	4	0	0
Trade/Tech School	2	2	2	0	4	3	2	0
Other	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
Expect: Work	4	3	0	3	5	7	3	1
College	4	3	0	10	2	2	2	14
Marriage	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Military	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0
Trade/Tech School	3	1	4	1	3	3	2	0
Other	1	1	1	0	2	0	0	1
Parents Approve Plans:								
Yes	14	5	5	11	14	13	7	14
Do not say	5	2	1	1	1	2	0	2
No	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Friends Approve Plans:								
Yes	10	5	3	9	9	8	3	9
Do not say	9	3	2	4	6	7	4	7
Helped Make Plans:*								
Parents	8	6	2	2	4	3	4	7
Counselors	2	1	0	2	1	1	2	2
Teachers	4	0	1	2	1	0	0	2
Peers	5	1	1	2	4	0	2	2
Siblings	2	0	0	2	2	0	1	1
Others	2	3	1	1	2	1	1	2
Independent Decision	4	0	1	6	8	8	3	5
Can Visualize Self in								
Career Selected:								
Yes	14	6	5	10	9	10	7	14
No	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	1
Unsure	5	1	0	2	4	5	0	1

*Students named more than one helper for making plans

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

Self-Understanding Through
Occupational Exploration

Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration (SUTOE) was a career education class required of all students to fulfill the Oregon State Department of Education competencies for career awareness, exploration, and planning. The course was designed to give students accurate information about themselves through the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) and the Worker Trait Interest Check List (ICL), to be used in career exploration and planning. Another purpose of the class was to assist students in planning high school programs of study which would prepare them to pursue career goals. Of the graduating class, seven students did not have SUTOE, having transferred comparable career education credits when they enrolled in school. The questions relevant to SUTOE were not asked of them.

Student reactions to the GATB and ICL were mixed, 43 percent indicating a positive reaction, 30 percent a negative reaction, and 12 percent a neutral reaction. Thirteen percent of the students maintained that they did not remember the GATB/ICL, declaring "That was a long time ago." The negative comments ranged from "it was stupid" to "I didn't see the value" to "that should be for seniors." One student said that he considered it too basic to reveal much about individuals. Three said it was "fun to put those pegs in the holes." One young man said that the GATB/ICL "asked the wrong questions. They can tell you what you're best suited for, but not what you want to do." A young woman suggested a positive value in using the instruments, saying

You might think you were no good at something, but you really are, and you don't realize it and you can

do quite well in that. But because you never realized you were good, you never go out and try to do that. If something tells you you're good at something, wow! you can do it.

Other positive comments suggested that the students either enjoyed the instruments themselves or were pleased with their results on the instruments.

Forty-seven percent, when asked what they had learned from the GATB/ICL, indicated that they had learned about the kinds of careers they could pursue, because of learning more about their own abilities. Nearly 11 percent of the students said that they had learned nothing from it, 4 percent that they felt the tests were unreliable, and 3 percent said that they were too young at the time to have learned anything from the exercise. Positive comments included, "I learned about things I was interested in and hadn't known about," "I found out some things I was good at that I didn't know I could do," and "that's when I started thinking about forestry." Other comments from students ran the gamut from disaffection over what careers were indicated to something they had learned that was of value. "I could do a lot that I didn't like." "All I was good for was being a dockworker. I didn't like that." "I didn't know how to use the information we were getting." "It was a little deceptive. It was nice to hear the good things. I wouldn't have accepted it if I'd been told I didn't qualify for something I wanted to do." "It was too general--there were too many variables." "I scored high on everything. It didn't help much to narrow down career decisions." Another youngster felt it "narrowed things down" too far:

I didn't like being identified with bus and taxi-cab drivers. It was useful in showing me I was being a little too choosy. Part of it was being a freshman, and not very realistic about it. I was narrowing myself down when I didn't know what I wanted to do. It surprised me that I didn't end up with anything on the ICL--I thought I was interested in a lot of things.

Of the respondents, 51 percent felt the GATB/ICL results reflected their abilities and interests fairly accurately. Nearly 20 percent felt it was not an accurate representation of their abilities and interests, and the remainder said that they did not know or did not remember how accurate the results were in relation to their knowledge of their own skills and interests. Those who were not satisfied that the results represented them pointed to associations between their abilities and interests and occupational or career possibilities that they found unattractive.

When asked about career information sources, students produced rather an impressive list. People working in various occupations in which students were interested, including relatives, were mentioned by 19 percent of the respondents. Colleges, casual reading in the library, and peers were each cited by 13 percent of the students. Parents, teachers, and counselors were popular sources of information, named by 17, 15, and 14 percent of the students, respectively. Other sources of information mentioned were job experience, the student services library of college catalogs and career guides, employers, siblings, high school courses, military recruiters, and SUTOE class, in descending order of numbers of students who named them.

Many students asked for clarification when they were asked how

their career choices related to how they felt about themselves. When the question had been explained, one young woman said, "I'd never thought about that before, but I sure will now. I really can't answer you now." Others expressed varying degrees of satisfaction that their career choices were consistent with their self-images, several voicing ambiguous feelings. "Nursing is the best compromise for me. I'm really interested in archaeology." "I probably underestimate myself." One young man explained his feelings of ambiguity in some detail:

They almost contradict. I think myself I don't relate really well with the stereotyped smart people of this school. I almost resent it sometimes, they use the big words and stuff and that seems like what I'm getting into with pre-engineering. I want to do something with my hands, be active, and preferably combine the two, where I could use my intelligence, too. I'm almost going to have to find my physical activity off the job. Hopefully, a perfect career will hit me in college. I'm not sure what to expect. I haven't specified what I'm going to do. I feel like it's kind of frightening--it's getting close, here comes college. But I don't feel trapped. I don't feel I have to go to college and have to major in this. I have room to breathe.

Still others had no doubt at all that they had made the appropriate choices for the kinds of people they were. "It's me!" "I like to help people, have high expectations of myself." "I'll have to change my style of dress. I'm looking forward to it." "My ambitions have changed--scoring high on tests has made me set my career goals higher." "It's a complicated field. I'd be proving to myself that I'm capable of doing things I haven't done before, accomplishing things." "That's why you spend five years in college, so you can be on top of things and look down to see what's going on." "Music is my favorite thing in the whole world. I'd play my flute all day, if I could.

I'd like to give others the feeling I get when I play." The young woman who had chosen to be a missionary said, "I feel stronger, more confident, knowing I'm making the right choice." The youngster who planned eventually to own a diesel repair shop noted, "I'll have some personal control over my life in my job. I want that."

One student expressed impatience with the education required for meeting her goal, saying "I'm looking forward to a career, wish I could just jump into the market without going to college. I want to get on with my life." Others were all but totally inarticulate when confronted, apparently for the first time, with the question of whether or not their career goals were consistent with how they saw themselves. "I don't know" and "I guess so" were as much as could be elicited from them.

Whether or not they could express themselves about how well their career goals matched their self-images, students could say how they felt about the career or occupational choices they had made, 82 percent indicating that they felt good about their choices. Twelve percent were uncertain, and 5 percent had not made a choice, so could not say how they felt about what they planned to do. One young woman said, "I feel better knowing I have a goal to reach." Another said "It's something to fall back on. I know I'm getting married in three years, and I chose training that fits my marriage plans." A male student said "I'd planned to go into logging with my dad, but with the market what it is, I need something else."

Part of the course content for SUOTE was intended to give students experience with writing letters of application for jobs and

going on job interviews. Indicating that they felt confident that they could fill out application forms and write letters of application were 72 percent of the students. Of those who were not confident about their ability in this area, one said he just did not write very well, and the remainder indicated they would need some help in writing an adequate letter. "I don't know what to write," was the concern of one student, while another said "I'm afraid I'd make a mistake." Eighty percent felt that they were prepared to be interviewed for jobs. "Interviews are hard, but you have to do it if you want a job," was a typical comment. "SUTOE helped you know what to expect," was one young woman's assessment of the interview situation. "Interviews are perfect. I like that," was the comment of the young woman who was afraid she might make a mistake in a letter. Of those who did not feel prepared to be interviewed, their comments ranged from "I'm a bit nervous" to "the idea terrifies me." One student said "I'm shy, don't like to talk about myself. That's why I took leadership [class]." Ten students maintained that letters of application and lessons on interviewing were the most valuable course content of SUTOE.

Students were also given information on apprenticeships in SUTOE. Nearly 74 percent thought apprenticeships offered good training opportunities. Seventeen percent did not know what apprenticeship programs were. Of the students interviewed, 14 percent had considered apprenticeship programs, but only two students were actively engaged in pursuing them. Thirteen percent of the students indicated they wished the occupational fields they planned to enter offered apprenticeship training because they thought such programs were preferable to

other methods for entering occupational fields. One stated,

For me, it would be an awful situation, because there's not much of a way out once you start. For some one who's certain, it's one of the best ways to go, because you're getting first hand experience right away, and you don't spend time in college taking required courses you may not need.

Another youngster, who had investigated an apprenticeship, noted that "It's hard to find someone who will sponsor you." Still another student said that from her experience, "on the job training is nerve-wracking. I'd rather work. . . for free until I know what to do. I'd feel better about it." Three indicated that they felt apprenticeship programs were very limiting because "you only learn about one thing." Others spoke from the experiences their parents had had, indicating that the apprenticeship programs had provided effective training. One youngster mentioned that he would be interested in a carpentry apprenticeship, "but it's not that steady right now."

Students were asked how useful SUTOE had been for what they planned to do after graduation from high school. Sixty-two percent felt it had been and would continue to be useful, 25 percent felt it had no value, and the remainder were neutral about it, making such comments as "I remember it, so it must have some value." Twenty-six percent maintained that SUTOE "started people looking at jobs;" two percent that its greatest value was with high school course selection; 11 percent that the experience with letters and interviews was valuable; and two percent that it allowed students to discover which occupations were suitable for them. Some 17 percent of the students felt the course was offered too early in their academic careers, suggesting that it should

have been offered at the junior or senior year. Another eight percent suggested that they would like to have seen SUTOE stay at the freshman year and have been followed by another course during the junior or senior year, when people were closer to having to make decisions.

Again, student comments were varied. "At the time, it didn't mean much. Counselors and workshops have been more helpful." "I didn't get as much detailed information about careers as I'd have liked." "I kind of would like to have had it this year. I had to go back to [SUTOE teacher] for information on a job." "Teach it more on an adult level, so students will think more seriously about it." "There should be more emphasis on high school planning, but not in class--maybe in the eighth grade." "SUTOE was not like what I'll be doing in the real world." "It gave exposure to the kinds of jobs that are available. It's the only course of that kind." "It opened up new areas I hadn't known about." "It teaches you a lot about your strengths and weaknesses. As a freshman, you can still change your plans and your high school classes." "It narrows things down so you can think about it." "It helped in a lot of ways. I found out what I wanted to do." "It was useful because of the films on how people are interviewed, how to dress, what to say, what to expect." "It was more useful for what to do during high school. It should help you decide on a high school program and endorsement."

Contrary to most who suggested that the course should be offered at a different time, one transfer student, who had SUTOE as a junior, said, "It would have been more useful if I'd had it as a freshman, and could plan high school from it." And another said, "It should be at the eighth grade. You need it before you start high school, and then have

the freshman year to experiment with classes and plans."

A summary of student reactions to SUTOE appears in Table 3.

Pre-Enrollment

Each year, students had a week in which to plan their programs for the following year. The school schedule was revised to allow for an advising period first thing in the morning. Students met in groups of ten students with a faculty adviser to go over pre-enrollment materials and produce a course request. Students were provided with copies of their transcripts so they could check their earned credits and compare their progress with the endorsements they wanted to earn. Eight percent of the students said pre-enrollment was not useful, stating that it was a waste of time or that they would have preferred to select their courses at the beginning, rather than the end, of the school year.

Three other students were equivocal, indicating that the value of pre-enrollment changed over time: "It was more useful my freshman and sophomore years than it was last year;" "If you're going to do college prep, you just about have to get all four years worked out by the end of your freshman year;" "I'm glad we do it this way, but every semester I have to change something."

One student, unlike three who said the week was too much time to spend on pre-enrollment, said "It's not long enough. You have three days to do the credit check and fill out the forms, and then only two days to make important decisions." Another said that pre-enrollment "keeps you on track, provides motivation for the following year at a time when students might be getting bored with the school year." Students mentioned that they liked the opportunity to have their parents

Table 3

Student Reactions to Activities of Career Education Course,
Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration (SUTOE)

N=91	FEMALE=43				MALE=49				
	ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
		18	6	5	13	14	14	6	15
Reaction to GATB/ICL:									
Positive		4	3	5	3	6	7	1	9
Negative		9	2	0	8	2	3	3	5
Uncertain		5	1	1	2	6	4	2	1
Feel GATB/ICL Accurately									
Reflects Interests,									
Skills: Yes		8	3	4	6	8	8	4	12
No		5	2	1	6	1	4	1	2
Uncertain		5	1	0	1	5	2	1	1
Career Information Sources*									
Parents		5	1	0	1	2	3	3	2
Counselors		5	1	1	3	3	1	1	2
Teachers		2	1	2	4	3	1	0	3
Peers		3	3	0	3	2	1	1	2
Library Materials		4	3	0	3	2	2	0	3
Colleges		0	2	0	2	3	0	2	1
Siblings		2	0	0	2	1	1	0	0
High School Courses		0	0	1	2	0	1	1	2
Other (work experience)		3	2	3	3	4	4	1	5
Feeling Regarding Career									
Choice: Positive		17	6	5	12	11	11	6	13
Negative		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uncertain		1	0	0	1	3	3	0	2
Feel Prepared for Job Search:									
Application Letters--Yes		9	7	5	12	10	9	5	13
Application Letters--No		8	0	0	1	4	4	1	2
Interviews--Yes		10	7	4	11	12	12	6	14
Interviews--No		7	0	1	2	2	1	0	0
SUTOE Value:									
Positive		13	4	5	9	10	11	4	6
Negative		3	3	0	4	1	3	1	7
Uncertain		2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0

*Students could give more than one response

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

GATB-General Aptitude Test Battery

ICL--Worker Trait Interest Check List

look at what they planned to do, that it was "nice to know in advance" that they had made decisions for the following year, and that they felt "it'd be totally impractical to have it at the first of the year."

When asked if they had used pre-enrollment materials to help make career decisions, 32 percent said that they had, primarily by matching their career and occupational plans with the appropriate endorsements, and then planning their programs around endorsement requirements. One student said, "I wish there'd been electronics."

When asked how they felt about the programs they had selected in high school, 86 percent of the students expressed themselves as satisfied and 10 percent as dissatisfied. Three students were uncertain. Sixty-two percent said their parents were satisfied with what they had done in high school, one noting that "anything's better than what my dad did." Of the remainder, 32 percent said that their parents left it up to the students or did not really care. Five students indicated that their parents were unhappy about what they had done in school. This group included one young woman whose father wanted her to go to college, contrary to her plans for herself. "My dad's really smart, and wanted me to take all the hard classes. I didn't want to do that." Most of the voluntary elaborations on answers came from students who were dissatisfied with their programs. "I don't feel too good about my program, now," was the comment of one student who had learned that he would not be earning the endorsement he wanted. "I wish I'd followed a better sequence. I took some courses before they were recommended, and really didn't do very well in them." "The office machines area is lacking in the secretarial courses. What we have is

limited, and not everybody gets experience with the machines." Several students identified classes they felt they ought to have taken, that would have made their programs more satisfactory.

Some of the students who were pleased with their programs had comments to volunteer, as well. "I'm glad I took a lot of different things. I'd have liked more home economics." "My program in vocational agriculture goes along with my family life." "After my sister, my folks think what I've done is pretty terrific."

When asked about the quality of faculty advising they had had in pre-enrollment, 78 percent of the students indicated that it had been satisfactory. Their comments clarified their responses: "People are interested in me succeeding." "They help you make up your mind." Several teachers were identified as having been particularly knowledgeable and helpful.

Those who were unhappy with the advising they had received during pre-enrollment were fairly specific about their discontent. "Teachers are less well-informed than counselors." "They didn't help all that much. The teachers just referred us to counselors." "Counselors should do all the pre-enrollment." "Teachers don't know what goes on in the classes they don't teach." "I'm not happy about the advising. Teachers don't know that much about it. It's hard to decide on classes, because you don't know what the classes include or how teachers teach. The course descriptions could be better." One young woman knew she was dissatisfied, but had trouble determining the source of her discontent:

No good. Every year I have to come back at the beginning of the year and have my schedule all changed. It's not that. . . I just change my mind over the summer, I guess. . . or it's not right.

Sometimes they get the wrong classes. I've had that happen a couple times. I wanted to be in advanced wood and it wouldn't fit in my schedule and I really wanted it, but there was nothing I could do. But there was nothing you guys could do, either, because of the way the schedule is. I wanted leadership and shorthand, and didn't want to drop either of those, and woods was only those times.

Counselors spent pre-enrollment week, after the first period adviser-advisee meetings, in the library, where they were available to students during their study halls. Fifty-one percent of the informants said that they had sought help with pre-enrollment from the counselors. Of those, 82 percent were satisfied. Two students did not know whether or not the counselors had helped. And the remainder were not happy with their attempts to get counselor help for pre-enrollment. One student said he had never found the counselors, one complained of not getting what she wanted, and the others suggested that "nothing happens." One student said the counselor "tries to give me more classes than I need."

Some of the contacts with counselors had to do with purely routine matters, such as confirming credits, checking on endorsement status, or arranging for early graduation. One student said, "I come in confused and go out knowing what to do," when she had seen a counselor about pre-enrollment. Others said that the counselors "helped with priorities," and "guided, showed me deficiencies and what to do about them." One student stated that

the counselors being in the library during pre-enrollment is a really good idea. In the classroom there's a lot of kids in there and you're not on a one-to-one basis, and a lot of times you can't get your schedule worked out the way you want to. In the library you're on a one-to-one basis with the counselors and you can.

When queried about how they had selected their elective courses, 92 percent of the students stated that it was on the basis of things that interested them. Thirty-one percent of those interviewed named their endorsement goals as primary or secondary factors, along with interest. One youngster broke it down more specifically, to "½ interest, ¼ availability, and ¼ peer involvement." Other students indicated that they felt they should have had some courses they had not taken. One chose his electives on the basis of "the most fun and the least work." One said she though she "just took the easiest way out." Another young man expressed remorse, saying "I cut out on my program, always dropped my tough courses before I'd have to be responsible for grades in them." And yet another noted that "what's really strange is drama. I didn't want it, my mom made me take it. After the first day or two, it's been my main interest." Other considerations were involved in elective selection. "I just chose what I didn't have yet. They're not real important." "Something I figured would help me when I get out of school. I wish I'd had metals, and more engines." "I read the course description and liked it, or I liked the teacher." "Mostly, with [special education teacher's] help to get credits to graduate." "Most had to do with the field of work I wanted to do, but a lot were just for fun, a break between classes that I could enjoy."

Student responses to pre-enrollment activities are summarized in Table 4.

Senior Credit Check

At the beginning of each semester, one of the counselors

Table 4

Student Reactions to Pre-Enrollment Activities

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR 19	GE 8	VOC 5	CP 13	MGR 15	GE 15	VOC 7	CP 16
Program Value:								
Positive	17	7	5	10	14	14	7	16
Negative	2	1	0	3	1	1	0	0
Used Materials for Career								
Decision-Making: Yes	7	2	3	3	8	5	2	3
No	12	6	2	10	7	10	5	13
Students' Feelings about								
Program of Studies								
Followed: Positive	14	8	4	13	14	13	6	15
Negative	5	0	1	0	1	2	1	1
Parents' Feelings about								
Program of Studies								
Followed: Positive	14	4	4	10	5	8	5	11
Neutral	4	3	1	3	8	6	2	5
Negative	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	0
Value of Faculty Advising:								
Positive	12	6	5	11	13	14	5	13
Negative	7	2	0	2	2	1	2	3
Requested Counselor								
Assistance with Pre- Enrollment Decisions	7	4	2	9	10	5	2	12
Value of Counselor								
Assistance: Positive	7	4	2	8	8	4	2	10
Negative	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	2
Basis for Selecting								
Elective Courses:*								
Interest in Course	18	8	4	13	16	14	6	14
Endorsement Requirements	1	1	3	12	1	1	1	9

*Students indicated both interest and endorsement as bases for choosing elective courses

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

assessed credits earned by each of the students who expected to graduate at the end of that academic year. During the year, students who were in danger of failing required classes, or who were deficient in credits for graduation, were called in for academic advising. All but one of the students understood the purposes for the credit checks: to make sure students had earned the credits they needed for graduation, and to provide assistance with problem courses or alternative methods of earning credit if students were deficient. All but one student, who said she was indifferent to the credit check, "because I keep track myself," said the credit checks were good to do.

Students volunteered remarks that revealed the value of the credit checks to them. "I'm just skimming by--it helps me." "I missed some school; in the credit check I found out how to make it up." "It makes me feel like you care about us." "I like to know you're involved in what we're doing." "The counselor told me I was short a literature class for my college prep endorsement. I'd been holding out for poetry, which never fit in my schedule, and had overlooked the literature requirement this fall."

One student suggested that "some kids use it for getting by with as little as possible." Another said "a lot of seniors don't care, until they get to graduation day and can't graduate." And one said,

I don't feel I've been a part of it. I feel a lot of that sort of stuff I've done on my own. You told me to take more English for the college prep endorsement. I don't feel anyone's taken a special interest in me . . . it's just what I decided to look into that I've had help with.

Three students looked at the process from a different point of view. "I don't know why a counselor has to do it. Each student should be responsible for his own background. One thing high school's lacking is putting responsibility on the student." "Is that really what counselors are for at Douglas? I mean, students should do it themselves. I understand why counselors do it." The third said

I kind of feel that by the time you're a senior, you should know what's going on, and know what kinds of credits you have. Now that you're more mature, you should be able to do more on your own. But, too, I wouldn't want to see someone low on their credits and find out, hey! I'm not going to graduate.

All claimed they were making good progress toward credit for graduation, three admitting that their graduating depended on passing all the courses in which they were enrolled, and one that it depended upon completing a correspondence course. The two students who were enrolled in the learning handicapped program who expected to graduate expressed some concern over particular courses that were difficult for them, but indicated that they were getting the assistance they needed in the special education department.

The range of total credits at graduation was 220 (the minimum required for graduation from Douglas High School), to 290 (the maximum possible with an overload in the senior year). There were no students in the 1982 graduating class who included on their transcripts Umpqua Community College credits in excess of those needed to meet minimum graduation requirements. One youngster had planned his senior year to include community college automotive classes in his graduation credits; three others completed graduation requirements in the second semester

with credits for college courses in which they had enrolled to meet deadlines for taking advantage of Social Security education benefits.

A summary of student responses to questions about the credit check appears in Table 5, following the discussion of student comments on the transcript endorsement program.

Transcript Endorsement

Four transcript endorsements, determined by the programs students followed through their elective credits, were available: the minimum graduation requirements endorsement signified a program that had no particular concentration in elective courses; the general education endorsement indicated academic credits beyond the state minimum competency requirements in mathematics, science, social science, and communications; vocational endorsements in four areas--metals, agriculture, secretarial science, and clerical training--signified that a student had completed a vocational cluster approved by the Oregon Department of Education; and the college preparatory endorsement indicated that those courses recommended by the State Scholarship Commission for students who intended to continue their educations in the state's colleges and universities had been completed.

When asked how they felt about the endorsements they had earned, 67 percent of the 34 students who earned minimum graduation requirements endorsements expressed dissatisfaction. Of the 23 students who earned general education endorsements, 30 percent were dissatisfied with their endorsements. The remaining students expressed satisfaction with their college preparatory or vocational endorsements. Four students mentioned

that they had worked for their college preparatory endorsements, and were proud of them. One young woman pointed out that "most of my friends are in the fast intellectual part of school. I'm glad I stuck with it. I want to go on, to be something." Another said, "my mother told me the endorsement's not important."

When asked about the relationship between their high school program endorsements and their post-high school plans, the college preparatory students revealed that they understood that the programs they had followed were those recommended for college-bound students. They also felt that the courses they had taken in high school would help them to succeed in college.

The minimum graduation requirements students who were satisfied said "It's all I need," or "I'll just be happy to graduate." Those in this group who were not satisfied either said that they felt that they should have worked harder, and earned "at least general ed," or explained why they had not done more than they had with high school. "I feel awful about it, and it's all my own fault." "Depressed! My freshman year was bad." Two students whose backgrounds were rather atypical, expressed confusion about the endorsement program and its relationship to post-high school plans. A young man who had regularly left school to work in his family's silvaculture enterprises, said

I've spent the past two years catching up,
after losing most of three years of credit.
I should have been able to control things better.
I didn't realize what I wanted to do, how
important it was.

A Vietnamese student, for whom English was a recently-acquired second language, said that during his freshman year "I got my endorsement all

messed up. I didn't understand about school or college prep. I thought all I had to do was get 220 credits to graduate. I didn't think about the endorsement." Two students expressed a preference for a vocational metals endorsement rather than the minimum graduation requirements they had earned.

General education students who were satisfied felt that what they had done was adequate preparation for going ahead with their post-high school plans. Those who were not satisfied universally expressed a desire for a "higher" endorsement, vocational education or college preparatory. Three students, from different academic positions (minimum graduation requirements and college preparatory), said they wished the school had offered a vocational electronics program.

Post-high school plans and personal interest were the two factors most frequently cited, by 28 and by 18 percent of the students, respectively, in how students had decided on endorsement programs. Twenty-five percent of the students said that they had not consciously decided, that the endorsements they earned were the result of how their course selections had "worked out." Other influences on endorsement plans included a desire for a better than minimum education, accommodation to early graduation plans, personal satisfaction, and a feeling of accomplishment. Six students selected the "easiest" programs they could get, six indicated that counselors had influenced their decisions, and three said they had done what their parents had wanted them to do. "I didn't want minimum graduation requirements. It wouldn't look good to an employer. And I didn't want college prep, because then people would expect too much of me." "I took classes out there [metals shop]

and liked them. I'm not a four-year college person." "It's the highest for me except for college prep, and college prep classes would get in the way of my vocational classes."

Among the respondents, 26 percent indicated that they had changed their endorsement programs sometime during their four years of high school. The most frequent change was from college preparatory to vocational or general education. Two students indicated that they had dropped their college preparatory endorsement plans because they could not handle algebra. Four others said they wanted to change from general education to college preparatory, but that they were too far along in high school when they decided to change to schedule all of the college preparatory requirements before their anticipated graduation date.

When asked how their endorsements related to their own ideas about their skills and abilities, 57 percent of the students said that their endorsements reflected what they knew and could do. Another 25 percent felt the endorsements did not reflect their skills and abilities accurately. One stated flatly that his minimum graduation requirements endorsement "downgrades me." Twelve students expressed uncertainty about the relationship between their endorsements and their abilities. Usually, as reflected in the comments below, students felt that the endorsements they earned did not do them justice. "I have more skills and abilities than general education reflects." "I don't think minimum graduation does. My diploma shows I can 'go forth and conquer.'" "I can do more than minimum--I just don't." "I can do better. I know I can do better, but I earned what I'm getting."

One youngster stated that "college preparatory doesn't reflect

me very well. My skills and abilities aren't that high." Another noted that "I suppose it reflects what I can do--or want to be able to do."

One student recommended that teachers be more conscientious about establishing course prerequisites:

It would have been helpful to have geometry before I had architectural drafting. Geometry isn't even recommended for drafting in the course outline, but the teacher tells us we should have had it when we get into the class. It's a little late then.

Another student expressed his confusion over the whole endorsement program, noting that "it doesn't seem standardized from school to school. What will it mean if our transcripts have endorsements and nobody else's has?"

One young man suggested that the entire high school curriculum should be revised.

A person picks the endorsement that suits him, the way he wants to go--it reflects me. Vocational metals is pretty good. I think vocational education is what high school should be all about. More advanced math--you should have the competencies out of the way in junior high. We need a better woodshop program. Roseburg builds a house. We should have something in logger training.

Student responses to those credit check and endorsement items that could be readily summarized in tabular form appear in Table 5.

Scholarship Workshop and File

During the year of this study, a workshop to assist students in applying for scholarships was added to the activities of the post-high school plans component of the counseling program. Of those interviewed, 40 percent indicated that they were applying for scholarships, and

Table 5

Student Understanding and Evaluation of Credit Check
Activities and Reactions to Endorsement Earned

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
<u>CREDIT CHECK</u>								
Understand Purpose of Credit Check	19	7	5	13	15	15	7	16
Value of Credit Check:								
Positive	18	7	5	12	14	14	7	16
Negative	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
<u>ENDORSEMENT</u>								
Feelings Regarding Endorsement Earned								
Positive	8	6	5	13	3	10	7	16
Negative	11	2	0	0	12	5	0	0

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

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another five percent indicated that they intended to but "don't know how," or "haven't got started yet." Sources of information on scholarships were varied. The student services center was cited by 18 percent, counselors by 17 percent, and colleges by 19 percent, with the scholarship file, parents, scholarship sponsors, the morning bulletin of the school, and teachers mentioned by some students. Two respondents were getting scholarship information from the native Indian tribes to which they belonged.

Of those students expressing an interest in scholarships, 75 percent participated in the scholarship workshop. The workshop included information on preparing scholarship application portfolios, writing personal statements, requesting recommendations, and work time for starting on preparation of application materials. Students were given opportunities to examine samples of materials prepared by graduates from previous years. The Financial Aid Form was also introduced during the workshop. The workshop was held in October, in an effort to give students ample time to prepare documentation to accompany their applications.

Among the participants, 90 percent said the workshop was of great value to them, one student maintained that it was a waste of time, and two were uncertain about the value, mentioning that they had not yet been awarded scholarships. Comments varied, including some suggestions for improving the workshop in future. "We could have used more directed time. We spent a lot of time just sitting around talking." "The workshop should have been done earlier." "Somebody should tell us we should start collecting material when we're freshmen." "It's

probably the biggest thing that helped me." "I'm using everything she told me." "It helped with a portfolio and resumes--good timing." "I got a lot of information I needed at the time." "I didn't understand what was going on--it might mean more later." "I thought it was a great idea. I think it helped a lot of people get organized." One youngster said he would have participated but "I didn't know about it." Others mentioned that they did not have morning study halls, so attended only one or two sessions because they felt they could not afford to miss any more class time than that.

A file of scholarship announcements, including information about eligibility and deadlines for application, was located in student services. As new information arrived at school it was added to the file, and a notice to that effect, including sponsors, eligibility and deadlines, was put in the morning bulletin, which was read over the school public address system each day. Students had free access to the file, and the counselor responsible for maintaining the file and disseminating scholarship information was available to help students learn how to use the file. Fifty-one percent of the students who had indicated an interest in applying for scholarships said they had used the file. Of those, 74 percent indicated it had been valuable to them. An additional 42 percent of students interested in applying for scholarships said they did not know about the file, and would like to use it, even if they did not feel confident that they would qualify for scholarship assistance. After completion of interviews, these students were either taken through the file by the interviewer or referred to the scholarship counselor.

Again, comments about the file were varied. Most students were

somewhat circumspect about their comments, confining themselves to brief criticism or praise. "It has limited utility." "The Kiwanis file is incomplete." "I don't get a lot out of it--I find the forms, but not the instructions." "It's very useful--who's eligible, what's there." "Really helped me understand that scholarships wouldn't come looking for me." "It's out there where anybody can use it."

Two students, however, felt very strongly about the scholarship file. One young woman declared

That's, in my opinion, the weakest part of the program. I've gone through the file a couple times. If you don't stand and go through it yourself--it's mostly up to the student--the counseling center could help more with that, with getting information out about scholarships that are available.

Another student said

I don't get a lot out of that. She gave us the forms, but not the instructions. She knows I'm interested in it. On the instructions it said it had to be signed by the 'head Elk' by February first, and I was just starting on it February first or the end of January, and oh, boy! that cuts me out. Around the eighth she asked me if I was doing it and I said no, because of that. I wasn't really well-informed on it, and I felt I would have had a good chance on it. That bothers me. Mom came down for a meeting and found out about three I hadn't even heard of. I feel like--maybe I'm asking for too much--but she knows what I'm interested in--I don't mean to pick on her because she's helped me quite a lot. It seems like maybe [counselor] could take that to specifically tell me or help me, tell me "you should apply for these." Maybe I'm paranoid, but I talked to [earlier graduate] and he said "talk to [counselor]. She'll give you a list of scholarships and she'll harp on you and see that you meet all the deadlines." That hasn't happened. Maybe organize the file by categories--OSU students, these are general, then specifics in back--these are for boys, these are for girls. . .

Table 6 presents a summary of responses to questions about the scholarship workshop and file.

Table 6

Student Use and Evaluation of
Scholarship Workshop and File

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
	19	8	5	13	15	15	7	16
Plan to Apply for Scholarships	4	3	4	8	3	2	3	16
Information Sources:*								
Student Services Library	1	3	1	8	1	0	0	3
Counselors	1	0	2	6	2	0	1	5
Scholarship File	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Colleges	1	2	2	6	1	0	2	11
Participated in Scholarship Workshop	1	2	2	13	0	0	0	11
Value of Workshop:								
Positive	1	2	2	13	0	0	0	10
Negative	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Used Scholarship File	1	1	1	7	1	0	1	9
Value of File:								
Positive	1	1	1	6	1	0	1	6
Negative	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Neutral	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2

*Students could name more than one source of information on scholarships, or no source of information

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

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College and University
Visitations

In September, the state colleges and universities sent a team of representatives to the high school to meet with students about the various colleges and their programs. After a general session, in which concerns like admission requirements and college costs were presented, students had an opportunity to meet in small groups with representatives of the colleges in which they were interested. Depending upon the time allotted by the college and university representatives and by the school, students could meet with two or three representatives in small group sessions. For the 1981-82 school year, the time allotment allowed for two small group sessions for each student.

Of the respondents, 45 percent participated in the visitation. Sixteen percent of those indicated that they "wish it had been longer. We only had time to see two people." Even students who were not themselves interested in the four-year schools felt that the visitation was a "good idea," 50 students who were not college-bound or who were planning to attend community colleges making that observation. One student felt the representatives "should come more often." Three students who were planning to attend four-year state institutions were prevented from attending the visitation sessions because of timing-- they had an off-campus volleyball game that day, and had to leave school before the visitation team arrived. Five who expressed interest said they did not know about the visitation. One student, who was in his third year of high school and was graduating at the end of his junior year, was not included in the visitation activities, because of his

class status--teachers were asked to excuse seniors interested in attending, but not to excuse six-semester graduates.

Private colleges and universities also sent representatives to the school, but on an individual basis. Students who had indicated in a survey conducted during the Scholastic Aptitude Test workshop in the fall that they were interested in private schools were notified of the times and dates representatives expected to be at school. In addition, visitation information was posted on a bulletin board outside the student services center. Of those interviewed, 16 percent saw private school representatives, and all indicated that the experience had been of some value to them. Three students expressed concern that they had not been informed of the dates when the representatives from schools in which they were interested were to be on campus.

Even students who were not interested in private schools felt it was a "good thing" to have them come to campus. They suggested that they thought students needed all the information they could get when they were trying to decide where to go to school. One young lady suggested that having the private school representatives come to the high school gave students an opportunity to compare the private and state schools.

Students were also asked whether or not they had visited the campuses of their choice. Fifty-four percent indicated that they had. People visited college campuses for a number of reasons--drama workshops, athletic events, and International Relations League conferences were frequently mentioned--in addition to formal senior class open house days. With the exceptions of one student who visited University of

Oregon, one who visited Southern Oregon State College, and one who visited Linfield College, all found the formal visitation days very beneficial. The dissatisfied visitor to University of Oregon found the class workshops she attended valuable and informative, but the financial aid and scholarships presenter very abrupt, discouraging, and disinclined to help. She indicated that, having an older brother at the University of Oregon, she had not been dissuaded from enrolling, but felt that people whose only contact was the visitation day might well have been. The dissatisfied Southern Oregon State College visitor said she did not like the school or feel comfortable there. She indicated that people were "nice" to her, but she did not like it, and felt the visit was a waste of time. She said she would probably start college at Umpqua Community College, if she did not get married right away instead. The youngster who was dissatisfied with his visit to Linfield College experienced people overlooking him in preference to attending to other students with better athletic records who had gone with him to visit the college. He also found the campus in a depressing state of ivy-covered deterioration, and the program he was interested in less comprehensive than he had been led to believe it was. He opted for the Oregon State University engineering program, to which he had been accepted. Several students pointed out that it was important for seniors to visit campuses, rather than to rely on the representatives who came to the high school, and who were recruiting for their schools.

Being a dynamic program, changes occurred in the post-high school plans component of the counseling program during the period in which this study was conducted. During the 1981-82 academic year,

visits from Douglas High School graduates who were attending college were formalized into small interest group sessions in the library, open to any senior who wanted to attend. Twenty percent of the students participated in these meetings, and all but one found them valuable. "They gave us first-hand information about what we'll be doing." "They can tell us what it's really like." "I know these people. If they can make it, I can." "We relate better to students than to the official representatives." "Visits from grads really help. They make college seem less mysterious, make you less afraid. I know I won't get crucified in college." The one student who did not consider the session she attended valuable said that "the OSU students mainly gave us a lot of goof-off stuff."

Student responses to questions about the visitations are summarized in Table 7.

Financial Aid Workshop

The Financial Aid Form for applications for federal grants, loans, and work-study programs was initially introduced in the scholarship workshop. Students were encouraged to file their applications as soon after January first as was possible. At the beginning of the second semester, which began February first, the scholarship counselor held a financial aid workshop in personal finance II classes, attended by all seniors, to be certain that all students who were eligible to apply for financial aid had had an opportunity to do so. Over fifty percent of the students indicated that they were applying for financial aid. When asked about the value of the information they had received either in the

Table 7

Student Participation in and Evaluation of
College and University Visitations

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
	19	8	5	13	15	15	7	16
Participated, State Team Visitation	6	4	2	9	4	4	3	12
Would have participated, but did not know about visit	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
Could not participate because of other obligations	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1
Value, State Team Visitation:								
Positive	4	3	2	9	4	4	3	12
Negative	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Participated, Visitations from Private Schools	1	0	0	5	2	1	2	6
Value, Private School Visitations: Positive	1	0	0	5	2	0	2	6
Negative	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Participated, Visits from Douglas High School Graduates	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	11
Value, Visits from Douglas High School Graduates:								
Positive	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	11
Negative	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Visited College of Choice	14	1	4	10	5	7	1	12
Value, Visit to College of Choice: Positive	13	1	4	10	5	7	1	12
Negative	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

scholarship workshop or in the financial aid workshop, 93 percent of these students were very positive. "We got the booklet that shows the family contribution they expect." "It brought it to our attention, whether or not we needed it." "I didn't know who could apply. It really helped me." "It impressed on me how important it was. One of the Douglas grads reinforced that."

Students who had no need of the information were largely very tolerant of the presentation in a class they were obliged to attend. "It was useful for a lot of people. I didn't need it." "It's the only place you can be sure to get all the students who need it." One young man went a bit further, connecting the financial aid information with the personal finance II course content. "I wouldn't want to go that far in debt. It's okay to use class time. It's important for people who need it to pay for college. It deals with numbers." Another student pointed out that "the personal finance II presentation was too late. You should already have filed your form."

Counselors were the primary sources of information about financial aid, 66 percent of those seeking financial aid indicating that they had gone to a counselor for help. Parents, teachers, and college representatives were mentioned, and 16 percent of the students who were interested in applying said that they had had assistance from no one.

Fifty percent of the students who were seeking financial aid indicated that they had filed their Financial Aid Forms, and several had received eligibility reports. Those who did not understand how to read their eligibility reports were referred to the financial aid

counselor. An additional 39 percent said they would be filing their applications, even well after the recommended date for filing. The primary delay in filing seemed to be parental procrastination. Rarely could students file the forms without their parents' at least supplying information about their assets and incomes. "I need cooperation from my parents. There's plenty of help available to them to fill it out, if they'd only use it." "I'm trying to get Mom to fill it out. I know it's necessary. We've had more than adequate help and information."

Other reactions, from students whose forms had been filed, indicated both the frustration attached to filing and the need for it. "I filed, but I don't think it's worth much for me." "Mom did the form. I think there's too much emphasis on non-negotiable and non-liquid assets." "It's the only chance some people have to go to college." "The form was tedious. Mom got help from people at the ESD [Douglas County Education Service District], where she works."

Another innovation in the program during the year in which this study was conducted, was a parents night for financial aid information and assistance, organized by the Douglas High School counselor who was responsible for financial aid, held at Umpqua Community College, and open to anyone in the community who wanted to attend. The parents night was preceded by a series of four articles on financial aid, written by the Douglas High School counselor, and published in the local daily newspaper. When asked about financial aid, four students cited the newspaper articles as having been very valuable to them and to their parents.

Of the Douglas High School students who wanted to file Financial

Aid Forms, 35 percent were represented at the parents night, some of them attending with their parents. An additional 37 percent said that they had known about it, but that no one in their families had attended: everyone was working or had other things to do, they had already filed, or they felt that they had sufficient help without it. Twenty-one percent of the students said they had not known about the parents night.

Among those who attended, reactions were mixed. "Mom found it discouraging. It looks like we won't qualify." "It helped Mom understand what was going on. I'd thought it would tell me more than it did." "The big thing for us was the farm supplement. It will make a difference in whether or not I qualify." "It was very useful--good timing." "I was kind of bored. I already knew that stuff. More students should go than parents. Next year their folks won't be around to fill it out for them."

When asked, all students who had applied for financial aid or who intended to apply for financial aid, indicated that they thought that adequate help and information had been available to them and to their parents. However, one young lady suggested that information should be more readily accessible:

Enough help and information has been available, but you have to go look for it. A lot of times people don't have the time. I understand why it's done the way it is but--it should be more open than it is. It's an area a lot of people are worried about.

Table 8 summarizes student reactions to financial aid activities.

Scholastic Aptitude Test Workshop

All seniors participated in the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)

Table 8

Student Evaluation of Financial Aid Workshop

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
Plan to Apply for Financial Aid to Assist with College Costs	7	2	3	13	4	3	4	14
Financial Aid Workshop Value: Positive	7	2	2	13	4	3	4	13
Negative	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Information Source:								
Counselor	4	1	3	9	2	2	2	8
None Beyond Workshop	3	1	0	4	2	1	2	6
Filed Financial Aid Form	4	0	1	7	1	1	3	8
Were Represented at Parents Night for Financial Aid Information and Assistance	4	1	0	5	0	1	1	5
Value of Parents Night:								
Positive	4	0	0	4	0	1	0	3
Negative	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	2

Key to abbreviations:

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workshop, unless they were absent from class. By arrangement with the government teacher, the counselor responsible for dissemination of college information used government class time to explain the Scholastic Aptitude Test, the procedure for applying to write the test, and the deadlines for making application. Students who were not intending to enroll in four-year state or private colleges or universities were not required to submit SAT scores with their applications--community colleges and proprietary or trade and technical schools did not require them. As all seniors were enrolled in government class, whether or not the information about the SAT had any value for them, they were given the information.

Comments from students who did not need the SAT varied. "It didn't mean anything to me." "It was kind of puzzling. I didn't see the point." "It makes you think about college, even if you're not planning to go." "I never took it, knew I didn't need it. You should use class time, because of people who don't have other sources of information." "It was interesting. I looked it all over, even did the sample test. I knew I didn't need to take the SAT." "It was a waste of time, but it's okay to use class time. That's the only time you can reach all the seniors." "There are people who might get interested in college if they hear about it." Only one student who did not need the SAT expressed the opinion that class time should not be used for a workshop on the SAT. "You can call in the people who are interested in it."

Reactions from students who did need to take the SAT were also varied. "It was useful, informative. I'm glad I got the dates." "There

was just too much material, too much to read. It was overwhelming, and I don't think people read all of it." "I hadn't known before that I had to take it." "It just got me scared, so I didn't want to take it." "There's not really any way you can prepare for the SAT." "It was too late. It should be done in the junior year." "I scored too high on the sample test, which is misleading." "It would be great if they taught a course on the SAT." One young man suggested that

it would be more useful if we had something more like people who are taking the SAT getting together twice a week to read over the material, old tests, take tests--people would be better prepared. Something like what Roseburg does.

Thirty-two students indicated that they needed to take the SAT, while four said they did not know whether or not they needed it. Two of those who did not know if they needed it said they did not know yet what their plans were. Six students who planned on attending the community college, or at least on starting there, labored under the misapprehension that they needed the SAT. One student said he had taken it even though he did not need it, just because he was interested in how he would do on it.

Twenty-three, or 72 percent, of those who needed the SAT said they had written it. The remaining nine said they had scheduled to do so. When asked about the relationship between their SAT scores and college admissions, one student was not clear about how the scores were used, and one said he was not impressed with his scores and abandoned the question. Others indicated that SAT scores "don't mean much, except the Test of Standard Written English," "are used for making comparisons of entering students with current college freshmen," and

"are used by the colleges to predict success in college." One student said that he did not really know, except that "I'm okay for admission."

When asked how well their SAT scores agreed with their judgments of their own ability and preparation for college, 47 percent indicated that their SAT scores agreed with what they had expected to do. "I was pretty pleased. I did well where I expected to." "It was pretty good. The second time was more accurate with English scores." "It's lower than I expected, I was disappointed, but I guess it's probably accurate." "Unfortunately, my scores aren't that high, but they're about what I'd expect." "My scores were lower than I'd hoped, but realistically about what I should have expected."

Of those who were not satisfied that their scores on the SAT represented their ability and preparation for college, most suggested that the problem was with themselves." "I thought I could have done better." "I think I'd have scored higher if I'd been calmer." "I was disappointed. My scores are not good." "I feel I could do better. I blew up."

Twenty-six students said that they had written the Pre-Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT) during their junior year. Again, when asked about the value of the exercise, reactions were varied. "I don't remember the results, but it's useful in knowing what to expect on the SAT." "It was a good preview of the SAT." "I scored higher on the PSAT than on the SAT. It's a little deceptive." "My scores told me I might be more than I'd thought. I could set higher goals." "It wasn't as demanding as the SAT. Just the time the SAT takes is so much more." "I thought the SAT was easier than the PSAT."

One student, who said he had not known about the PSAT until after it had been administered on campus, suggested that "you need to publicize the PSAT more to juniors. . . what it is, why to take it, when to take it." When it was pointed out that the administration date was in the school calendar in the student handbook issued to each student at the beginning of the school year, he said "yes, but no one looks at that except for ball games. Maybe you could advertise the school calendar and what's in it better, too." Table 9 summarizes comments.

Armed Services Vocational Aptitude
Battery and Military Recruiter
Visitations

Sixteen percent of the students indicated strong objections to the appearance of military recruiters on campus, offering a number of observations. "They are really pushy." "I think they lie. You should talk to people other than recruiters." "They do enough in the mail. It's okay for kids who ask to see them." "I don't particularly like that. People who want it will go find out about it." "I think it's terrible. If you want to get in you can go find them."

The remainder suggested that it was useful to be able to see recruiters on campus, rather than driving into Roseburg to meet them in their offices. "It's useful if you're interested." "It lets you know there's something out there." "It's okay as long as they don't come to classes." "The military's a better idea every time I think of it." "It's a good occupation. I think more kids should go in. They have good benefits." "I think it's important that people remember they're trying to get you to sign up."

Table 9

Student Evaluation of Scholastic Aptitude
Test (SAT) Workshop

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
Value of Information Presented in Workshop:								
Positive	11	6	4	13	10	8	6	15
Negative	8	2	1	0	5	8	1	1
Use of Class Time for Workshop is Appropriate:								
Yes	19	7	5	13	15	15	7	16
No	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Need to Take SAT for College Admissions	3	0	0	10	2	2	2	13
Have Taken SAT	2	1	0	8	2	1	1	8
Took PSAT/NMSQT in Junior Year	1	1	0	10	2	1	1	10
Value of PSAT/NMSQT:								
Positive	1	1	0	9	2	1	1	8
Negative	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program
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When asked about whether or not they had talked to recruiters, 28 percent of the students interviewed indicated that they had. Seven students indicated that they intended to pursue military training or careers; two of those had joined the service on the delayed enlistment program, and expected to begin their basic training within three months of graduation. Responses to recruiter contact varied. "I saw a recruiter, but I want to see if I can make it on my own first." "My dad's military. I know too much about it." "The Army's a good deal for education, but I don't want to go." "I'm considering the Air Force. My grandfather and my aunt were both in the Air Force." "I just asked questions, because Dad took me to see him. What do women do in the military?" "I joined the Air Force on delayed enlistment. I leave in October." One student, who had only recently decided to enlist in the Navy for training in communications equipment repairs, indicated that he wanted to see a recruiter, but would prefer to take care of it out of school time.

When asked if they had ever considered a military career or training, 44 percent responded that they had. Of those, 19 percent had considered training only; 14 percent had considered a military career; 19 percent said they would consider it only as a last resort, if employment or college "doesn't work out;" four percent saw it as a way to get an education; four percent had been interested in Reserve Officer Training programs; and one student said that her mother had vetoed the idea. One youngster who was enlisting said that whether or not he made a career of the military "will depend on how it goes when I get in." Another said, "I've considered it, but I don't want a recruiter hassling

me. Maybe next fall I'll think about it. Dad says it may be a good idea for training with pay." A third noted "I found out I wouldn't qualify for pilot's training, and lost interest. They keep sending me stuff." Others cited the rigorous training, family objections, and fear of the idea as reasons for deciding against military careers or training. Two were still considering the military, but had not committed themselves. Of those who had been or still were considering the military, six indicated that they had taken the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery, administered to determine eligibility for placement in training programs.

One young man, who is taking advantage of Veterans' Administration education benefits, said "My dad died because of injuries in the war. I don't want any part of it. I have to register this month-- they'll have to come get me if they want me."

Seventy-three percent of the students interviewed were aware of the educational benefits offered by the military. Four indicated that that was the sole reason for their considering enlistment. Sixty-two percent of those who said that they knew about education benefits also said they were not interested enough in the benefits to enlist. Five said they "don't want that kind of commitment," one stating that it was a long time to be obligated when "you're only 17 or 18 years old." Another pointed out that "I don't want my life planned by someone else."

Other students had looked into the matter more intently. "I've considered the Navy to the extent of support for college, and if the four years of college would apply to my 20 year retirement. This same young man pointed out that

you need to publicize the ROTC programs earlier. People need to start that in the junior year, and I don't think anybody else knew any more about it than I did. I made my application for ROTC at the last minute, because I just hadn't known about it.

Another, who had applied for admission to the Air Force Academy, said

from my point of view, if I'd been accepted in the Air Force Academy, I'd have fulfilled my obligation and then have applied the training to something else. I'd have learned how to fly. If I'd actually made it, I might have made a career of it, because I could have done it. Benefits aren't bad. I was in it for one thing--education benefits.

Student responses to questions regarding the military are summarized in Table 10.

Closing

The closing questions of the interview asked students to make judgments about their preparation to follow through on post-high school plans; to indicate how useful they felt high school had been for getting ready for life after high school; to indicate to whom they would go first for help with college, career, or occupational plans; to identify any information they needed and had not been able to get; to indicate anything the counseling program might have done to help them that had not been done; and to say how they felt they had been treated by high school counselors. The final question had to do with any recommendations they had for making the post-high school plans component of the counseling program more effective in helping students to make decisions. The questions were deliberately very broad, and elicited a broad spectrum of observations from students.

In regard to their preparation for following through with their

Table 10

Student Use of and Reactions to Armed Services
Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) and
Military Recruiter Visitations

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
	19	8	5	13	15	15	7	16
Consider it Acceptable to Have Recruiters Visit Students on Campus: Yes								
	14	7	5	10	13	14	6	12
No								
	5	1	0	3	2	1	1	4
Have Made Contact with Recruiter(s)								
	6	2	3	0	7	3	2	4
Have Considered a Military Career or Training in the Military								
	3	4	2	6	10	8	3	10
Plan to Pursue Military Training or Career after Graduation								
	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	2
Have Taken ASVAB								
	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	1
Understand Education Benefits Offered by Military								
	14	6	3	11	11	8	6	13

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

post-high school plans, 70 percent of the students indicated that they felt adequately prepared. The comments from these students, however, indicated some ambiguity. "I wish high school were eight years long. There are some classes I'd still like to take." "School contributed, but most of what I need, I'll learn later." "I'm ready for training. I'm not a mechanic yet." "Fortunately, because the technical school I'm attending doesn't want what I don't have." "I'm as ready as I can be. I don't know if I'm competitive with people from larger schools." "I can make it through UCC [Umpqua Community College] easier than OSU [Oregon State University]. I may transfer to a four-year school." "I've done what I can to get ready. It's entirely in my own hands after I graduate, to make what I can of it." "I'm going to do it. I could have had a better start in high school, but it's going to work out."

The 11 percent who did not feel adequately prepared were less ambiguous, their comments being consistent with their doubts about their state of preparation. "I wish I'd taken more classes that will help me with college." "I need more schooling to do anything. I want to go to school, but I don't know what I want to do. I'm planning to go to UCC to explore--take some math, English, forestry, metals, automotive mechanics--maybe then I can decide." "I don't feel prepared. I need time to decide what to do. I'm ready to get out of high school, but don't know if I'm ready for the next step." "I don't think it's adequate. They [potential employers] don't know enough about me, what I can do."

One student expressed her insecurity about her preparation for

following through with her plans by saying, "I need to buckle down. I need to want to work that hard." Others expressed concern about their study habits not being good enough for college, or about being too late in beginning to make plans. Some 18 percent of the students indicated that they did not know how adequate their preparation was for pursuing their post-high school plans. Of these, 33 percent were uncertain about their plans, and the remainder felt that "I won't know until I get started."

Only seven percent expressed doubts about the value of high school in preparing them for life after high school. "Some things are useful, some are not. School should prepare people for what they want to do in way of work." "I'm not quite sure. I'll have to find that out once I graduate." More things at home have helped than anything I've done at high school." "I prepared myself, mostly. How to live when I get out. I know how to cook and clean and all that." "I think I've done more on my own, working."

One young woman observed that her high school preparation was not sufficient, because of her own choices.

For me, since I didn't care about my grades, endorsements--somehow I should have. I know people tried to inform me, but I didn't care or understand. People will need to find it out for themselves. Freshman academic orientation might have helped me, if you'd had it then.

And one young man has some serious doubts about the value of high school generally:

High school's just a big security blanket. I mean, National Honor Society doesn't mean anything, really, but it goes on your transcript and it looks good. No way can they use it as an indicator of how well they're going to do in college or in life

afterwards. "I did this in high school" is all it means. High school gives you an opportunity to do something, whether it's be good in sports or academics or what. People if they're halfway successful in high school, they kind of get stuck in that. They come back in their old football jerseys for the games because they were something here. But in the big world out there, they're not really much of anything. I'm not saying they're zeroes. In that sense, it's something to come back to and feel secure.

A third was concerned about the quality of the high school education she had had.

Sometimes I get the feeling that our classes are too easy. I've had more homework this year than I've ever had before--does criticism of schools have something to do with that? College is going to be a lot harder. I think people from the triple A [larger] schools are better prepared than we are. I wish we had advanced placement classes. I love English and writing, but hated sitting in comp classes with people who couldn't get the parts of speech. It was so slow. We need some advanced placement.

I'm sorry I let other students talk me out of psychology and sociology. "You'll just start analysing people." Now, talking to people who have had the courses, I hear they really like them. They sound really neat.

Again, some of the comments from the 93 percent of the students who felt high school had been valuable in preparing them for life after high school were equivocal. "I wish I could have learned more. . . that's what higher education is for, right? I've learned to know what you have to do to get along with people." "I know how to keep records, do taxes, cook--high school has prepared me pretty well." "I wish I could have taken more classes I'm really interested in, more science, instead of a lot of classes I don't know if I'll need, like literature. I just went along with the endorsement requirements." "High school has helped me learn what responsibilities I have."

"High school provided me with knowledge I'll need for the career I want, has helped me with my family life in courses like personal health, pre-parent training." "High school hasn't been bad for getting ready for life after high school. It's not as good as it could have been if I'd used it right."

And there were those who had no doubt at all about the value of high school. "A lot of learning isn't in the classroom. Relating to people is important. You learn to deal with the problems and frustrations of a growing adult." "You have one chance to do it, and you won't get anywhere without a high school education. It's one of the most important things you can achieve." "Sports helped a lot. Being together, you have to be a team. You learn leadership, responsibility. Other people rely on you." "My elective classes in math and science helped a lot. I came in with the attitude it's a free education, I'll take advantage of it." "I've been involved in a lot of things that have helped me work with others." "It's taught me patience, that I have to get along with some people I don't like." "People treat you more like an adult, tell you what to expect out there." "You go through a lot of changes. It's a step in your life. A lot of maturing happens." "It's been--I can't put it on a scale of 1-to-10--priceless."

When asked to whom they would go first for help with college, career, or occupational plans, 45 percent of the students said they would go to a counselor. Their parents were named by 35 percent as the first choice of a helper. Peers, teachers, siblings, and the school registrar were also named as helpers. Counselors were the second choice for 14 percent of the respondents. Three students indicated

that it would depend on the kind of help they needed, and that they would seek someone who "knows something about what I need to know." Three said they felt the decisions were entirely their own, and that they would not go to anyone else for help.

When asked, "Do you need any information you haven't been able to get," 75 percent of the students replied in the negative. Of those who had not been able to get information they needed, 36 percent wanted scholarship information, 28 percent wanted additional help on the Financial Aid Form, and others asked for information on the police academy, social security benefits for college, training for jewelers, information on colleges, and information on the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. One student wanted information on where to find the scholarship file.

Students had a number of suggestions of things the counseling program could have done for them and did not do. Some of the recommendations, such as "get on my case a little harder over math and English," "fill out our scholarship applications for all of us," and "hit me with a stick along about my sophomore year," fell into the realm of the impracticable or the frivolous.

However, more sincere suggestions were presented for consideration. Students requested an extended time period for college and university visitations; more accessible and current information on colleges; prompting earlier than the senior year to start thinking about college; more help with class choices; and better publicity for and categorization of scholarship information. Students would like to have seen more advanced engines classes than were offered, and programs

that provided "on the job training and credit for work," considerations which had been addressed to the district or building administrations in the past, and had been rejected. One youngster said, "I've never really used what's here. I wish I'd used the program better." Another noted that "I don't know how many people are aware of what's available in counseling." And a third thought that "teachers should respect questions from students." Information on out-of-state colleges was requested by one student. Another asked that counselors "take time out with students. Take more time to explain the information you're giving them."

One student suggested that

maybe as a freshman, you could tell us what we'll need for a scholarship application. Tell people to keep scrapbooks. I think there's too much emphasis on choosing a career. You shouldn't have to worry about that.

Another recommended a more active approach to personal problems on the part of counselors:

You gave me everything I needed, the rest was up to me. [counselor] put me back on my feet last year. I think I've improved since then, a good deal. Counselors could be more personal--they're really busy and tied down, but I still think they could take the time--I mean, they do--but when they see something's wrong. . . they might call a student in and chat with them. Not all the time. . . a student wants to talk to someone but they don't want to go to get help for themselves, they want someone to ask them. Besides that, I think the counseling program's real good.

Two students indicated that counselors had treated them with less than the respect they felt was their due, when asked how they felt counselors had treated them. "I guess you don't know sometimes, but

sometimes counselors act like you're four years old. I get mad about that." "They've treated me okay, but sometimes they act like you don't know what you're doing."

While all other comments about counselor treatment of students were positive, some concerns were expressed. "As for scholarship information, they're not as well-informed, or just don't get it across. They don't stress deadlines, 'you should do this,' as much as I think it should be." "I should have come to see the counselors before I did. Now it's too late. When you want to take a special class to help with later life, you should have help getting into that class." "I've heard that people outside school, other parents and stuff, think that counseling at Douglas High School is bad. I myself have not found it to be that way." "A few times I felt I was pushed into classes I really didn't want." "I've been treated good, but in pre-enrollment, seniors should have priority for classes. I never could get into photography." One young man questioned the qualifications of counseling personnel:

Counselors have treated me pretty good. They've always been helpful, treated me with respect. You do a pretty good job of that. But some of the counselors I don't think are really counselors--not very understanding. Some I don't think are qualified, because of personality, temperament. Counselors should be sensitive, patient, knowledgeable. I don't think you can learn that academically.

Others had nothing but praise for the way counselors had worked with them. "It's pretty good when counselors call you down to see how you're getting along when you've been sick and missed a lot of school." "They looked at me as at another person, were always willing to help." One youngster cited special consideration he had received:

Some of the counselors have been like a friend. They've

acted like they cared about what happened to you. Whenever I was struggling with something, [counselor] would call me down. Even before the year started, before they were enrolling for school in the summer time, he wrote out a letter, had me come in beforehand so I could see what I needed. He spent extra time to help me.

Another mentioned changes in her attitude toward counseling:

I think it's a good counseling place. Before, I thought it was dumb to talk to people, didn't know what you should come to a counselor for, what you could come for. There might be other people who don't know all of what counselors are here for.

The concern that students were not aware of what was offered by counselors in student services was voiced by a number of students:

Counselors have treated me fine, helped a lot, shown me how I've been doing, helped me on any problems I've had. You should advertise that the counselors are here. A lot of students don't know, need to be more aware you're here to help.

Others noted either changes in themselves as regarded counseling, or commented on their assessment of the counselors' approaches to students.

"I've always been treated like a person. As a freshman, I was afraid of counselors, let them push me into something other than what I knew I wanted." "Counselors here will talk to you, seem to help you if you want it, to know what they're talking about." "Counselors have treated me real good. People need to take note, to work with you guys."

"They've treated me good, haven't tried to put me where I don't want to be." "Counselors have treated me with respect, not like a dumb high school kid." "Everything I've needed, the counselors have had a program going to get it for me."

The concern that some students were not aware of what was available in counseling was reiterated when students were asked if they had recommendations for making the program more effective.

Freshmen and sophomores don't know what student services is all about, are afraid of bothering you. I've heard a few stories from other people that don't seem too fair. I'm pretty out-spoken-- people who are shy must be terrified of counselors.

"I think the program's fine. Kids have got to know it's available, how it can help." "Maybe if I'd looked into things more--it's my fault, too, for not asking. I knew you were there for career assistance. The program is okay--just tell students what you can do." "Some people hesitate even to get schedules changed, because they don't know what it entails. The counselors, they think, are for discipline. You're too close to [assistant principal's] office." "Tell them when they're freshmen that counselors can help with career plans. You can't stress that enough. It really helped when I finally came in." "A lot of kids don't even know what student services is, or that counselors are a part of student services."

For a lot of the students who are dropping out of school, a lot of kids who aren't getting the help they should, to get that help [would improve the program]. A lot of kids drop out because they get behind. . . the teacher just keeps going on, and they get lost. I think that's about the worst thing I've ever seen.

There were other recommendations for improving the counseling program in terms of effectiveness. "Maybe the fact that three-year graduates aren't considered in senior activities is a problem." "You could mention scholarship information in personal finance II or something, because nobody ever listens to the announcements." "The program isn't bad. Earlier notification of scholarship deadlines would help. Put more emphasis on informing people about scholarships." "Make college and university visitations required rather than voluntary. That's

what got me even thinking about school." "I know you have freshman academic orientation now; that's an excellent idea. You didn't have it in my freshman year. Maybe you should have one for sophomores, too."

Categorize the scholarship file. Stress in the junior year the Scholastic Aptitude Test, military academies, and Reserve Officer Training programs. If possible, notify people known to be interested in scholarships by name with their eligibility. Post the names of people who are eligible for various scholarships, maybe.

Maybe there's not enough of you. There are always kids sitting on the bench. At semester time and beginning of school schedule change time, this place is always jam-packed, always someone waiting. It'd be done faster if there were more counselors.

I think, in my case, if you're not an A student around here, you don't get much help with anything. I'm a senior, and haven't heard of any scholarships for anything. You should get down to the C class of people, the majority of people going on. If the C students want to go on, they're in a pickle.

Problems that could not be resolved, but that might be addressed, within the counseling program were presented, as well. One young woman expressed her discontent with school athletics. "Going out for track is good, great sport--except when you have a coach who doesn't care about anyone but the star athlete, who can do what she wants to the others. That should be stopped." "School needs ways to get out in the world and experience it. I can understand what I read, but demonstrations and experience are more valuable."

Some students, again, had unmitigated praise for the counseling program. "We have a great counseling program for a school this size. Counselors take an interest in the whole student body." "I think this program's as useful as it could be. After my last school, where there was one counselor, this is great!" Table 11 presents a summary.

Table 11

Student Responses to Interview Closing Questions

N=98	FEMALE=45				MALE=53			
ENDORSEMENT (n)	MGR	GE	VOC	CP	MGR	GE	VOC	CP
Feel Prepared to Pursue Post-High School Plans:								
Yes	11	5	4	12	10	8	6	13
No	2	0	0	1	3	4	0	1
Uncertain	6	3	1	0	2	3	1	2
Value of High School:								
Positive	18	5	5	11	15	15	7	14
Negative	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	1
Uncertain	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
Treatment by Counselors:								
Positive	18	8	5	13	14	15	7	16
Negative	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0

Key to abbreviations:

MGR--Minimum Graduation Requirements Endorsement Program

GE --General Education Endorsement Program

VOC--Vocational Education Endorsement Program

CP --College Preparatory Endorsement Program

Observations

An observation of student interactions in the spring of 1979 was the original impetus for conducting this study. At a dinner sponsored by the local Rotary International in honor of the top ten academic seniors from each of the county's high schools, the researcher observed Douglas High School students lamenting the assistance they had had with scholarship applications. The students expressed the opinions that they had not had sufficient notification of scholarship eligibility and deadlines, that they had not had sufficient information on college admissions and programs, and that it seemed only a select few had been encouraged to pursue their academic goals. The interaction observed was the incentive for the study undertaken. A survey conducted at the end of that academic year did not reveal those student concerns. Hence, another approach was deemed desirable.

Formal observations for the study were confined to workshops and occurrences within the student services center. The researcher participated in workshops, accepted requests for information from students, and conferred with faculty members about their concerns regarding the program. Informal observations collected over four years of professional involvement in the setting supplemented information collected through interviews and formal observations.

Problems involved with participant observation in the school setting became apparent early in the study. Those problems centered around the fact that, as an employee of the school involved, while the observer had access to people and events, she also had an obligation to

fulfill her professional role as a counselor. Ogbu's concern that holistic ethnography is not being done in school settings (1981), discussed above, was graphically illustrated in the experience of this researcher. It is a truism that one cannot be in two places at once: one cannot both be interviewing students and observing what is happening outside the office where interviews were conducted.

Further, to be an effective participant observer, it is helpful to be identified as a member of the group being observed. The researcher was clearly a mature employee, and an accepted member of faculty, and just as clearly not a student making career decisions. Because of these considerations, it was decided to concentrate material collection on the interviews, and to collect whatever observational material presented itself on an ad hoc basis. It was possible to observe workshop presentations, faculty interactions, counselor-faculty interactions, administrator behaviors, and some counselor-parent interactions. Formal observations of events are presented below.

Scholastic Aptitude Test Workshop

The Scholastic Aptitude Test workshop was conducted in government classes on September 18, 1981, during the third week of the school year. The researcher had, at a counseling staff meeting, arranged with the counselor responsible for the SAT workshop to observe the presentations. The first order of business was the distribution of a survey form on which students could indicate the kinds of information they would like to receive from the counselor: dates that military recruiters would be on campus, Reserve Officer Training Corps or military academy

information, contact with representatives of proprietary or technical schools, contact with representatives of private colleges and universities, and SAT and financial aid information. While explaining the survey form, the counselor provided introductory information on private, proprietary, and state schools, and on the military. Students returned the surveys at the conclusion of the workshop.

Most students remained relatively attentive during this presentation, some losing interest once the counselor had got beyond explaining military and career goals on the survey form. The counselor next distributed the booklet "Taking the SAT," explaining scores that would be reported and how the scores on the SAT ranged. She then distributed the SAT registration manual, and explained how to complete the registration form. A considerable amount of time was spent explaining the student self-descriptive survey portion of the application form, as there were numbers of questions and a deal of confusion about how that information would appear on the SAT score report form. Time was allotted for further questions, and students were encouraged to arrange to see the counselor if they needed additional help in applying to write the SAT. During the succeeding three weeks, all four counselors were asked for assistance in completing the SAT application form.

When scores began to return from the first test date, students requested help in interpreting their scores. It became apparent during interpretation of SAT scores that students lacked a clear understanding of the report of student self-descriptive material. Few had any difficulty in understanding their SAT scores, although several needed to be reassured that they had performed adequately for admission to college.

Scholarship Workshop

The next major observation event was the scholarship workshop. The workshop was conducted in the library during the first half of each of five school days, in the week of October 16, 1981. Students either used study hall time or arranged to be excused from class to attend the workshop. On the first day, the counselor distributed a schedule of events, duplicated below, and explained the procedures to be followed.

Scholarship Portfolio Development Workshop

Monday:

- Activity sheet
- Resume
- Personal statement
- At home--gather awards, school and local newspaper clippings, pictures, logos

Tuesday:

- Rough out personal statement
- Recommendations
- Applications for college entry
- Financial Aid Form
- Bring your own organization system--
- Suggestions: three ring notebook, PeeChees, large-sized envelope or file folder, for safe, clean storage of information

Wednesday:

- Scholarship file
- Individual calendar of deadlines (bring school or other calendar)
- Cut and paste day--Bring award/clipping file plus paper to mount things on
- Paper cutter and glue will be furnished

Thursday:

- How to prepare for an interview
- Final preparation of "dummy" portfolio

Friday:

- Video-tape mock interviews

The counselor distributed portfolios prepared by previous graduates, pointing out unusual features. She suggested that students make good photostatic copies for their portfolios, rather than relying on the antiquated liquid duplicator available at the school. She showed

sample resume sheets, to assist students in writing their own resumes. She had students complete an updated activity sheet, so that they would have the information at hand when applying for scholarships. She also distributed transcript release forms for students to take home for parents to sign, so that the registrar would be permitted to send transcripts as they were needed, instead of waiting for parent release of records each time a transcript was requested. The counselor discussed the kinds of information that it was useful to include in resumes and portfolios, and devoted the remainder of the time to assisting students in preparing their own resumes. Students began work on their resumes, noting that it was "hard to remember" what they had done in the first two years of high school. In response to questions regarding to whom portfolios were sent, the counselor suggested that students have multiple copies: several sponsors of sizable scholarships preferred that students submit portfolios with their applications.

The second day of the workshop witnessed a marked increase in student services of student requests for their ranks in class. Throughout the period of the workshop, at least six students per day asked the registrar for this information. One or two requests a week, aside from the weeks during which scholarship applications were due, was the norm.

Day two was devoted to letters of recommendation, Financial Aid Form distribution and explanation, distribution of admissions forms for Umpqua Community College and the state system colleges and universities, and personal statements. Students were advised to ask people with whom they had positive relationships, people who knew them, and people who occupied positions of respect to write recommendations for them. In

addition, they were advised to request more letters of recommendation than were actually needed, and to select the most positive letters to include in their portfolios. This latter suggestion resulted in some unanticipated repercussions four months later, as will be explained.

University scholarships and awards programs were discussed, and the students were advised not to rely on the Financial Aid Form for all programs, but to send a personal letter and resume to the financial aid officer of the school of their choice and request a list of scholarships. The counselor explained the nature of local scholarships, and the role of the high school scholarship committee in awarding those scholarships. Students worked on their personal statements, using as models letters that had been received by the high school scholarship committee. Several youngsters noted that they felt "stupid," or awkward, writing positive statements about themselves.

Days three and four of the workshop were "cut and paste" days. Students spent time assembling the material they had collected into form for inclusion in a dummy portfolio, to be copied as needed. While students were involved in this activity, the counselor took them in groups of two or three to the student services center to show them the scholarship file and explain how to use it. Day five was devoted to mock interviews, which were videotaped. The tapes were played back so that students could see how they presented themselves to interviewers. Several students expressed dismay at their appearance or their speech habits when the tapes were played back. The counselor offered recommendations for improving the first impressions they made on people.

During the week of February 8, an irate teacher confronted the

researcher with her concern about students' "blanketing the faculty with requests for scholarship recommendations." She was upset that students had apparently been told to "get all the recommendations you can, and weed out those you don't like." She resented being asked to write letters of recommendation, which takes time, only to have them discarded if students found them less flattering than they would like them to be. When the instructions from the scholarship workshop were explained, she left somewhat mollified, but returned a week later to see the counselor who had conducted the workshop about the same matter--yet another student had asked everyone from whom she had ever had a class to write a letter of recommendation for her. It was soon discovered that another teacher had suggested this approach, apparently with the best intentions and as a result of her interpretation of reports students had given her on what had been suggested in the scholarship workshop. The counselor contacted the offending teacher, explained the hostility that was being generated by her suggestion, and asked that she modify her approach. As no further complaints were lodged, it was assumed that the faculty were discouraging the "shotgun" approach to letters of recommendation.

Recruiter Visitations

On December 2, the Army recruiter came to school to see a student who had requested to see him and another student whose parents had arranged for an interview without the student's knowledge. Both students saw the recruiter. The young woman whose parents had arranged the interview for her asked the college counselor to arrange to see her and her parents to discuss what she wanted to do. An appointment was

made for the girl and her parents, and ultimately the parents accepted their daughter's intention to pursue possibilities for financing her college education that excluded the military. The mother worked very closely with the counselor to file a Financial Aid Form.

Student Requests

On December 4, the researcher had requests from three students to review their SAT scores with them, and to explain the relationship between their scores and college admissions or scholarship applications. All three were seen on the day they requested assistance, and left satisfied that they had a better understanding of the reports than they had had before the interviews. The student self-descriptive reports were the source of some of their confusion.

On the same day, a student asked for information, not available in student services, about an out-of-state technical institute. He was referred to a classified guide to colleges and trade schools, assisted in finding the address of the school in question, and offered assistance in writing to the school. A fifth student requested information on law enforcement training. The student services library lacked any information on the Oregon State Police Academy, where the student wanted to take training. The telephone directory for the state capitol, where the academy is located, was no help. The student was referred to the college counselor for assistance, and, in conjunction with yet a third counselor, information on how to make contact with the academy was provided.

During the months of December through April, the researcher received numerous requests from students for assistance with personal

statements for scholarship applications. Arrangements were made to see each of the students, review their statements, and recommend revisions. Students expressed some dismay at the difficulty involved in responding to questions that asked them why they wanted to pursue post-secondary education. Additional requests from students for recommendations for scholarships were also addressed during this period.

Parents Night, Financial Aid

The date of the parents night for financial aid information and assistance was January 11, 1982. This meeting was announced in the local daily newspaper as a footnote to each of a series of four articles about financial aid written by the Douglas High School counselor who organized the parents meeting. The parents night was held at Umpqua Community College. Approximately 150 people attended, necessitating splitting into two groups, the room initially reserved for the meeting being inadequate for the numbers in attendance. The Douglas High School counselor spoke on the Financial Aid Form, pointing out items that required particular care to prevent automatic ineligibility. The college financial aid officer explained what happened to the forms after they had been filed, what classifications of aid were available, and how to estimate eligibility for various kinds of aid. Time was reserved for asking questions of both presenters.

Interest in the presentations remained lively throughout the evening, and, on the basis of questions asked, the effort to reach people seemed to be well-received. The discouragement some students expressed in response to interview items about the parents night may

have been related to any of a number of things: explanations of eligibility for financial aid, which apparently excluded some people; comments indicating uncertainty about the effects of federal budget reductions on the availability of financial aid; and explanations that scholarship money and other financial resources, such as money earned for summer work in excess of that expected, would be deducted from a student's financial aid award.

Parents Meeting, Scholarships

On February 10, in response to requests from parents, the college counselor conducted a scholarship meeting with parents. The meeting began with parents complaining about the counselor's basic inefficiency in disseminating information. The general consensus seemed to be that the counselor should have been screening scholarships and eligibility requirements, notifying individual students personally about what was appropriate to them, telling students individually what they needed to do to apply for the scholarships for which they might have been eligible, and reminding students periodically of deadline dates. The counselor felt that with her other responsibilities, these were unrealistic expectations. She explained to parents how scholarship information was received and distributed, showed them the scholarship file, explained the activities that had been intended to provide students with the information their parents were requesting, and offered to respond to requests for assistance, as the students initiated those requests.

On February 23, at least in part in response to suggestions made by students who were interviewed for this study, the researcher

talked with the college counselor about reorganizing the scholarship file to make it more functional. The organization in use was based on chronology; the most recently received material was in the front of the file. The counselor was amenable to an organization scheme along types of scholarships and eligibility for them: general scholarships, merit scholarships, scholarships available to children of members of various organizations, and scholarships awarded to students who sought particular major areas of study. The essential questions which remained were who would undertake such a reorganization and when would it be undertaken.

Formal observations after December 1, 1981, when interviewing for the study began, were infrequent. Semester examination week and schedule changing for two weeks after the semester change in February interrupted interviewing, but very little else was permitted to do so. The weeks set aside for interviewing were devoted almost entirely to that task, only urgent student concerns, requests for peer tutoring, and faculty advisory obligations being allowed to distract the researcher from interviewing.

Summary

This chapter has been concerned with presenting the material collected in interviews with students and through observations of activities and events relevant to post-high school planning. As can be seen, there were recommendations for making the program component being evaluated more effective in terms of utility to the students who used the program. The recommendations that were made are considered in the following chapter, which is concerned with analysis of the material.

Chapter 6

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

In Lofland's scheme for analysis of qualitative material, units of analysis are acts, activities, meanings, participation, relationships, and settings. Lofland indicated that the "term 'act' refers to human emissions of short temporal duration encompassing a relatively narrow sector of an actor's total activity" (1971, p. 16). He pointed out that for acts, activities, meanings, and participation, the analytic point of view is that of the "actor looking out onto the world," in which others involved are seen as "posing the problems to which the actor as a strategist must respond" (p. 16).

Activities he defined as "collective conduct," with three distinguishing characteristics:

- (1) takes days, weeks, or months to play through,
- (2) encompasses a relatively large segment of actors' time, and (3) is likely to be engaged in collectively and conjointly in a social setting, instead of more individualistically and privately (p. 20).

Lofland identified the term "meaning" as being intended to "single out participants' verbal productions as a significant unit of comprehension in itself" (p. 24). He pointed out that in considering meanings, the focus is upon "actors' verbal productions as patterns that transcend behavior. . . forming the distinctly human phenomenon of definitions" (p. 24). He stated that the "concept of meaning is a relatively slippery one, because members' meanings are of course also employed in the previous and subsequent units of comprehension" suggesting that

while meanings can be discovered through acts, activities, participation, relationships, and settings, meanings strictly associated with these other units do not exhaust the meaning productions of group members (p. 24).

In Lofland's analytic complex, participation has its focus upon "the person as a unit, upon holistic patterns of involvement they have in a social setting," distinguishing participation from acts, activities, and meanings, which tend to deemphasize persons as such, by focusing upon "highly selected sets of their acts and activities or their trans-personal meanings" (p. 31). The point is that variations in the manner in which group members participate demonstrate individual approaches more readily than do other analytic units which tend to deemphasize the person of the participant.

Lofland suggested a number of ways in which relationships can be analysed, on the basis of the structure and nature of the relationships observed. For purposes of the material to be analysed here, three of the types of relationships identified by Lofland are particularly applicable: (1) hierarchies, in which participants are formally or informally ranked in relationship to each other, and possess differences in power, influence, and centrality; (2) alliances, in which "webs of informal ties," or cliques, are formed; and (3) accommodations, in which structures that accommodate particular members of the group are established (pp. 43-44). A fourth kind of relationship, collegial, in which responsibility and authority are shared equally among participants, also existed among personnel involved in some of the events observed during the course of this study.

Finally, Lofland identified settings as themselves capable of displaying patterns that influence or proscribe the behavior and communications of participants in a group. He pointed out that settings are the "temporally longest and spatially largest" of the units applicable to qualitative analysis of social interaction (p. 47).

Lofland's analytic scheme was applied to each of the events which constituted the post-high school plans component of the counseling program studied. The concern was not only with what happened, but with areas of responsibility (whether specifically and formally assigned or assumed), circumstances that influenced events, and the consequences of the social structure for individual participants.

In some cases, in which data were not available or in which a particular Lofland element was not applicable, analysis was necessarily incomplete. For example, students interviewed for this study had completed the career education course entitled Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration three years prior to the initiation of the study. It was not possible to collect information on their acts relevant to the course. The analysis of SUTOE, therefore, began on the level of activities. Lofland's scheme, as he pointed out, is not a rigid outline to be followed at the expense of the material collected (pp. 53-54), but an heuristic device for managing qualitative materials.

Following the analysis of each event of the component studied is an evaluation of that event, based upon student reports of their reactions to the event and the analysis of the material collected in interviews and observations.

Self-Understanding Through
Occupational Exploration

Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration (SUTOE) was a career education class required of all students to fulfill the Oregon Department of Education competencies for career awareness, exploration, and planning. The course was designed to give students accurate information about themselves through the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) and the Worker Trait Interest Check List (ICL), to be used in career exploration and planning; to provide opportunities for studying the preparation requirements for a variety of careers; and to assist students in planning high school programs of study which would prepare them to pursue career goals after graduation. The course was required of all freshmen, or of transfer students whose transcripts did not show equivalent courses.

Analysis

Activities. The course content, structure, and time-table for SUTOE were the responsibility of the teacher, who was charged with ensuring that each student enrolled had an opportunity to complete the minimum career education competencies prescribed by the Oregon Department of Education. The career education teacher, building administrators, and counselors worked in concert to revise the curriculum to accommodate changes in state standards for career education, as those changes occurred. The regional coordinator for career and vocational education, an employee of the Oregon Department of Education housed in the county Education Service District offices, acted as liaison between the Oregon

Department of Education and building personnel responsible for career education. The coordinator was charged with responsibility for facilitating the implementation of state standards and the demonstration of compliance with those standards.

Student responsibility for SUTOE was confined to attending class regularly and completing those assignments and examinations designed to demonstrate satisfactory achievement of course competencies. The building assistant principal, who was responsible for maintenance of attendance records, and a counselor who coordinated academic probation procedures, were involved with those students who were referred by the teacher as failing to fulfill their attendance and course work responsibilities. The network of individuals with responsibility for SUTOE could become very complex, including not only those role-players already identified, but parents, guardians, Children's Services Division case workers, and probation officers, in the cases of students who were chronic truants and were the legal responsibility of care-providers usually considered outside the educational institution.

The time involved in SUTOE again varied from one participant to another. Administrators and counselors were involved in SUTOE planning activities relatively briefly, as when curriculum changes to meet state standards were required. Further participation for these actors was essentially in the nature of providing assistance in "managing" students who were not performing at acceptable levels, the time involved depending upon the needs of each student. Although the regional coordinator, as a person whose career was concentrated in the concerns of career and vocational education, could be said to devote most of

his working life to career education, his actual participation in the particular program component studied was temporally brief. He was contacted to provide information or teaching materials when necessary, or initiated contact to offer information or materials.

The career education teacher devoted both preparation and class time to SUTOE, his working day consisting of five or six sections of the course (depending upon the requirements in a given semester), and one period for preparation. The remainder of his time was devoted to other teaching or coaching assignments. Students attended the class one period per day, five days a week, for 18 weeks, or one semester of the school year. Those who did not earn a passing grade were obliged to repeat the course, as successful completion of SUTOE was the only method available for meeting the state career education minimum competency requirements. No student in the class interviewed for this study was required to spend more than 36 weeks in SUTOE. In addition to class time, students occasionally had homework assignments that would require some of their study hall time or their out-of-school time. The course was designed in such a way, however, that students who used class time efficiently would rarely be required to complete assignments outside of class.

Setting. The setting for SUTOE was a classroom which had been converted from prior use as a maintenance shop. In response to teacher preference, the students did not use conventional individual desks, but sat around the outside perimeter of tables arranged in a square, so that everyone, including the teacher, could see and be seen by everyone

else. The room was high-ceilinged, and had a counter along one wall and book storage shelves along another. Student-produced collages of job or career related activities decorated the walls, as did posters depicting various athletic events. The room housed career information reference materials in both bound and file form. Immediately adjacent to the classroom was the teacher's office, used for preparation of course materials and for storage.

Resources available to the teacher and class included a needle-sort file of Career Information Systems materials. The teacher had indicated dissatisfaction with a Career Information System computer terminal, which was available through the county Education Service District and which could be employed through the school's telephone system. He suggested that as he could not house the computer terminal in the classroom, where students would have immediate access to both the machinery and his assistance, it lacked utility for him. Other resources included audio-visual equipment available on a request basis within the building, and a library of audio-visual materials available through the county Education Service District. Other material resources were limited by budgetary restraints: the capital expense necessary for even temporary installation of a computer terminal in the classroom, for example, had prohibited its introduction into the curriculum.

Human resources available included the regional coordinator, members of the community who had expressed a willingness either to visit the class or to entertain students in their places of business, and counseling personnel. For the most part, it was the teacher who

requested the services of these people--rarely did anyone volunteer either interest in or assistance with the course.

Participation. Except in the cases of the teacher and students, participation in SUTOE was peripheral. Most of the professional personnel within or associated with the school participated in the course only as their participation was required. As the course was his primary professional assignment, the teacher's participation was necessarily greater. He actively sought ways to make course content more meaningful to students by introducing materials and concepts which would have personal impact. His concern with individual students was evident in requests for information and in referrals for counseling intervention.

Student participation was reflected in comments elicited during interviews. "SUTOE was useful, if you got into the course." "It could have been what you make of it--I didn't make a lot of it." "It got us thinking about careers, helped plan classes for college prep. It made me serious up." "It was boring, but important to start thinking about what I'm going to do." "A lot of the kids just goof off, don't take it seriously." "I think it depends on what you put into it--I didn't put much in, didn't get much out. It was just something else I had to do."

The general consensus from students seemed to be that the more seriously they participated in the course, the more likely SUTOE was to be of value. Why participation for some was on a superficial level was attributed by students to the immaturity of freshmen, lack of any kind of clear educational or career goals, or failure to understand the importance of the course to educational and career planning. No one

faulted the teacher or other school personnel for failing to motivate students to greater involvement--students saw their own participation or lack of it as a matter of personal choice, based on the circumstances of their lives at the time.

Relationships. The relationships involved in SUTOE can be classified in a number of ways, depending upon the role-players and tasks involved. Primarily, the relationships were hierarchical: the administrators notified the teacher of standards the teacher was expected to implement; the teacher told the students what they had to do to meet course requirements; the students demonstrated to the teacher's satisfaction that they had met course requirements; the teacher assigned grades. In some instances, alliance relationships materialized: a counselor became allied with the teacher in addressing the management of students who did not meet course performance standards; a counselor became allied with students who felt the teacher was being unreasonable or, more typically, unfair, in his expectations; the teacher, counselors, and administrators became allied in determining procedures for meeting revised standards, or for demonstrating compliance with standards. On occasion, as in the cases of the two learning handicapped students in the graduating class who had been assigned to SUTOE as an initial step toward mainstreaming into the regular classroom, accommodation relationships developed, the teacher accommodating course performance criteria to the special needs of the students. In such instances, further alliances were formed, between the SUTOE teacher and the teacher for the learning handicapped, and sometimes including the counselor who served as liaison between the special education program and the

regular classroom teachers.

Relationships associated with SUTOE became very complex in terms of the numbers of people involved and the roles they played, but remained relatively simple structurally. Rarely did two people stand in more than one form of relationship with each other, vis a vis the class.

Meanings. The meanings SUTOE had varied from one person to another, depending not exclusively upon the participant's role, but on the value of the course to various individuals, as well. For administrators, the whole question of career education seemed to be one of meeting state standards with as little inconvenience as possible. How to implement changes and demonstrate compliance with standards were primary considerations. These were appropriate concerns for those who were charged with ensuring that state Administrative Rules were followed. However, the stand adopted was not one which suggested support for the teacher in the classroom, or a sense of the course itself as having value.

Aside from involvement with individual students, the meaning SUTOE had for counselors was similar to that for administrators; career education in general did not carry high value, and was therefore left largely to the exclusive care of the career education teacher. Counselors did express concern that their responsibilities for career education would change with the elimination at the end of the preceding academic year of the senior level career selection course, recognizing that students would need greater access to knowledgeable people who could provide career guidance. However, counselors had not taken the initiative either to implement a career guidance program or to work

with the SUTOE teacher to determine the kinds of services that would need to be provided when the senior career selection class was no longer mandatory.

SUTOE's meaning for the teacher was more complex, operating on a number of levels. Pragmatically, it was a source of regular income, whereby he could participate in the economic life of the community. Academically, it was a subject area of interest and concern to him, with clearly defined course content and objectives. Professionally, it allowed opportunities for introducing to students both objective content (such as information on filling out job applications and writing personal qualifications statements), and subjective considerations (such as personal work values and career planning). Further, the teacher enjoyed considerable autonomy, given the apparent attitudes of administration and counseling personnel toward the course. The teacher indicated in addition that "I like teaching freshmen," a subjective reaction to the students with whom he worked. The teacher took his job seriously, modifying course content in anticipation of student needs. An example in the current academic year was his introduction of pre-enrollment materials, to help students understand more clearly the relationship between high school courses of study and future occupational or career goals. Prior to this course change, students had been given pre-enrollment materials to read during pre-enrollment week, and faculty advisers had been encouraged to explain the relationship between high school and future plans, but no concerted effort had been made to study the relationship with students.

Student perceptions of the meaning of SUTOE varied, as was

reflected in interview comments. "I learned about things I was interested in and hadn't known about." "I remember it, so it must have had some value." "At the time, it didn't mean much. Counselors and workshops have been more helpful." "SUTOE was not like what I'll be doing in the real world." "I didn't get as much detailed information about careers as I'd have liked." "It gave exposure to the kinds of jobs that are available. It's the only course of that kind." "It teaches you a lot about your strengths and weaknesses. As a freshman, you can still change your plans and your high school classes." "It was more useful for what to do during high school. It should help you decide on a high school program and endorsement."

Students found some aspects of the course more meaningful than others, depending upon their particular needs. Some found the GATB/ICL valuable in helping to make some tentative career selections, and some labeled the exercise "stupid." Some were pleased with the fields that were suggested to them by their GATB/ICL results, others resented being identified with particular occupations or careers. For most, experience in writing letters of application and information on preparation for job interviews were meaningful course content, things they felt they would be able to use in future. Some felt a similar course, offered at the junior or senior level, would help them to complete planning and preparation that was initiated in SUTOE, or refresh their memories about the details of job preparation.

Evaluation

Insofar as SUTOE was an effective course for helping students select high school programs of study, decide on tentative career goals,

examine their personal attributes as relative to career goals, and understand the mechanics of job-finding, the credit for success must go to the teacher, who operated almost entirely independently of any consistent or well-organized support structure, and to the students themselves, who took advantage of the opportunities that were available to them. Career education did not enjoy high priority status with other professional personnel.

In interviews, students expressed a need for something other than or in addition to SUTOE to meet their needs for career education. Few students were aware that counselors could provide career guidance and planning, not surprising considering the fact that counseling personnel had neither developed a comprehensive career guidance program nor advertised the services that were available to individual students. SUTOE was the primary vehicle for career education and guidance available to students.

One area of career exploration that appeared, on the basis of interview information, to have been overlooked, was that of the relationship between self-concept and the employment students elected to pursue. While 82 percent of the students expressed satisfaction with their career or occupational choices, very few (approximately seven percent) were articulate when asked how their career choices related to their feelings about themselves. This seems to be a serious oversight for a course entitled Self-Understanding Through Occupational Exploration. Changes in the curriculum introduced since the time the graduating class had completed the course may have addressed this question.

Of the students interviewed, 63 percent considered that SUTOE

had been useful to them. The remainder either did not remember it well enough to assess a value or considered it to have been without value. Eighteen percent of the students felt the course had been offered too early in their high school careers to have been of use to them, and an additional eight percent felt there should have been a follow-up course at the junior or senior level to build on what was initially presented in SUTOE. Apparently these students had not been aware that an elective class in career selection had been offered them, but was dropped from the schedule because of lack of enrollment.

Pre-Enrollment

Pre-enrollment for the following school year occurred over a week in April, the daily schedule being re-adjusted to arrange for 50 minutes per day of pre-enrollment time. Students were assigned to faculty advisers in a ratio of 10 students per adviser. All school personnel except the director of counseling and guidance, the principal, assistant principal, registrar, attendance clerk and administration office secretaries were assigned advising responsibilities. It was felt that the director of counseling and guidance and the registrar were needed in the student services center to respond to student and teacher requests for assistance during this time, and that the principal and assistant principal had administrative duties that were compounded by the schedule change. The assistant principal was recruited to substitute for advisers who were absent from school when necessary. The attendance clerk and administration office secretaries had duties that did not permit their being involved in pre-enrollment as advisers.

During the regularly scheduled class periods in the remainder of the day, counselors were available for students who wanted additional assistance with pre-enrollment. The counselors stationed themselves in the library to be readily accessible to students who used study hall time to seek individual guidance.

Analysis

Acts. Pre-enrollment began just prior to the end of the first semester of the school year when the director of counseling and guidance addressed to department heads lists of courses offered in their departments. The lists included credits and prerequisites, if any, associated with each course, and paragraph descriptions of elective courses for which the department heads were responsible. The counselor asked that the information be reviewed, and that any revisions or additions to the course list be referred to the counselor for inclusion in the course list published for pre-enrollment. Any new courses listed were verified with the assistant principal, who was responsible for curriculum, before they were included in the final course list.

During this time, the director of counseling and guidance and another counselor who had been instrumental in the development of endorsement programs and had assisted with pre-enrollment preparation, reviewed the pre-enrollment packet to ensure that information was clear, correct, and current. At this stage, the director developed a check list for endorsement credits and revised the graduation check list to reflect the extant state and district standards. The cooperating counselor produced instructions and a list of memoranda

items for faculty advisers.

Activities. Following the initial, relatively isolated acts involved in revisions of pre-enrollment materials, additional school personnel became involved in the structure. The registrar was responsible for preparing the course list for printing and for assuring that student transcripts were accurate, including grade changes for course incompletes that had been made up or reverted to failing grades, grade changes for courses which had been repeated to improve grades but did not carry additional credit, and credits that had been earned through summer school, community college courses, or correspondence courses. Because incompletes and failing grades carried no credits, and because credits earned outside the regular school program did not appear on computer generated transcript labels, the task of verifying credits was a time-consuming and important one, involving contacts with teaching and counseling personnel to verify changes.

The counseling and attendance clerk was charged with the responsibility of preparing the pre-enrollment packet for printing, making a copy of each student's transcript for inclusion in a packet, preparing a packet for each student, making adviser/advisee assignments, and preparing a bundle of pre-enrollment materials for each adviser. The clerk also received all pre-enrollment materials at the end of the process, and organized the materials for counselors to review.

On a teacher work day at the end of the third quarter of school, the director of counseling and guidance was responsible for reviewing pre-enrollment procedures with faculty in a general meeting. Any

changes in course offerings, prerequisites, or graduation and endorsement standards were announced at this meeting. New faculty members were assigned to rooms with experienced advisers for pre-enrollment activities, so they would have access to their colleagues' experience with the procedures. Faculty advisers were responsible for working with ten students each, to verify credit checks, course selections, prerequisites for courses, teacher consents for courses, and parent consents for home release for those students who intended to attend school for less than a full day. Advisers were also responsible for referring to the counselor who verified completion of graduation requirements any students who wanted to apply for early graduation--that is, who wanted to graduate in six or seven semesters.

Students carried primary responsibility for completing pre-enrollment procedures. Using the transcripts included in their pre-enrollment packets, students conducted graduation and endorsement credit checks to determine their current status and to identify the courses that would complete both their graduation and endorsement requirements. Each student was also requested to identify on the credit check form an endorsement goal and a tentative career goal. Having completed their credit checks, students were encouraged by advisers to work on graduation plans: that is, to identify for each year of high school remaining those courses in which they expected to enroll to complete their graduation and endorsement requirements. Typically, students completed plans for the immediately ensuing school year, but rarely completed more than one year of planning.

The next pre-enrollment task for students involved entering

their course selections for the following year on a practice course selection form. When this had been completed, faculty advisers were expected to assess the practice forms for total numbers of credits requested and to indicate courses which required teacher consent for admission. Students were responsible for securing teacher consents and home release forms.

The final task for students involved transferring their course selections, including course numbers, titles, and credits, to a final course selection form, a carboned form which provided two copies of student selections. This form was to be taken home for review by parents, who were requested to sign the form as an indication that they had seen and approved the courses selected. The final course selection forms were then returned to advisers, who collected final course selection forms and the pre-enrollment packets of all students. Ideally, and advisers were expected to confirm that the ideal was achieved, each pre-enrollment packet contained any necessary teacher consents, a credit check, an endorsement check, career and endorsement goals, and a graduation plan when it was submitted to the counseling and attendance clerk.

The ideal was not achieved in all cases. Counselors reviewed pre-enrollment materials, separating the final course selection forms so that the original could be sent to data processing at the county Education Service District for key punching. The carbon copy, along with appropriate consent forms, credit checks, and graduation plans, was stored in the student schedule files. Students whose pre-enrollment materials were either incomplete or incorrect (as when the total

numbers of credits requested were insufficient or excessive), were called to student services to rectify the errors.

Student course selections were the basis of computer generated information considered essential for the development of a school master schedule of classes. The master schedule was the responsibility of the director of counseling and guidance, who was assisted by a teacher. Because of the relative importance of pre-enrollment to the course offerings and scheduling for the ensuing year, a counselor was engaged in actively pursuing students who were remiss in submitting pre-enrollment materials. If, after a series of counselor contacts, students had failed to complete pre-enrollment, parents were requested by letter to encourage the youngsters to meet their responsibilities. The consequence of failure to complete pre-enrollment was that a student would not have a schedule of classes for the following year, and would be obliged to arrange for scheduling at the beginning of the school year. Because class sizes and numbers of times a class was offered were determined by pre-enrollment course requests, a student was less likely to be able to enroll in the courses of his or her choice in the fall than if he or she had completed pre-enrollment. Of the class interviewed, only two students had failed to complete pre-enrollment; one was a young man who had stated that he would not be returning to school and who reconsidered his decision over the summer holiday; the other was a young man who indicated that he preferred to make course selections in the fall.

Setting. Pre-enrollment settings varied according to acts, activities, and participants. Pre-enrollment was perhaps the most comprehensive of the program components in terms of setting, in that most of the physical plant--classrooms, library, and student services offices--was employed throughout pre-enrollment week. The setting had relatively little influence on pre-enrollment activities: it mattered less where an adviser and his or her advisees were located than what occurred in that setting.

Participation. The most active participant in pre-enrollment was the director of counseling and guidance. He carried primary responsibility for developing materials, with faculty and administrator assistance; for over-seeing the production of materials; for coordinating pre-enrollment week; for ensuring that activities occurred as scheduled; and for developing the master schedule from pre-enrollment data. All faculty, three counselors, four teacher aides, and a clerk served as pre-enrollment advisers. The nature of adviser participation was reflected in student interview statements: while most students felt that they had had good advising, some suggested that there were advisers who "don't really care," that teachers were not as knowledgeable about endorsements and courses as they should be, and that some teachers "just told us to see the counselors" if students had questions.

There were teachers who were known to be at best reluctant advisers. Three teachers declined to attend the meeting held on teacher work day, pleading that their need to complete student grades for the quarter was greater than their need to "sit through [director's]

spiel again." At least one of these advisers was later both abrupt in demanding copies of the materials that had been distributed at the meeting, pointing out that she could not do the job "if they won't tell me what they want me to do," and embarrassed when she had to address to the director of counseling and guidance a question that had been answered during the faculty meeting she had elected not to attend. That this particular woman was one of the most effective advisers, in terms of submitting complete and accurate materials, did not prevent her attitude from annoying counseling personnel, who were more intimately concerned with the success of pre-enrollment.

Some faculty members, particularly people in their first or second year of employment at the school, were willing but inept advisers. Their tendency was to allow the senior colleagues with whom they were working to assume primary responsibility for conducting the proceedings. Their advisees appeared most frequently on the list of students who required counselor contact after pre-enrollment, except in cases where their co-advisers happened to be counselors who could assume greater responsibility, having more unassigned time at their disposal.

Because of the desirability of having schedules of classes which would both fulfill graduation and endorsement requirements and be relatively attractive, students tended to be serious and active participants in the pre-enrollment process. They may have overlooked details, such as courses requiring teacher consent, but were conscientious about selecting appropriate courses. The only people in the institution who did not participate in some pre-enrollment activity to

a greater or lesser extent were members of the graduating class--they had completed their final pre-enrollment in the spring of the previous year.

Relationships. Counselors operated with each other on essentially a collegial basis in pre-enrollment concerns, with the director carrying an unequal amount of responsibility but little, if any more, authority. In regard to other professional personnel, the director of counseling and guidance stood in either a hierarchical or a collegial relationship. He carried both greater responsibility and greater authority than did faculty advisers, but was on an equal footing with department heads and administrators in terms of preparations for pre-enrollment. The relationships between and among participants changed with their roles and with the activities in which they were engaged. For example, when a department head became a faculty adviser, he or she shifted from an equal to an inferior position relative to the director of counseling and guidance. The same was true, to a markedly lesser degree, for the other counselors, when they shifted from program developer to faculty adviser roles.

As implied by the quality of participation, relationships among professional personnel were not universally cordial and supportive during pre-enrollment. Teachers who were unwilling participants were seen as disagreeable obstructionists by counseling personnel. The director of counseling and guidance expressed annoyance with a counseling colleague who had introduced a new course into the list and had failed to assure that credits and prerequisites associated with the

course were correct before the list went to the Education Service District for printing, an oversight the director saw as irresponsible.

Relationships between advisers and students were basically hierarchical--advisers told advisees what they needed to do, how to do it, and when to do it. Counselors and students who sought counselor assistance stood in a slightly different relationship. While counselors were still the authorities on questions of course, graduation, or endorsement requirements, they were offering guidance rather than giving instruction. One student indicated that the individual attention students could get from counselors accounted for the difference in the relationships they had with faculty advisers, responsible for ten students at a time, and those they had with counselors, responsible for one student at a time.

Alliance relationships also appeared during pre-enrollment, as in the cases of students who would approach counselors in a group (for example, the three vocational welding students who sought out the researcher for help with pre-enrollment). Another alliance relationship, of relatively short duration, was observed, when counseling personnel allied themselves against advisers who were seen to be attempting to undermine the structure and function of pre-enrollment.

Meanings. One of the meanings pre-enrollment had for counseling personnel was a great deal of work. The preparation for pre-enrollment was itself time-consuming for the director of counseling and guidance. Counselors also perceived pre-enrollment as an opportunity to work closely with students and faculty on a task of importance to the institution as a whole. Pre-enrollment frequently prompted students to

consider their educational or career goals, and to discuss those goals with counseling personnel.

Pre-enrollment had its frustrations for counselors, as well. Not all students approached the task as conscientiously as counselors would like to have seen them do. Not all faculty advisers accepted the responsibilities assigned to them. Not all students completed pre-enrollment, even after repeated counselor contact. However, counselors agreed unanimously that the program was well-considered, that it was worth the time and frustration it involved, and that they were committed to its smooth and successful functioning.

Teachers were not unanimously agreed either that pre-enrollment was appropriately their responsibility or that it justified the time taken from the regular schedule. Three teachers were vocal in complaining to the director of counseling and guidance about the length of the pre-enrollment period on the final day, when materials were collected. All of these teachers were recognized by counseling personnel as being particularly conscientious and efficient in meeting their responsibilities--rarely were any of their advisees required to complete pre-enrollment after the week set aside for the exercise. For these teachers, it was frustrating to be held to a time table which was at best marginally adequate for the less conscientious, capable, or experienced advisers.

The administration saw pre-enrollment as a well-organized and efficiently-conducted activity which was essential to program planning. The principal used computer data from pre-enrollment to make teaching assignments for the following year. The assistant principal used the

information from pre-enrollment to develop curricular changes. Both were supportive of the program and of the counselors.

For students, pre-enrollment meant that they had an opportunity to "see where I stand" academically, time to consider their goals and how to implement them, and access to people who were interested in their goals and their plans for implementing them. Students indicated in interviews that the meaning of the pre-enrollment process changed over time--that is, it was more important at the end of the freshman and sophomore years than at the end of the junior year, when the courses students needed for graduation and endorsements were all but self-identifying. One youngster pointed out that pre-enrollment "keeps you on track" and, more surprisingly, that it provided motivation for the following year. Students appreciated the fact that pre-enrollment week provided opportunities to discuss their plans with parents and to settle in advance the courses they would be taking in the following year.

Evaluation

From a counselor and administrator point of view, the pre-enrollment process as it had been developed and implemented was both efficient and successful in fulfilling the purposes for which it was designed: providing a structure and a time for students to do program planning; and providing information necessary for planning a master schedule for the school.

From a teacher point of view, pre-enrollment was either worthwhile (for those who were willing participants), or an imposition on time and energy that should properly be the sole responsibility of

counselors (for those who were unwilling participants). That teachers did not understand clearly the events that occurred in counseling both prior and subsequent to pre-enrollment week may have accounted in part for some of the teacher resentment that was expressed. Counseling or administrative personnel would have done well to take the time at some point to explain the process in its entirety to the professional personnel who were obliged to accept responsibility for the process. While improved communication realistically may not be expected to eliminate all signs of resentment, reluctance, or hostility, it may be expected to alleviate some of the tension surrounding pre-enrollment.

From a student point of view, pre-enrollment was, with few exceptions among the students interviewed, perceived as a valuable and important aspect of post-high school planning. Eight percent of the students indicated that they considered pre-enrollment a waste of time or that they would prefer to take care of course selection at the beginning of the school year. As noted, three students suggested that the value of the exercise changed over time. "If you're going to do college prep, you just about have to get all four years worked out by the end of your freshman year," was the observation of one of these. In terms of providing a structure and a time for program planning, students seemed satisfied that pre-enrollment was successful.

Students' major complaints about pre-enrollment were not with the process, but with course offerings that were not available (automotive shop and electronics), or with errors in judgment they had made: the sequence in which they had enrolled in courses, the programs they had followed, or their reasons for having taken particular courses.

There was dissatisfaction with faculty advising expressed by some 21 percent of the students, not surprising when it was known that at least three out of 45 faculty advisers, representing 7 percent, were reluctant participants. An additional five teachers were first year faculty members, who had no experience with the procedures and limited knowledge of courses offered outside their own areas of study. Four students expressed dissatisfaction with the quality of pre-enrollment assistance they had received from counselors, one because he had not been able to locate a counselor and three for reasons they could not articulate.

In general, while there were some problems associated with pre-enrollment which rendered it less than a pleasurable or profitable experience for all concerned, it was an event to which 94 percent of the students and 93 percent of the faculty advisers attached positive value. Counselors and administrators considered it well-organized and felt it met the purposes for which it was instituted.

Senior Credit Check

The senior credit check was a periodic assessment of the credits earned toward graduation. The purposes of the credit check were manifold: (1) students were apprised of their progress toward graduation; (2) parents were notified of problems students were experiencing; (3) students who were deficient in credits were advised of options available to them for fulfilling graduation requirements; (4) students who needed academic assistance were identified and offered peer tutoring; and (5) school personnel were protected from the embarrassment of having to inform students and parents of failure to meet graduation requirements

immediately prior to graduation exercises.

Analysis

Acts. The senior credit check was initiated before the commencement of the academic year by the counselor responsible for verifying that graduation requirements had been met. This counselor reviewed each senior's transcript, to determine which courses had been completed and whether or not the students' course selections for the senior year were sufficient to complete academic requirements. The initial assessment was an independent exercise, conducted in isolation by the counselor. Students were free to request confirmation of credits at any time, from any of the counselors.

Those students whose senior course selections were not sufficient to assure that graduation requirements would be met were notified by the counselor to report to student services within two weeks of the beginning of the school year, to arrange for schedule changes which would include courses necessary for graduation. At the beginning of the year during which this study was conducted, 12 students were identified as being deficient in credits at the beginning of the school year.

As a result of the initial credit check, the counselor generated a list of students who were expected to complete graduation requirements during the current academic year. This list was given to the clerk responsible for making arrangements for graduation exercises and to the principal. The counselor was responsible for notifying the clerk and the principal of any changes in status of students on the graduation list: transfers to other schools, withdrawals, or failures to complete

graduation requirements.

Activities. Collective conduct relative to the senior credit check began when students met with the counselor to discuss the results of transcript assessment. In cases of severe deficiencies, parents or guardians were included in conferences, so that they could both be made aware of options available to students and be encouraged to provide academic support for the students. Student responsibilities for completing course requirements were also emphasized during senior credit check conferences.

Throughout the school year, additional professional personnel were involved in senior credit check activities. Teachers were asked both to refer to the counselor any seniors in danger of failing required courses and to submit academic progress reports on identified students when requested by the counselor. The building principal, as the professional ultimately responsible for student participation in graduation exercises, was notified by the counselor of students in danger of failing to complete graduation requirements, and was involved in conferences with parents and students. The counselors who coordinated peer tutoring and correspondence courses were involved in arranging for academic assistance or alternatives for seniors. The assistant principal was involved with those students whose academic performances were being adversely affected as a result of truancy or behavior considered inappropriate in the school setting.

Responsibility for the senior credit check was shared among numbers of participants. While the major responsibility for assessment

was the counselor's, responsibility for course completion was the students'. Teachers shared responsibility for initiating student referrals. Occasionally, a student who realized that he or she was experiencing difficulty with a course would initiate a request for assistance, but such self-referral was neither an explicit nor an implicit student responsibility. Parents were encouraged to participate in the support network for students experiencing academic difficulties, but had only the responsibility they assumed themselves--that is, school personnel operated on the assumption that it was the responsibility of the school, not the parents, to maintain communications and support networks. Parents who took it upon themselves to request continuing information on student progress were unusual enough to excite comment from the counselor.

Time devoted to the senior credit check also varied with the participants' roles and responsibilities. The counselor devoted extended periods of time prior to the beginning of the school year and at the end of the first semester to assessing transcripts. Once students who were deficient in credits had been identified, the counselor concentrated on those students and the sources of their difficulties. Frequently identified problem areas included limited academic ability; irregular school attendance; preoccupation with family, peer, or personal problems; extended illness; relationship problems with teachers; lack of academic motivation; or a combination of these factors. The time spent in assisting individual students to overcome obstacles to successful completion of graduation requirements was determined by the nature of the problems, the numbers of people involved in resolution of the

problems, and the severity of the problems. In some instances, merely confronting the student with the reality of his or her situation was sufficient to motivate the youngster to expend the energy necessary to complete graduation requirements. In other cases, continuing counseling intervention involving students, parents, teachers, and additional counseling or special education personnel were required. Ultimately, in order to graduate, students must have completed minimal course competencies as determined by the Oregon Department of Education and minimum course credits as established by the local district.

From the counselor's point of view, parent and teacher time devoted to senior credit checks was typically temporally brief. Only in rare and severe cases were parents directly involved beyond one telephone call or one conference with the school counselor. Teacher time rarely involved more than a referral and one conference to clarify course requirements and expectations. How much individual attention teachers devoted to students who had been referred to the counselor, or how much time parents spent encouraging and assisting their youngsters outside of school time is not known.

Setting. The senior credit check and its attendant activities were confined for the most part to the counselor's office or the conference room, both in the student services center. The proximity of the counselor's office to that of the assistant principal, who was charged with overseeing student attendance and discipline, may have accounted for some of the annoyance expressed by students when they were called in for review of their credits. A frequent comment of students when

they were called to student services for whatever reason and by whomever was "What did I do now?" The counselor's office was also identified by students with attendance problems, as chronic absenteeism was referred to the same counselor, who was to determine whether or not counseling intervention would be of some assistance in improving attendance at school.

Whichever of the two rooms was used for consultation relative to the senior credit check, people were engaged in confrontation at close quarters. The rooms were small. The counselor had at his disposal student records, reports from teachers, and his own professional training and experience. Other resources available included professional and non-professional school personnel.

Participation. The primary participants in the senior credit check were the counselor, the 12 students identified as deficient in credits for graduation at the beginning of the academic year, eight students who had failed required courses at the end of the first semester, 51 students referred by teachers as experiencing difficulty in required classes throughout the school year, and those students' parents and/or the referring teachers. In all, some 30 students were involved, eight of them being included in all the counts listed above and the remainder in more than one. In terms of responsibility, the building principal was an important but peripheral participant. Other students, faculty, administrators, and counselors were either not involved or participated in a support capacity.

Participation was initiated by the counselor, who conducted

the credit assessments and then notified students of credit deficiencies or teacher referrals for insufficient progress in required classes. Student participation depended upon identified problems. For most, it was of relatively short duration, involving a brief meeting with the counselor in which the problem was pointed out and either arrangements were made for academic assistance or the student's schedule was changed to include necessary course work. For six students, this initial contact was the first in a continuing series of conferences involving parents and teachers, to provide the services necessary for offering the students optimum opportunities for completing graduation requirements. In the cases of these students, course work, study time, and out-of-school time and activities were coordinated around the needs identified through the credit check.

Other counseling personnel were involved in a support structure around the senior credit check. Referrals were made to the counselor who coordinated peer tutoring, who then located a suitable tutor, arranged for tutoring time and space, and worked with the teacher(s) involved to determine the appropriate direction for tutoring to take. In some instances, review for examinations was all that was required. In others, consistent assistance with daily course work was needed for varying amounts of time.

Students were referred to the counselor who coordinated correspondence courses with the state Department of Education, if such courses were appropriate, who then assisted students in arranging for courses and served as proctor for examinations when they were mailed to the school. Counselors were occasionally asked to participate in

conferences, if they had worked with a particular student in the past and might facilitate identification of problems or suggestions for alternative resolutions.

The registrar, considered a member of the counseling staff, was charged with responsibility for notifying the senior credit check counselor of grade changes when students had made up incompletes or repeated courses they had failed, of computer generated letters of inadequate performance in required classes which had been initiated by teachers, and of any failing grades in required classes reported by teachers.

Perhaps the most valuable participation on the part of counseling personnel was providing a support network for the credit check counselor. He had opportunities to air his frustrations with students, teachers, parents, and administrators, as well as having available a circle of interested and concerned professionals who could add to his pool of resources for confronting the problems of students.

Relationships. The relationships that existed attendant on the senior credit check reflected a variety of personal approaches. Those between counselor and student were initially hierarchical, in that the counselor was the school person charged with verifying that a student had or had not completed the requirements for graduation. The counselor's status in this role allowed him to exercise a great deal more power than did either students or parents. However, over time and with some students that relationship between counselor and student changed its nature and appeared to be closer to an alliance.

The counselor and student were working intimately to achieve a student goal.

Other alliance relationships emerged, as between parent and counselor, teacher and counselor, and principal and counselor. Traditionally, alliance relationships carry the connotation of "you and me against them," and in some instances this was the nature of the relationships which developed: parent and counselor against student or teacher, teacher and counselor against student or parent, student and counselor against teacher. However, in the case of most of the alliances formed around the senior credit check, there was an evolution to "us against it," that is, to a group of people working in concert to overcome a problem.

Even in the cases of participants who had been observed to state that they disliked each other (as with the counselor and a teacher), relationships as regarded students were maintained on a cordial and professional plane. That this was true may have been at least in part the result of the nature of alliance relationships--people who worked together and shared responsibility for the success and safety of the institution were capable of putting their own differences of opinion in the background in the interests of the institution and the students it was intended to serve.

Relationships between the counselor and administrators as regarded the senior credit check were essentially supportive. While the building principal was the final legal authority on questions of graduation, he typically deferred to his designated representative, the counselor, in most instances. On the rare occasion in which he over-

turned agreements reached between the counselor and other participants, he was seen as interfering in and undermining procedures and structure. He was expected to support the professional personnel, and any time it was felt that adequate and/or correct support was not forthcoming, resentment and doubt were the results. The insistence that he be kept informed of action taken, that decisions be referred to him if there were any questions of propriety or legality, and that he be included in any particularly awkward or potentially explosive conferences was the principal's approach to preventing the development of situations in which he would feel compelled to countermand counselor actions or decisions. The counselor and the assistant principal, on the other hand, enjoyed an alliance relationship, being essentially in agreement on the point of delineation between student and school or teacher responsibility for student behavior and achievement.

Meanings. The meanings associated with the senior credit check were relatively complex. For the counselor, students who had been assisted and who were successful in completing graduation requirements were a source of personal and professional satisfaction. Those who failed to do so, particularly after intensive counselor intervention involving parents, students, and other school personnel, were a source of frustration. Of especial concern were those students who apparently had the ability to succeed and who equally apparently chose not to accept responsibility for their own academic performances.

The administrators perceived the credit check and its attendant activities as a way to fulfill the school's responsibility to students

and to protect the school from attack by people disappointed in a youngster's failure to graduate. The communication network associated with the credit check was seen as essentially a counselor responsibility; that is, the counselor was expected to keep the building principal notified of (1) the status of students experiencing difficulties; (2) the dates, participants, decisions, and consequences of conferences; (3) the degree of cooperation from faculty; (4) the sources of student difficulties; and (5) the progress of individual students who had been identified as potential non-graduates. Further, the counselor was held responsible for ensuring that the final roster of graduates was complete and accurate.

For most students, the formal credit check had very little meaning, because they were not aware until interviewed for this study that such an event had occurred. All students had conducted their own credit checks during pre-enrollment each year, and most thought that that was the only time credits were assessed. When interviewed, they indicated either that it was "nice" of the counselor to take that much trouble over them, or, in the cases of three students, that keeping track of credits earned should be the responsibility of each student.

For those students who were identified as being deficient in credits or courses for graduation, the meaning of the credit check went through identifiable phases. Students were observed to express initial annoyance at being called to the counselor for conferences, that annoyance being followed by a number of observed reactions. Some students blamed the counselor, the school, or a referring teacher for "keeping them" from graduating. Typically, these students moved to

another phase in which they accepted that they had to assume some of the responsibility for their situations themselves. Other students immediately initiated schedule changes or arranged for correspondence or community college courses to supplement their programs. Still others, when the deficiency was merely pending, that is would be determined by a class in which they were currently enrolled, sought peer tutoring or other academic assistance. Ultimately, the credit check was perceived by those students who had seen the counselor as a positive attribute of the counseling program. The counselor was identified by the students as "really helping" them: he had worked closely with teachers to identify and overcome problems; with parents to keep them informed, suggest ways they might help, and offer alternative methods for credit or course completion; and with students to assist them in identifying personal difficulties that were contributing to school problems, attacking course content effectively, and providing emotional and academic support.

Student comments revealed the various meanings the credit check carried. "I'm just skimming by--it helps me." "I missed some school; in the credit check I found out how to make it up." "It makes me feel like you care about us." "It's a good idea. [counselor] has called me in several times." "I found out about a course I didn't even know I needed. All I had to do was make a schedule change."

Only those parents whose youngsters were in serious academic difficulty were aware of the senior credit check as an isolated event. They perceived the ensuing activities as an attempt on the part of the school, as represented by the counselor, to provide students with every possible opportunity to complete graduation requirements successfully.

Again there were identifiable phases of meaning, beginning with initial dismay or blaming the school, and progressing to active participation in efforts to improve student performance. None of the parents of students in the class studied expressed surprise at their youngsters' status: periodic progress reports over three years had prepared them to confront the possibility that a four-year graduation plan may not have been realistic for their children.

Other counseling personnel saw the credit check as a valuable adjunct to the counseling program and as an unenviable responsibility for the counselor to whom it was assigned. Teachers shared that perception, and consistently expressed appreciation of the counselor's efforts to keep them informed of student status and to facilitate both conferences and strategies for improving student effectiveness in class.

Evaluation

The senior credit check was identified as being a valuable and successful aspect of the program component by all participants, with the exceptions of one student who stated that it did not concern her "because I keep track myself," and three students who felt it should be the students' responsibility, not the counselor's or the school's. One student complained that he "didn't feel a part of it," because he had never been called in, but had had to initiate confirmation of credits on his own. The fact that he was a four-point student, was enrolled in 60 units of credits beyond the minimum graduation requirement, and had selected courses that would clearly complete his college preparatory program, had resulted in his failing to come to the counselor's

attention during credit assessments.

All other participants had either been observed to express their appreciation of the program component and its operation or had stated in interviews that they considered it a valuable thing to do.

Transcript Endorsement

In an effort to encourage students to plan high school programs that would prepare them to pursue their post-high school goals, a transcript endorsement policy was implemented during the 1978-79 academic year. Four programs of study were identified: minimum graduation requirements, for those students who had as a goal simply earning enough credits to graduate; general education, for those students who were vague about their post-high school plans but who wanted to have a solid academic background as a basis for post-high school training or higher education when they did make a decision; vocational education, for those students who wanted to master job entry-level skills in any of the four vocational programs offered by the school--agriculture, secretarial, clerical, or metals (welding); and college preparatory, for those students who wanted to have the high school background recommended for admission to the state colleges and universities. Program endorsement information was included in the pre-enrollment process, and progress toward endorsement goals was evaluated at each succeeding pre-enrollment and during the senior credit checks.

Analysis

Acts. The selection of a program of studies leading to a

transcript endorsement was the responsibility of each student. Students were encouraged during pre-enrollment to plan high school programs which would be consistent with their own educational or career goals, and to discuss their endorsement plans with parents and counselors. At any time, students could request that a counselor review their progress toward endorsements and recommend courses which would allow them to complete the endorsements they had selected.

Activities. Collective action relevant to the endorsement program involved counselors working together to define each of the endorsements and delineate courses required for each; counselors working with teachers to ensure that curricular changes were reflected in endorsement requirements; and counselors and pre-enrollment advisers working with students to select and plan endorsement programs of study.

Responsibilities for the endorsement program were shared among the people in the institution. Having approved the endorsement policy at the request of the counseling personnel who had developed it, presented it to the District Board of Education, and won Board approval, the administrators' responsibility was ended. Except insofar as the endorsements were part of the total educational institution they administered, the principal and assistant principal carried no responsibility for its maintenance or for the procedures by which it was conducted.

Primary responsibility for endorsements fell to counseling personnel. The counselor responsible for senior credit checks also verified completion of endorsement requirements, notifying the registrar

of the endorsement each student's transcript should carry. Changes in the endorsement program were also counselor responsibilities. As curriculum changes were adopted, through application to the assistant principal, those changes were assessed for the impact they may have had on endorsements. For example, during the current academic year, a change in the approved vocational secretarial cluster, requested from and approved by the state Department of Education Career and Vocational Education Division, resulted in the addition of a ten-credit course in business letter writing to that vocational cluster. As the endorsements in vocational areas were dependent upon completion of the approved cluster courses, the endorsement had to be revised to reflect that change. A revision in the college preparatory endorsement was also indicated, when the state colleges and universities revised their recommendations for college bound students, which recommendations the endorsement was designed to reflect, from two years to three years of mathematics.

Responsibility for selecting a program of studies which would result in a particular endorsement and for completing the courses associated with that program was the student's. Counselors and pre-enrollment advisers were available to assist students during pre-enrollment week, and counselors were available at any time to help students determine which endorsement was appropriate for their post-high school plans.

Setting. Endorsement program development and maintenance took place in the student services center. Counselors had as resources the

vocational cluster course lists, a document from the state system of higher education which listed courses recommended for college admissions, and the district and state graduation requirements.

Endorsement selection took place in classrooms with faculty or in the school library with counselors during pre-enrollment week, and in counseling offices throughout the year. Resources available to students, counselors, and faculty advisers were the pre-enrollment packet (which included the descriptions, course requirements, and credit check list for each endorsement and a list of occupations and careers indicating the endorsement program appropriate to prepare for entry level skills or further education for each); and a list of course offerings which included descriptions of the elective courses available for meeting endorsement goals. Counselors were resources for all other participants in the endorsement process.

Participation. The primary participants in the endorsement activities were counselors and students. The nature of that participation varied, depending upon tasks and personal commitment to the process. As has been noted, administrator participation had been confined to the initial acceptance of the program after it had been developed by the counselors. Teacher participation was confined to one week each year, when teachers were assigned pre-enrollment advising responsibilities.

Counselor participation included continuing assessment of and revision of endorsement requirements, so that those requirements were an accurate reflection of the expectations of vocational cluster

programs, college preparatory recommendations, and the courses offered at the school. Counselors were also involved in assessment of progress toward endorsement goals, when students requested such assessment. The director of counseling and guidance, one of the school's counselors, developed an endorsement check list, so that students could evaluate their status during pre-enrollment. The director of counseling and guidance was also responsible for keeping teachers informed of any changes in the program. Other counselors participated in program development and implementation to the extent that they chose to do so, one quite actively and the other two on a more modest basis. As was true in most aspects of the post-high school plans component, counselor participation was dictated by each counselor's interest in the event, the value each counselor assigned to it, and other demands of each counselor's work load at the time the event occurred.

Student participation also varied. For most students, the endorsement was something to be considered during pre-enrollment, when students selected both an endorsement goal and the courses that would lead to realizing that goal. Because the selection of an endorsement goal directed elective course selections, students could be said to have participated in the endorsement program throughout their high school careers. Some 31 percent of the students indicated that their elective courses had been selected on the basis of their endorsement goals, two students suggesting that "I'd probably have taken those courses anyway. That's what I'm interested in."

Other students indicated that their participation in the endorsement program was at best peripheral. They stated that their

endorsements "just turned out that way" because of courses that had interested them, or that they "hadn't given it much thought--it didn't matter when I was a freshman or sophomore."

Relationships. The relationships between counselors as regarded endorsements were supportive in nature. In this case, "collegial" is the best descriptive term for the relationships among professional colleagues--responsibility and authority for the development, implementation, and maintenance of the endorsement program were shared equally among counselors.

Relationships between professional personnel and students were either hierarchical or accommodational. Counselors established the standards students must meet for each endorsement. Faculty advisers and counselors communicated those standards to students. A counselor determined whether or not the standards had been met. Students had virtually no power or authority in relation to endorsements, but complied with established standards. In some instances, counselors accommodated students by revising schedules or course selections so that students might achieve their endorsement goals.

Relationships between counselors and teachers in reference to endorsements were also hierarchical. Counselors informed teachers of endorsement standards and revisions in standards as they occurred. Teachers had not been involved in developing the endorsement program. Communication in this instance was one-way, from counselors, as people who knew, to teachers, as people who were assumed to need to know.

Meanings. For counselors, the endorsement program provided a

formal structure for demonstrating to students the relationship between their high school programs and post-high school educational or career plans. It was essentially perceived as a tool to be used in academic or vocational guidance.

Pre-enrollment advisers either shared that perception or considered the endorsement aspect of advising another imposition on their time and energy. Few teachers devoted much time to helping students understand endorsements or their relationships to occupational goals identified by students. They were observed to state that it was a counseling responsibility, that it really did not matter "because these kids don't know what they want to do anyhow," or that they neither understood it well themselves nor cared to understand it better. Those teachers who did understand both the intent of the endorsement program and the requirements for earning various endorsements indicated that it was a useful mechanism for helping them to advise students.

For students, the endorsement program held a variety of meanings. Students who were interviewed made it clear from their observations that the endorsements were seen to exist on a hierarchy, minimum graduation requirements being the least desirable and college preparatory the most desirable. They referred frequently to having selected "the best" program, meaning college preparatory, or to wishing they had "got a higher one," meaning something other than minimum graduation requirements or general education. While there is implicit in the program a status attached to various endorsements, the intent was to match programs of study to student goals. Students, except for those of the college bound who had earned college preparatory endorsements and those who had

earned vocational endorsements, did not seem to perceive the program in the context in which it was intended to function.

Student perceptions of the endorsement program were revealed in their interview comments. Perceptions varied in part with the endorsements earned. The students who were satisfied with having completed minimum graduation requirements indicated that "It's all I'll need," or "I'll just be happy to graduate." One young man said his whole family was looking forward to his graduation, as he would be the first of three sons to complete high school. He viewed his minimum graduation requirements endorsement with pride, pointing out that with the current local job market, "The Army's my best bet, and all they want is a high school diploma. I'll have that."

Those who were not satisfied with their minimum graduation requirements endorsements indicated that they felt they "should have done better" or that they had not really understood the importance of planning a high school program with post-high school goals in mind. Further, they suggested that while their endorsements reflected what they had done in high school, they felt that, as one student put it, the endorsement "downgrades me." Another said, "My endorsement makes me feel like I'm dumb, but I don't really think I am."

Among those earning general education endorsements, the most frequent comment was that "I didn't want the minimum." One youngster stated that he did not think a minimum graduation requirements endorsement would "look good" to employers. The status attached to endorsements was very clear among students who were dissatisfied with their general education endorsements, as was the confusion associated with the program

as a whole. One young woman, who was married and expected to be a housewife, suggested that she "should have" taken a college preparatory endorsement, even though she had also indicated that she did not like the mathematics and science courses required for college preparation, did not do well in "hard subjects," and had no intention of attending college unless it was for secretarial training. She did not suggest that she would have done well to have worked toward a secretarial or a clerical endorsement.

Students who had completed vocational or college preparatory endorsements expressed satisfaction with their high school programs, universally. Some suggested a very realistic assessment of their own work values and preferences, as in the case of one young man who had earned a vocational metals endorsement and who said "I'm not a four-year college type. I want to be a welder." Others indicated that the endorsements they had earned reflected classes in which they had learned skills or acquired academic backgrounds that would further their career or educational plans, and that the formal endorsement program had made it possible for them to see what was appropriate for them.

Evaluation

Faculty and administration expressed the opinion that the endorsement program had been one of the most valuable services introduced by counseling personnel. They cited the convenience of the materials, indicated that a formal program plan gave students a sense of direction for high school studies, and suggested that the endorsement program clarified both the relationship between high school and occupational or career

goals and the purposes for attending high school. Paradoxically, this opinion was shared by those teachers who resented the inclusion of the endorsements in pre-enrollment exercises as well as those who accepted the additional task willingly.

Counselors felt that, since the introduction of the endorsement program, students were being more selective in their choices of elective courses. One of the purposes of the program was to discourage students from "getting by with as little as possible," or, more positively, to take the best advantage of the educational opportunities provided them. Counselors felt that increased enrollment in courses required for general education and college preparatory endorsements and in the junior and senior level vocational classes indicated that that purpose was being served. The student comments regarding the desirability of something "better" than minimum graduation requirements supported the contention that formalizing programs was motivating students to complete more traditionally academic programs--that is, to enroll in more science, mathematics, literature, and social studies courses than the minimum required to meet state competency standards.

Students did, however, express some confusion about endorsements. The relationship between their programs of study and post-high school plans was unclear to approximately 30 percent of the students, including students completing any of the endorsements except college preparatory. College preparatory students clearly understood that their endorsements reflected course work that was intended to prepare them to be competitive with other college students. In view of the fact that numbers of faculty advisers, while they approved of the apparent effects of the program,

indicated that it was an imposition to add endorsement selection to the already sufficiently complex and time-consuming pre-enrollment activities, it is perhaps not surprising that some students were at best vague about the implications of the programs they had selected.

That students would prefer the "best" or "highest" endorsement over the high school program that was most appropriate for pursuing their particular post-high school goals was a matter of some concern to some of the counselors. This suggested that the status rather than the appropriateness of the program was being communicated to the students and used by them as the basis for their endorsement choices. For students who lacked the academic ability, inclination, or interest to succeed in advanced algebra, chemistry, physics, or trigonometry, the college preparatory program was not the "best" or "highest" program.

Apparently, what had been done to help students understand the endorsement program was insufficient for some students. It is difficult to identify the source of responsibility in this case. Attaching endorsements to existing pre-enrollment activities without some kind of intensive effort to study the process with students was apparently an inadequate approach to the question. That the SUTOE teacher had included a unit on high school planning in a course required of all freshmen may have solved the problem for students who were just beginning high school. However, students who were completing their sophomore and junior years would not have been included in that instruction. Counselors, who bore the primary responsibility for endorsement procedures, needed to address the question from these students' points of view.

Scholarship Workshop and File

The scholarship workshop was initiated in the academic year during which this study was conducted. The primary purposes were to provide students with information about sources of financial assistance for post-secondary education and to help them learn how to make application for scholarships. The scholarship workshop involved only those seniors who had reason to believe they would be eligible for scholarship assistance with college costs; that is, those students in the upper 25 percent of the class who were planning to attend college and who felt that their need for financial aid justified the time and effort required to make application.

The scholarship file was in its third year as a resource to which students had immediate and direct access. The file was housed in the registrar's office, which also served as a reception and waiting area for student services. Students were at liberty to use the file at any time, and could usually find a counselor who could assist them in its use. If a counselor were not immediately available, students could request a conference for assistance with the file.

Analysis

Acts. Acts associated with the scholarship workshop and file included preparation for the workshop, maintenance of the file, and use of the file. The first two of these were essentially solitary acts on the part of the counselor responsible. Originally, it had been intended that a teacher who had given students successful guidance in the

preparation of scholarship portfolios should assist with the planning, preparation, and presentation of the workshop. However, failure on the part of the principal to provide the release time that had been requested and approved for the teacher, rendered her participation impossible.

The counselor solicited suggestions for the workshop from other counseling personnel, but found little of value beyond moral support. None of the other counselors had either the experience or special training in the area that she had had. Therefore, the burden of planning, including arrangements for student participation, fell to one person.

Maintenance of the scholarship file was also an independent act. Over time, it had become practice that all scholarship information was addressed to one counselor, either because she had established contact with scholarship sponsors, or because in the assignment of counseling responsibilities she had been identified with college and scholarship counseling. The counselor received scholarship information and application materials, housed the materials in the file, and arranged to notify students through the morning bulletins and postings in the student services center of the eligibility requirements, application procedures, and deadlines for each scholarship.

Use of the file by students was either a solitary act or one involving at most three people: as many as two students and a counselor.

Activities. The major responsibility for both the scholarship workshop and the file fell to the counselor. Other counseling personnel assisted students in the use of the file, as necessary.

Student responsibilities for scholarships were many and varied.

Students were under no obligation either to attend the scholarship workshop or to use the file. If they chose to take advantage of the services offered, however, they were responsible for initiating contact with the counselor and for collecting personal information to be used in scholarship workshop activities. Students who decided to apply for scholarships had further responsibilities. They must solicit letters of recommendation, write personal statements, complete application forms, arrange for release of transcripts, and, in some instances, compile portfolios of application materials. Counselors, teachers, and administrators were available to assist students in preparing materials. The portfolios and personal statements prepared by alumni were available in the scholarship file for students to use as models.

The school registrar's responsibilities as regarded scholarships were also many and varied. She informed students of their rank in class, maintained records of student activities to be entered on transcripts, confirmed that appropriate transcript release forms were on file, and reproduced official transcripts as they were needed. She made copies of scholarship application forms, gave students their initial introduction to the scholarship file when counselors were not immediately available, and referred questions to the appropriate counselor. Unofficially, she served as a conscientious goad to students who procrastinated in submitting applications. As the parent of a senior who was engaged in competition for scholarship moneys, she was unusually well-aware of deadlines and requirements, and kept students informed.

While students who participated in the workshop spent one period a day for five days in formal workshop activities, the time they devoted

to applications far exceeded that formal involvement. Successful applicants typically applied for a number of scholarships for which they were eligible, each having different application requirements and emphasizing different aspects of student excellence. A student submitting as many as five applications could expect to spend a minimum of twenty hours in nothing but preparation of scholarship applications. Students consistently bemoaned the difficulty of finding time to apply for scholarships, not surprisingly when the commitment they had to academic and extracurricular activities was considered. These were young people carrying seven or eight academic subjects, participating in intermural athletics, student government, National Honor Society, the Kiwanis sponsored service Key Club, International Relations League, peer tutoring, church youth groups, Hi-Q "College Bowl"-type competitions, drama, 4-H and Future Farmers of America, and, in some cases, holding part-time jobs for as many as 10 to 15 hours per week. While none of the scholarship applicants covered all these areas of activity, none of them was involved in fewer than seven. Successful applicants were active student leaders. Somewhere, students also had to find at least one Saturday morning during which they could write the Scholastic Aptitude Test, scores from which were required for most scholarships. Students wanted all the help they could get for completing scholarship applications.

The scholarship and college counselor's time was not confined to maintenance of the file and preparation and presentation of the workshop. Workshop presentations for her occupied five class periods a day for five days, to make the program available to as many students as possible. Additional time was spent working individually with students to interpret

Scholastic Aptitude Test scores, explain application requirements, interpret application forms, assist students in using the scholarship file, and work with other professional personnel and parents who were concerned about scholarship applications. The counselor, at parent request, held a meeting for parents who had expressed dissatisfaction with the scholarship materials and information that were disseminated. She chaired the local scholarship committee, which was responsible for selecting recipients for the faculty scholarship and for various private endowments, the administration of which had been assigned to the school. In addition, she was responsible for establishing eligibility requirements, application procedures, recommendation forms, and award policies for a perpetual memorial scholarship which had been established by the school and community in response to the death of the building principal's 20 year old son, a graduate of the school. She had duties and responsibilities beyond her assignment as college and scholarship counselor, as well.

Other counselors designated time to assist with scholarship concerns. Numbers of scholarship applications required a counselor's recommendation. Students sought out counselors for assistance with the mechanics of making applications. And other counselors assisted with the interpretations of Scholastic Aptitude Test scores. No one else, however, made as great an investment of time as did the scholarship counselor and the student applicants.

Setting. The scholarship workshop was conducted in the school library, where reading tables of various sizes accommodated varying

numbers of participants and provided work space. Resources available to the counselor included application portfolios and personal statements prepared by students in years past, the information she had collected through participation in professional college and scholarship counseling workshops, and her own experience acquired through years of working with scholarship sponsors, selection committees, and applicants.

Students brought to the workshop materials which would document their achievements, both academic and extra-curricular, for inclusion in portfolios. Their most valuable resource was the counselor herself.

The scholarship file was housed in the registrar's office. Its location provided immediate and direct access, but no work space aside from the top of the two-drawer filing cabinet itself. There was no room for even a modest work table, but a chair was provided. The setting was far from ideal, given that all traffic for counselor and assistant principal offices and for the registrar passed through the area. However, it was agreed by counseling personnel that locating the file in the registrar's office was an improvement over an earlier location in the conference room, which was often inaccessible to students.

Participation. Of the members of the senior class who were interviewed, 41 percent expressed an interest in applying for scholarships. Approximately 75 percent of these participated in the scholarship workshop. The other participant was the counselor. Only one participant felt that the time spent in the workshop had been wasted; all others, including those who felt they would not qualify for scholarship assistance and those who had criticisms of the program, indicated

that workshop participation had been of some value to them. For some, workshop participation terminated when they learned that they were not likely to be competitive for scholarships, lacking the academic records necessary, but had learned about the availability of state and federal financial aid. For others, those in the academic top 20 percent of the class, participation continued for the entire five day period. They indicated in interviews their degree of participation. "It helped me with portfolios and resumes." "I haven't got started yet, but now I know what I need to do." "I thought it was a great idea. I think it helped a lot of people get organized."

Relationships. Scholarships involved a variety of relationship structures. The workshop was essentially hierarchical--the counselor who knew was in a position superior to students who did not know and who needed to know. Beyond that point, relationships between the counselor and students applying for scholarships became alliances between people working together for a common goal. Other alliance relationships developed between teachers and those students they particularly wanted to promote. This kind of alliance resulted in students' asking for extraneous numbers of recommendations, precipitating hostility on the part of other teachers.

Another alliance relationship developed when parents requested a meeting with the counselor to discuss scholarships. It transpired that a group of parents, concerned about scholarship information and applications, had allied themselves to challenge the counselor, whom they felt had not offered adequate individual attention to their children's efforts to make application. The counselor declined to adopt a defensive

posture at the meeting, but chose instead to explain application procedures, what she considered to be her responsibilities and what she considered to be students' responsibilities. She showed parents the scholarship file, and explained how information was communicated to students. She offered to work individually with any student or parent who took the initiative in requesting an interview. The counselor felt that parents left the meeting in a more positive and productive frame of mind than that which had prompted the meeting.

Meanings. For the entire school community, successful scholarship applicants were a source of pride. Professional personnel, non-professional staff, and students were all heard to gloat over Douglas High School students who were awarded scholarships for which they had been in competition with Roseburg High School Students. The scholarship and college counselor posted announcements of scholarship awards with obvious glee. Announcements of scholarship awards elicited almost as great a reaction from students as did announcements of victories in track or baseball, the athletic events occurring at the time of year that scholarship competition was most keen.

For students, a scholarship often meant the difference between pursuing higher education and finding full-time employment, at least "for a year or two." Few of the applicants felt that they could be cavalier about applying for scholarships--this meant serious business for them, and they approached it seriously. Those who were awarded scholarships were expected to notify counseling personnel, even if the sponsoring donors would be doing so. Students who failed to share their

good fortune were gently chided. It was felt that their success had been furthered by people who deserved to have a vicarious share in it.

The formal events associated with scholarship applications also had meanings for students, as revealed in interview comments. The scholarship workshop was perceived as a valuable innovation in the program, providing students with concrete information, materials, and instructions that they felt they needed. One student stated that "It's probably the biggest thing that helped me." Another said "I'm using everything she told me." Others suggested that they perceived weaknesses in the workshop: there was too little directed time; the time of day was wrong for them; and they should have been told as freshmen to start collecting portfolio materials. The scholarship file was criticized by two students as being poorly organized and requiring too much student time to use. Others found it a valuable tool, and indicated that the responsibility for using it and ferreting out necessary information was appropriately the students'.

For those applicants who were not successful, the scholarship application process became an exercise in discouragement and disappointment. One young woman approached the researcher to ask why her friend and fiercest competitor in school had been selected for an award and she had not. She was hurt and bewildered, and wanted reassurance and comfort. Explaining that applications which reflect nearly identical academic records and equivalent extra-curricular involvement make award presentations a monumentally difficult task for selection committees, was little comfort to a disappointed youngster who felt that she was at least as well qualified as the recipient, and for whom

financial assistance was vitally important.

Professional personnel who were asked to write letters of application were variously flattered, embarrassed, or annoyed by the requests. They were pleased to cooperate on behalf of those students whom they knew well and felt were qualified for and deserving of the awards they were seeking. They were embarrassed by being asked to recommend students whom they did not know well or felt they could not recommend without reservation. On occasion, teachers asked counselors how they could decline to write letters of recommendation without appearing to be unsympathetic to a student's needs and aspirations. Teachers were annoyed by students who had asked all their teachers to write recommendations, from which the students could select the most positive to include in scholarship portfolios. Teachers felt that if they had taken the time required to write letters, students should respect and use the letters written.

Evaluation

The effectiveness of the scholarship workshop and file can be evaluated in a number of ways, none adequate in itself: student reactions, success of applicants, and scholarship sponsors' comments all give some indication of the value of the program component events. Students, as has been suggested in discussions of participation and meanings, considered the scholarship workshop to be a valuable addition to the program, in need of some refinement, particularly in reference to organization of work time and encouragement to collect documentation from the first year of high school. The file was

considered to be useful by all but two students, who felt that it required too much student time because of poor organization and insufficient counselor assistance.

That applicants were successful reflected not only student qualifications, but how effectively those qualifications were presented to sponsoring selection committees. Two students who had participated in the scholarship workshop were awarded the local and district Elks club scholarships, for which students in five counties had competed. Two workshop participants were awarded Oregon State University Dad's Club scholarships. Of eleven Rotary club scholarships offered in the county, the full-tuition scholarship to a state institution, the Future Farmers of America Award, and the 4-H award were given to Douglas High School students who had participated in the workshop. One student had been awarded a merit scholarship by the private university to which she had been accepted. One student had been awarded the American Legion Auxiliary scholarship for which students throughout the county had competed. And at the conclusion of this study, there were students who had not yet been notified of awards they were to receive. Presentations of application materials for these students had been effective.

That presentation was often a deciding factor was pointed out by the scholarship and college counselor. She reported that members of sponsoring organizations' selection committees had commended her on the quality of student applications and portfolios, indicating that the care students had taken to present neat, complete, and grammatically correct packages of information had impressed committee members. The counselor quoted one Rotary committee member as telling her that "I don't

know what you're doing out there, but it must be right."

She also expressed concern about the quality of letters students had submitted to the school's scholarship committee, in application for those awards which were locally administered. She shared with the researcher one letter in particular which caused her alarm, because of the limited literacy it reflected--this from a student with a 3.6 grade point average and grades of A in English composition. Her concern was not only with the youngster's chances for a scholarship, which she considered to be virtually non-existent, but with his chances for success in his chosen field and the quality of instruction in English at the high school, as well.

As regards the scholarship workshop and file, evaluative information suggests that the program events were effective. Modifications were called for, particularly with reference to the scholarship file, which needed reorganization so that it would be a more useful and meaningful tool for students. If students were to use it independently, it should have been organized in a fashion that made sense to students.

College and University Visitations

The visitations by representatives of post-secondary institutions were conducted for purposes of information dissemination, from the high school point of view, and for recruiting. The state institutions of higher education sent a team, consisting of one representative from each school, to the high school. Private, proprietary, and technical schools sent individual representatives at various times during the school year, on a student request basis. If a student were interested in the

institution, the representative would include the high school in his or her tour through the state. A third kind of visitation, that of Douglas High School graduates who were attending college, was arranged on an ad hoc basis when these students were at home on vacation.

Analysis

Acts. Arrangements for visitations were made through the scholarship and college counselor. The state visitation team notified the counselor of the date the team would be available to visit the school, and gave the counselor the option of a morning or an afternoon visit. School personnel had no opportunity to participate in establishing the date for the team's visit. If a school wanted the team to visit, school personnel were obliged to work around the team's timetable. Individual representatives of private institutions tended to be somewhat more flexible as to the dates on which they would be available, but selected time of day to coincide with other visitation obligations.

The counselor was responsible for arranging locations for meetings with representatives and for students to be dismissed from class to participate. This latter responsibility involved organizing a system for taking roll on participants.

Activities. Visits with representatives of private institutions were relatively straight-forward. When the representatives arrived on campus, the counselor requested that students who had expressed an interest in the school be excused from class, introduced the students and the representative, and arranged for an interview to take place in

the conference room. If more than four students were interested, the interview was moved to the library. Students were at liberty to return to class as soon as they felt satisfied that they had the information they wanted.

The state team visitation was more complex. Students first met with all the team members in a large group for a general information session. Then people moved to designated areas for small group meetings between the representatives of individual schools and the students who were interested in those schools. Time was allowed for two small group meetings for each student. The representatives were expected to be able to answer student questions about programs of study, residential situations, extra-curricular activities, and campus life.

Visits from graduates attending colleges were arranged as the students were available. When graduates "dropped in to say hello" to counselors, they were asked if they could arrange to return to the school to meet with students at a designated time. The time and date were established on short notice, arrangements were made to meet in the school library, and an announcement of the event was placed in the school bulletin. Students who wanted to participate made their own arrangements to leave class.

Setting. The conference room was the setting for interviews with representatives of private institutions, unless the numbers of students involved exceeded the capacity of the room. In that case, meetings were moved to the library. Visits from graduates took place in the library.

The scholarship and college counselor had a more complex task to arrange for state team visitations. A room large enough to accommodate eight team members and as many as 50 students and half a dozen parents was required. Further, the room had to be adaptable to audio-visual presentations. The choir room was selected for the general session; while seating was inadequate, the fact that seats were arranged in tiers and that there was ample room for people to stand behind the last row of seats made it serviceable. From an administrative point of view, another asset of the choir room was that at the time of day the visitation occurred, only study halls were housed there, so that no academic class had to be re-located.

More difficult was locating space for small group meetings. Two representatives, who needed audio-visual capacity, were housed in the drama teacher's office and the newspaper publication room, respectively. One representative used the conference room, two the cafeteria, and the remaining three the library. The library, because of divisions of space provided by book stacks, was well-suited to small group meetings. The cafeteria had the disadvantages of being both uninterrupted space and separated from a regularly scheduled class only by a curtain. As has been pointed out before, people in this school accommodated to the strictures of space.

Participation. Student participation was voluntary, and involved missing class time. During interviews, 45 percent of the seniors indicated that they had participated in the state team visitation, 16 percent that they had seen representatives of private

institutions, and 20 percent that they had visited with returning graduates.

Participation on the part of other school personnel was peripheral, but important. Teachers were asked to cooperate in excusing students from classes and to relinquish their work spaces or classrooms temporarily. The counselor coordinated meeting times and places, and maintained rosters of participants to submit to the attendance clerk. The attendance clerk compared rosters of participants with absence reports from teachers, to assure that students would not be approached to account for apparent truancy.

Meanings. Students indicated that they found participation in visitations valuable in making choices about schools and programs, for understanding application procedures and admission requirements, and for acquiring a sense of the "characters" of different schools. Several students indicated that they considered it important for students to visit college campuses themselves, rather than relying exclusively on information provided by official representatives. One young man felt that his visit to a private college in which he had been seriously interested was valuable in helping him to decide to attend a state university. Among other things, the program which had attracted him to the private school did not compare favorably with that offered by the state school. Other students had experienced people eager to answer questions and conduct tours of their schools when seniors visited campuses. Conversely, one young woman suggested that if her visit to the campus of her choice on the designated senior visitation day had been her only experience of the school, she would

have changed her mind about where to attend college. She was not pleased with the reception her questions received from the university's financial aid officer, who was perceived as abrupt and indifferent.

Students found visits from Douglas High School graduates particularly valuable, because the people they knew were able to convey their personal experiences meaningfully. The students felt they could relate better with older students than with official representatives. As one young man said, "They make college less mysterious. I know I won't get crucified at college."

For the scholarship and college counselor, visitations meant logistics problems to be solved. Arranging meeting locations for even small numbers of people on campus during the regularly scheduled school day was often a difficult task. When the meetings involved up to 60 or 70 people, participating in as many as eight different groups meeting simultaneously, the task took on monumental proportions, requiring the cooperation of numbers of faculty members. Aside from those considerations, the counselor felt that the visitations had the potential of providing valuable information for students.

For those teachers who had senior students in class, the visitations meant either inconvenience when part of a class was dismissed and some students remained, or a welcome preparation period when the entire class attended visitation meetings. Other faculty members, whose classes were re-located or who relinquished their work spaces, were inconvenienced temporarily.

The administrators found their work loads compounded by the state team visitations. Students who had no intention of participating

would leave class on the pretext of legitimate business and subsequently leave campus. When they did not appear on the rosters of visitation participants, but were reported absent, the assistant principal was obliged to confront them with their unauthorized absences from school.

During the state team visitation, the principal was confronted with large numbers of students moving about the building at unusual times, as changes from the general session to a small group meeting and from one small group meeting to another did not coincide with the regular class change schedule. Unless there were complaints of disorderly conduct in the halls, which would disturb classes in progress, his tendency was to view the situation with tolerance. A degree of irregularity in the school routine did not cause him undue alarm.

Evaluation

With the exception of one student who felt the visits from graduates mainly involved "goof off stuff," all participants in visitations considered the program valuable. Students who were interested in post-secondary education and who did not participate, for whatever reason, felt they had missed an important opportunity.

The program could have been improved by more formal organization of the visits from graduates. Inadequate time for notifying students of the event was allowed. It might have been useful to contact college students during fall term to invite them to the campus on a pre-arranged date, and to spend time promoting their visits. It was not perceived as a disadvantage that visiting graduates had not had time to prepare presentations. The formal representatives offered prepared talks--

students appreciated the extemporaneous offerings of the graduates.

The counselor had some criticisms of state team members who did not seem to be adequately prepared. She was particularly dismayed at the inability of one of the representatives to answer obvious questions about admissions. She recognized that this person was in his first year as a team member, but felt he had done the school he was representing a disservice.

While numbers of teachers were inconvenienced by visitations to a greater or lesser degree, none was overheard to complain or offered a formal complaint. Whether their silence represented approval of the program or acceptance of what they considered to be the inevitable is not known. No one had refused to cooperate with the counselor in organizing the events.

The visitations apparently had merit. At least one student indicated that participation in the state team visitations should be mandatory rather than optional, because it was the visitation "that got me even thinking about college." Others indicated that they would like to have had time for at least three small group sessions. Several students indicated that they had participated in order to "find out what college is all about," even though they knew they would be attending the local community college or going to work after high school. The state team visitation was the first formal contact most of the students had had with four-year post-secondary institutions. It would seem to be an important component of counseling for post-high school plans.

Financial Aid Workshop

"Workshop" was a misnomer for this activity, which amounted to the distribution of materials and instruction in applying for financial aid. The event occurred in required personal finance classes, and had as its sole purpose to ensure that each student who planned to pursue education after high school understood what was available in terms of state and federal financial aid, who was eligible for aid, and how to apply for aid. These aid programs were administered through a number of regional offices, and required the submission of a standard application form. In addition, some institutional financial assistance was disbursed on the basis of the standard Financial Aid Form. State and federal aid was applicable to state colleges and universities, community colleges, and private, trade, technical, and proprietary schools. Therefore, students planning to enroll in any kind of post-secondary educational or training institution were encouraged to file the Financial Aid Form.

An aspect of the financial aid program introduced during the current academic year was a parents night, which any interested parents in the community were encouraged to attend. The parents night was announced as part of a series of four articles on financial aid, written by the Douglas High School scholarship and college counselor and published in the local daily newspaper. The purpose of the meeting was to provide information to people who needed it.

Analysis

Acts. In preparation for the workshop, the counselor collected

current information on college and training school costs, made overhead projection transparencies of Financial Aid Form application sheets, and summarized eligibility data. She arranged with the personal finance teacher the dates when she would address his classes, and arranged for one of the counselors to supervise her one regularly scheduled class.

The parents night required coordination of events with the college financial aid officer. A financial aid officer from another institution, who had agreed to make a presentation at parents night, was unable to attend because of dangerous road conditions, leaving the high school counselor with responsibility for preparing a presentation on very short notice. As she had presented the material to groups of students over a period of years, preparation time was not exorbitant.

Activities. Collective participation in the financial aid workshop began when the counselor addressed each of the personal finance classes. She distributed Financial Aid Forms, explained the programs for which state and federal financial aid were available, and told students about eligibility requirements. Students were responsible for collecting the material and information they needed for filing the form. The counselor was responsible for making information available and for being accessible to students who requested individual assistance. The counselor was also responsible for helping students interpret eligibility reports when they had been received by students.

Collective participation in the parents night paralleled that of the financial aid workshop. The high school counselor explained procedures for filing the form, and pointed out items on the form which

merited particular care or attention. The financial aid officer of the college addressed participants on the various kinds of aid available (grants, loans, and work-study), and explained the formula used for determining eligibility for financial aid.

Parents shared in the responsibility of filing forms. Rarely could a student complete the form until parents had provided information on the family's financial assets and liabilities.

Setting. The financial aid workshop was conducted in a standard classroom. Students sat in individual desks where all could see and be seen by the counselor. The room, for purposes of the workshop, was provided with a projection screen and an overhead projector. The only other resources available to the counselor and students were copies of the Financial Aid Form, with its instructions, and the counselor's expertise.

Parents night was held in two classrooms at Umpqua Community College, the room originally scheduled for the event being inadequate to accommodate the numbers of people who attended. Resources for this event included the Financial Aid Form and the experience of the two professionals who had worked with financial aid application procedures.

Participation. Students participated in the financial aid workshop by virtue of their enrollment in a required personal finance class. The extent of participation varied with the relative importance of the information to individual students: those who planned to pursue education or training after high school and who needed financial assistance to do so were more deeply involved than were those who did not.

Parents night was optional, and involved a degree of inconvenience for participants. The college was located five miles north of Roseburg, or 12 miles north of Winston, where the high school was located, and varying distances from other towns in the college service area. People had to travel some distance to attend, and 150 considered it was worth the time and travel to be there. Of the students who indicated in interviews that they intended to apply for financial aid, 35 percent were represented at parents night, some of them accompanying their parents. Participants listened to the presentations, and then addressed questions to the counselor and financial aid officer. The questions that were asked suggested that people were both seriously involved in the presentations and deeply concerned about how to finance their children's educational aspirations.

Relationships. Relationships in both financial aid events were clearly hierarchical. Those with greater authority and knowledge were instructing those who needed information and direction. Following the group events associated with financial aid, the counselor spent time at school in individual conferences with parents and students to help them apply for financial aid or interpret eligibility reports. Again, relationships were hierarchical, with one who knows informing those who do not know. Occasionally, these conferences would take on the character of alliance relationships, with people working together for a common goal.

Relationships with other school personnel were almost nonexistent. Financial aid concerns were considered the province of one

counselor, who was left to approach the problem as she saw fit. All questions about financial aid were referred to her. Other counseling personnel would distribute Financial Aid Forms when students requested them, and did provide support for the counselor when she was involved in preparation for events.

Meanings. Nearly 49 percent of the students indicated in interviews that they intended to file Financial Aid Forms. For some of these students, state and federal financial aid programs meant the difference between pursuing their post-high school goals and revising their expectations. For others, financial aid would make it possible to attend their first-choice post-secondary institutions rather than a second or third choice school. Fifty percent of those who indicated that they intended to apply for financial aid had done so by the time interviews had been completed in March.

Those who had no need of financial aid information were tolerant of the use of class time for presentations. They pointed out that the most efficient means of reaching all the seniors who might have needed the information was through a required class. Further, students indicated that they had not known, prior to the workshop, that they could apply for financial aid for programs offered by proprietary and trade schools.

Students reported that the parents night was an informative event, giving their parents exposure to concerns they had not considered. One young man pointed out that the farm supplement, introduced during parents night, was particularly important to him. Others indicated that their parents were discouraged by threatened reductions in federal funds for

financial aid and by requirements that apparently left them ineligible for state or federal funds.

Two students indicated feeling frustrated by their parents' procrastination in completing the Financial Aid Form. The students knew that they would need assistance to meet college costs, and had difficulty understanding their parents' reluctance to support them by providing the information necessary for filing for state and federal aid.

For the counselor, the financial aid workshop and parents night were important methods for assuring that information was communicated to concerned persons. The two events also prompted numbers of requests from parents and students for assistance with filing the Financial Aid Form and interpreting the eligibility reports.

Evaluation

As procedures for providing information, materials, and assistance for students filing Financial Aid Forms, the workshop and parents night were effective. No student faulted the program or the counselor for failure to disseminate information adequately, although one suggested that the workshop was held too late--students should already have filed their applications. Another student expressed the opinion that, because of the importance of financial aid to students and their families, the counselor could be more aggressive in identifying and contacting students who may need assistance. She felt that too much was "left up to us." The counselor felt that, having notified students of the availability of state and federal aid and the procedures for filing for that aid, it was appropriate to leave responsibility for requests for additional help

to the students. Only one student suggested that the counselor was not as prompt as she should have been in responding to a request for individual assistance.

Scholastic Aptitude Test Workshop

Again, instruction would be a more accurately descriptive term for what occurred during this event. Students did not actually work through an application to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), but listened to information about who should take the SAT, why they should take it, and how to apply for it.

Analysis

Acts. The scholarship and college counselor collected SAT materials, including an information pamphlet and the application manual, to distribute to students. She confirmed minimum SAT scores required for admission to a variety of public and private post-secondary institutions, and the dates for local SAT administrations. These preparatory acts ensured that information given students would be accurate.

Activities. Students attended the SAT workshop by virtue of being enrolled in the government class required of all seniors. Students were responsible for determining, on the basis of the information given them by the counselor, whether or not they needed to write the SAT. They were responsible as well for keeping application materials which were distributed, and for meeting application deadlines and costs, which were announced in the application manual. Student responsibilities included

arranging transportation to a testing site, Roseburg High School being the nearest for them.

The counselor was responsible for ensuring that each student who needed to write the SAT for college admissions or scholarship applications had an opportunity to do so, and for explaining to students how to file application for the SAT. The workshop presentation was intended to fulfill those responsibilities. The counselor was also responsible for providing individual assistance in completing the application form and for interpreting SAT scores upon student request.

Students were urged to write the self-scoring sample test which was included in the SAT information pamphlet, an activity left to the students' discretion.

Counselor time spent in preparation for the workshop was brief, relative to preparation time required for other activities. In addition to the collection of materials and information, she was responsible for arranging to use class time through the two government teachers. If a government class met at the same time as the counselor's regularly scheduled class, she was responsible for arranging for a substitute to take her class. Presentation time amounted to four or five class periods, depending on the numbers of government classes to be addressed.

Additional counselor time was devoted to individual work with students who requested assistance with applications or score interpretations. The thirty-two students who indicated that they had written or intended to write the SAT represented a potential of approximately 20 hours of individual guidance time for the counselor.

Student time devoted to the SAT varied according to student

needs. Completing the application form accurately could be accomplished in under 30 minutes. Those who actually read all the material presented and who wrote the sample test would spend another two hours on the SAT. One young woman said that she thought very few students did that, because there was "just too much of it to read." Actually writing the test involved an entire morning, or longer, depending upon transportation time. Students who procrastinated beyond the deadline for the last local administration of the SAT, at Roseburg High School, were obliged to travel to Grants Pass or Eugene for the test.

Setting. The workshop was conducted in a regular classroom, with students seated at individual desks from which they could see and be seen by the counselor. Resources included SAT publications, information on admissions requirements taken from college and university catalogs, and the counselor's expertise and experience.

Relationships. Relationships relative to the SAT were hierarchical. Invariably, the counselor or one of her counseling colleagues represented a person in authority telling someone without authority what to do, how to do it, and what it meant after it had been done.

Meanings. SAT scores were among the indices of probable success in post-secondary education which were used by college and university admissions personnel and by scholarship sponsors to decide who would be admitted to school and who would receive scholarships. Some institutions and scholarship sponsors established minimum standards of SAT score achievement to be eligible for application. A student failing to achieve

those scores, regardless of his or her grade point average or extra-curricular achievements, was automatically eliminated from consideration. One student, who had won a congressman's recommendation to the United States Air Force Academy, was denied appointment because his SAT scores did not meet the standard. This youngster, being tenacious, wrote the SAT three times before accepting the fact that he was not eligible for appointment to the academy.

Students competed with each other for SAT scores, just as they did for rank in class. Several students expressed disappointment in their scores, some explaining why their scores were "lower than they should have been," and one stating that his scores were "lower than I hoped, but realistically what I should have expected." One young man said that all that mattered to him was that his SAT scores were high enough for admission to college.

The SAT workshop itself carried a variety of meanings for students. One declared that it "just got me scared, so I didn't want to do it." Others found it useful and informative, but pointed out that "there's no way to prepare for the SAT." Two youngsters recommended that the school institute a program of study for the SAT, using old tests to give people experience with it.

Those who were not planning to take the SAT were less tolerant of class time being used for the SAT workshop than for the financial aid workshop. This may be accounted for in part by the more exclusive audience for the SAT: it was required only of those students planning to attend four-year public and private universities. Students for whom the SAT was not necessary indicated that they were bored by the workshop or

that they resented being obliged to sit through something of no concern to them. Six students who were not themselves planning to take the SAT indicated that it was "all right" to use class time, as the most efficient way to ensure reaching everyone who needed the information. Two of those six suggested that using class time might motivate some students at least to think about college, who otherwise would not have done.

The SAT workshop format represented the most direct and efficient communication procedure for the counselor. She had expressed some concern about those students who did not need the information, but had not been able to discover an alternative communication system that would be equally effective. She was satisfied that she was fulfilling her obligation to students.

Evaluation

With the exception of the one student who felt there was too much material to read and two who wanted more instruction in preparing for the SAT, students who needed the information indicated that the workshop was effective. Students who had no interest in the material indicated their dissatisfaction with having the workshop take place during required class time. Counseling personnel were satisfied that the procedures surrounding the SAT were effective in meeting student needs.

Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery and Recruiter Visitations

School personnel served only in a coordinating capacity for events associated with the military. The director of counseling and

guidance arranged with recruiters a time and location for administration of the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB). Counselors arranged for interviews with recruiters at student request. The registrar located space for student interviews with recruiters. These events were services provided for students, for whom transportation or time to visit recruiters in their Roseburg offices created difficulties.

Analysis

Activities. The ASVAB was administered at the high school by military recruiters. ASVAB results were used by the military for placing recruits in training programs, and were therefore of some importance to youngsters with particular training plans. Students who were considering enlistment were notified of the time and place for test administration through the school bulletin.

Visits from military recruiters were arranged at student request. Students could either work through a counselor or make arrangements for visits directly with the recruiters. When a recruiter arrived on campus, he reported to student services and told the registrar who he was there to see. The registrar sent for the student, introduced the recruiter, and arranged for space for the interview.

Setting. The ASVAB was administered in the school library. Two recruiters administered the test, to provide adequate supervision. Interviews took place either in the conference room or in a counselor's office, whichever was available at the time. Counselors occasionally obliged recruiters by scheduling out-of-office commitments to coincide with visits, so that an interview space would be available.

Participation. Of the students interviewed, 29 percent indicated that they had talked to recruiters. Six students had taken the ASVAB. Participation was optional, the events being services provided for the convenience of students.

Meanings. Sixteen percent of the students interviewed expressed strong objections to the appearance of military recruiters on campus. The remainder felt that the school had an obligation to provide services for students considering the military just as it had for student with other plans. While over 40 percent of the students had considered military training or careers, at least briefly, most thought of it as a "last chance" option, if plans for work or school could not be implemented.

Only seven students anticipated military involvement immediately after graduation, two of these having committed themselves to delayed enlistment programs. For them, the military held a variety of meanings. One considered it his "best bet" for work, given his training and ability and the local job market. Two saw the military as a way to finance post-secondary education. One decided that he "might as well enlist, since I don't know what I want to do with my life right now, anyway." The remainder saw the military as a good way to learn a trade while earning some money.

The director of counseling and guidance expressed some reservations about his participation in arranging for administration of the ASVAB, limited and peripheral as that participation was. When asked by recruiters if he would agree to administer the test himself, he declined,

telling the researcher that he did not want "to do their recruiting for them." Other professional personnel seemed to be indifferent, neither promoting nor obstructing recruiters' activities on campus. People felt an obligation to provide services for students, at the same time that they were reluctant to be identified with recruiters or recruiting.

Evaluation

The equivocal stance toward the military taken by counselors was interpreted by students as a weakness in the program. While they felt it was a student's responsibility to arrange to see recruiters, they felt that counselors were remiss in advertising the military academies and Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) programs. Counselors were not hostile toward the academies or ROTC, but had not conducted an informational campaign around those educational options.

Part of the responsibility for this failure must be shared with the military. Only the Air Force Academy/ROTC liaison officer made any contact with the school. As a result of his offer to address students, arrangements were made for him to visit campus, and his visitation was well-publicized. The event occurred too late for the graduating class, as application for admission to the academies and for ROTC scholarships took place at the end of the junior year. Liaison officers for the other branches of the military were not attracted to the school. This might be explained in part by the selective nature of the programs. ROTC and academy liaison officers are recruiting from among the academic top ten percent of students, and are likely to find the greatest numbers of competitive applicants in larger schools.

Aside from the criticism regarding lack of information on ROTC programs and academies, students seemed to feel that counseling personnel, with the assistance of military advertising programs, were doing an adequate job of helping students learn about opportunities available to them through the military.

Summary

In summary, information that was collected in interviews and observations has been analysed in terms of acts, activities, setting, participation, relationships, and meanings. Acts are described in terms of participant roles. Activities are shown to involve responsibilities from various participants. The settings in which events occur and their influence on the events are noted. Participation in events is seen to vary on the basis of participants' interest in the events, on the settings in which they occur, and on the nature of the events. The relationships disclosed are seen to be influenced both by public school role definitions and by individual purposes and goals. Meanings are discovered through individuals' participation in and reactions to events.

In terms of evaluation of the program component, several areas that needed revision are identified, and suggestions for improving the effectiveness of those events are offered.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUMMARY

The primary problem of this study was to evaluate the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. Secondary problems were to determine the approach to be taken for collecting evaluation information and the methods to be used for implementing that approach. It was contended that a humanistic approach, using subjective, interpersonal knowing as sources of information, was preferable to more objective approaches, because of the nature of information that could be collected. The techniques selected for collecting subjective information were intensive interviewing and participant observation. This chapter is devoted to (1) conclusions regarding the efficacy of the procedures employed; (2) conclusions regarding the evaluation of the program; (3) recommendations for further research; and (4) a brief summary of the thesis.

Conclusions Regarding Procedures

The essential question is whether or not the procedures employed for a humanistic approach to evaluation yielded information of use in evaluating the program component studied. It is not suggested that more objective approaches do not provide useful information, but that they are limited by their very objectivity to that which is essentially quantifiable, and therefore exclude qualitative information which can contribute to a comprehensive evaluation program. Is a humanistic approach

effective in providing evaluation material which would be overlooked or obscured in a rating scale or behavioral objectives approach to evaluation? This question is addressed in the following discussion.

Intensive Interviewing

The quality of student observations indicated that the interview method could reveal meanings that would be difficult to reach in a more objective approach. Students could, and did, express their ideas and concerns in some detail when given an opportunity to talk with an interested and receptive interviewer. A rating scale that would permit the nuances of response that were achieved in this study is difficult to envision. For example, it was possible in an interview to approve an activity and at the same time to specify its shortcomings. A case in point was the scholarship file in the program examined for purposes of this study. Students who indicated that they had used the file and found it helpful also suggested that they were not totally satisfied with it. Some files were incomplete, they could not locate instructions for completing applications, and they had to spend too much time trying to locate the information they needed.

Perhaps more potent examples of the superiority of the intensive interview as a method for collecting evaluation information were those negative responses of students. On a rating scale, the rater indicates a positive or negative value, or neutrality. The rating does not indicate the basis for the judgment. Again using the scholarship file as an example, two students not only expressed their dissatisfaction with the material available to them, but had an opportunity to explain to the

interviewer the nature and source of their dissatisfaction. It was useful in evaluating the program to know that students found the scholarship file inadequately organized to be functional from their point of view, and that they felt that the publication of information entered into the file was seriously lacking. These were concrete complaints that could be addressed readily. It is conceivable that the very real concerns of these two students might have been overlooked in a rating scale item to which only two students responded in the negative. Conversely, had all students who had had any negative feelings about the file indicated on a rating scale that the file lacked utility, it would have been conceivable to interpret their responses as an indication that the file was of no value and should be eliminated from counseling activities. In fact, what students were suggesting in this instance was that the material available to them should be both publicized more effectively and organized on the basis of criteria logical to students, important evaluation information which it would be difficult to collect by more objective methods.

Similar objections hold for a behavioral objectives approach to the evaluation undertaken here. It would be possible to develop objectives concerning the use of the scholarship file and to establish criteria for success in meeting those objectives. However, it is doubtful that criterion measures would reveal the degrees of satisfaction with the material that were revealed in interviewing. Whether or not a student has used the file and found a particular item in it would not indicate difficulties he or she may have encountered. Further, it would not suggest the sources of those difficulties.

This consideration suggests another advantage of the interview

method for collecting evaluation material. In an interview, it was possible to clarify questions for students and to request elaboration of student responses. More objective approaches rely on items that are understood to be asking the same questions of all respondents. In this study, it became quickly apparent that all people do not understand the same thing by the same question. For example, the interview item having to do with the relationship between the program endorsement that was earned and a student's assessment of his or her own skills and abilities had no meaning for some students until it had been explained. Another item that mystified students originally was that concerned with the relationship between their occupational or career plans, and their self-concepts. Only when the intent of these questions had been explained, were many students able to answer them with confidence.

Conversely, when a student expressed an opinion about a program activity, it was possible to make enquiries into the nature and sources of that opinion. The unusual explanations and unique observations were at times more valuable than were the simple numbers of responses. For example, only one student of those who suggested that counselors did not advertise their services adequately suggested that counselors should be more active in initiating personal contacts with individual students who appeared to be in some difficulty. Others had mentioned that they had appreciated it when counselors had approached them with offers of help, but the implications of those comments were clarified when a student recommended a more active role for counselors. As was pointed out by at least one student, there are some matters which cannot be rated on a scale of 1-to-10. To understand what a judgment means, it is useful to

to be able to ask the judge for clarification.

Other examples of the benefits of an interview approach to the collection of evaluation information were found in student comments on SUTOE. That 37 percent of the students who had been enrolled in the class were dissatisfied with it does not reveal the nature of that dissatisfaction. That students considered themselves too young and inexperienced, or that they felt they were not yet ready to examine career possibilities, may well be lost on a rating scale. Among those who indicated that the course was of little or no value were some who identified particular course content as having been useful to them. For the students interviewed, one of the primary purposes of the course, assistance with high school planning, was at best obscure, only two students indicating that that had been a valuable result of SUTOE. This discovery was useful in reassessing the course content and emphasis, as well as the ways in which it was presented to students--and would have been unlikely to emerge in a more objective evaluation procedure.

A revelation to the interviewer was the possibility that this approach to evaluation could provide an entree to counseling situations. In the discussion of the interview process, it was noted that in three instances students presented problems that took precedence over completion of the interviews. In these cases, serious student concerns were revealed that otherwise might not have been, as the students had not requested conferences with counselors. The opportunity provided students by the research in which they were participating may indeed reflect the need expressed by the young woman who suggested that counselors take a more active role in approaching students. Soliciting cooperation from

them had provided these three students with an opportunity to address concerns that had been bothering them.

Less time-consuming, but equally important problems were presented by other students during the interviews. While interview questions prompted some students to express personal concerns, the concerns were not confined to the subject of the interview. Conflicts with parents and siblings, feelings of inadequacy, concern about peer relationships, and difficulties with teachers were presented, as well as were indecision about plans for the future and doubts about the ability or means to realize those plans.

Participant Observation

Participant observation for purposes of this study involved both formal observation of program events and informal observations collected over four years of professional employment in the setting. While some aspects of campus life, student interactions particularly, were not accessible to an obviously mature professional person, other areas were open. Interactions between counselors and administrators, which indicated the nature of the relationships between them, for example, provided material useful for understanding the relative success or failure of counseling program components. Observations of reactions of counseling personnel to the behavior of other professionals operating in the setting provided insights into the relationships existing in the school, and the impact of those relationships on counseling program events.

Observations are clearly subjective material, filtered through the experience, expectations, and understanding of the observer. They

can enrich more objective data, by providing access to the intentions, interactions, and feelings of people involved in a social setting. It was useful in collecting evaluation information for this study to observe the participation of various role-players. When behavior and speech observed are considered in the context of the stated purposes and apparent outcomes of activities, sources of program success and failure can be more clearly identified. For example, it was useful to know that teacher behaviors occurring outside the scholarship workshop were influencing the effectiveness of that workshop for students who had participated. It was useful to know that counselor attitudes were influencing the effectiveness of program events designed to provide students with information on the military. It is doubtful that an objective evaluation instrument would have revealed the existence of those behaviors, much less the impact they were having on the program.

Conclusions Regarding Evaluation

Superficially, at least, students at Douglas High School seemed to be reasonably well-satisfied with the post-high school plans component of the counseling program. They suggested that they had been given the information they needed, that counselors were responsive to their concerns, and that the program itself anticipated their needs for information and guidance. A superficial evaluation, however, was not the point of this study. That can be more expeditiously acquired through a rating scale or survey.

A closer examination of the material collected reveals that students did identify problems in the program insofar as its efficacy

in meeting their needs was concerned. As regards SUTOE, several concerns emerged. From a student point of view, the career education course offered was insufficient for meeting ongoing career guidance needs. From a counseling point of view, students did not have a clear understanding either of the relationship between high school programs of study and future plans or between occupational/career plans and self-concept. These seem to be major oversights for a course addressing itself to self-understanding. In addition, students were unaware of career guidance services available through counseling personnel, and counselors had done nothing to increase their awareness of the availability of these services. This was a flaw in the program component which needed to be addressed by counselors. Several avenues were open to them: inclusion of career guidance information in the existing freshman academic orientation program; development of career guidance workshops; and simple publication of services available.

In reference to the endorsement program, one third of the students indicated that they had not considered career or occupational goals when planning their high school programs. Thus, for these students, one of the primary counseling purposes of the program was not achieved, suggesting that a communications failure of important dimensions existed. The SUTOE teacher had begun addressing the problem by introducing pre-enrollment materials in his class. However, counselors needed to enlist the support of those teachers who were reluctant pre-enrollment advisers, to ensure that all students were at least exposed to the relationship between future goals and present studies.

The scholarship file was the one area of the program component

that drew the most strident and articulate criticism. Students felt that the information in the file was inadequately organized, that they were inadequately informed of the arrival of new information, that they received insufficient assistance in applying for scholarships, that deadline dates for applications were not adequately publicized, and that there was too little attention paid to the individual student and his or her needs as regarded scholarship information. It should be pointed out that there were students who felt a more than adequate job was being done in this area, those students being people who had taken the initiative to locate information on their own. While counselors would do well to attend more closely to student needs in this area, the student's role in seeking information and assistance needed to be clarified, as well: the student who indicated that the scholarship file had helped him understand that "scholarships won't come looking for me" is at an advantage over students who feel that counselors or other school personnel should take the initiative in applying for scholarships for students.

Students recommended that counselors take a more active role in addressing the personal problems of students; advise students earlier than the senior year to start making college plans; address juniors on ROTC, military academies, and the Pre-Scholastic Aptitude Test; and advertise the nature and availability of counseling services more effectively. These concerns were addressed by the researcher to other counseling personnel, who responded immediately by arranging for the Air Force ROTC and academy liaison officer to have an opportunity to make his presentation to students. The remaining concerns were being addressed in counseling staff meetings before the end of the school

year during which the study was conducted.

Several aspects of the quality of the program component emerged. First, the researcher was struck by the students' willingness to assume responsibility for their own behavior. With rare exceptions, students indicated that their dissatisfaction with program activities was the result of their own failure to take advantage of what was available, rather than any weakness in the program or failure on the part of professional personnel to consider their needs.

Second, the structure of the social setting itself inhibited participation on the part of students. Professional counselors were seen by students, particularly when they were in the first year or two of school, as members of the administrative structure which enforced discipline. The physical proximity of the counseling center to the "seat of judgment," the assistant principal's office, contributed to this perception, but cannot be considered entirely responsible for it. The tendency on the part of counselors to assume that, since they knew what they were doing others knew what they were for, resulted in student services being a relatively mysterious and isolated aspect of the school for some students. Counselors simply overlooked the need to tell each incoming group of students what counselors were about.

Third, the relationships which existed, partly by virtue of the structure of the institution, influenced the effectiveness of various program components. The hierarchical nature of the relationships which usually existed between administrators, counselors, teachers, non-professional staff and students underwent changes with shifts in activities or intentions. While teachers and counselors were superficially at the same

level in the hierarchy, counselors did enjoy some administrative powers which gave them authority to enlist teacher participation in activities such as pre-enrollment; recommend changes in teacher approaches to students; initiate changes in curriculum; assign students to classes; and remove students from classes for counseling activities. There were teachers who both resented and resisted that authority, feeling that their personal and professional autonomy were threatened. While counselors ordinarily enjoyed a great deal of autonomy, given the administrative structure of the institution, they did at times experience frustration resulting from administrative pre-emption of what counselors considered their prerogatives. While such occurrences were rare, they were no less powerful in upsetting counselor equanimity of spirit.

Fourth, the institutional structure, as manifested in programs, activities, and professional behavior, addressed itself to the well-being of the students the institution was designed to serve. The immediate response to student and parent concerns, the anticipation of student needs, and the willingness of counseling personnel to work with students, parents, administrators, teachers, and non-professional staff members to confront student and institutional concerns all attested to this attitude.

Recommendations for Further Research

Immediately recommending themselves for attention are components of the program evaluated in this study. SUTOE is a comprehensive, 18 week career exploration course that could be examined in much greater detail than was possible or expedient for this study. Only major class projects were touched on here, and those only by virtue of their near

association with post-high school planning. Introduction of additional course content would require further evaluation, to determine whether or not student needs were being met more adequately by the changes.

The present study was confined to a relatively isolated and, in some ways, rather mundane aspect of high school counseling. Intensive interviewing could well be applied to evaluation of other aspects of counseling: student use of counseling services presents itself as an obvious research topic, given the concern expressed by students about those who do not understand the purposes and functions of a counseling program. The quality of counseling for pregnant students, for peer conflicts, for student-teacher conflicts, and for academic concerns present themselves as research topics which might benefit from the approach employed in this study. As was noted in earlier chapters, a humanistic approach to the evaluation of counseling programs has been recommended frequently, but attempted infrequently. Such an approach might be applied to a variety of counseling evaluation problems, generating material of value in making decisions about the continuation or modification of counseling.

Another consideration for further research would be the extension of qualitative information collection to a truly ethnographic investigation of aspects of the counseling program. The relationships among counseling professionals and non-certificated staff who constitute the counseling personnel, for example, may be worth examining. It may be productive to select representative students to study in detail, tracing influences on their attitudes toward counseling through peer relationships, family relationships, school experience, and personal aspirations.

Because of the relatively infrequent application of humanistic approaches to counseling evaluation concerns, the possible research projects are virtually infinite.

Summary

Chapter one of this thesis was devoted to the identification of the problem: evaluation of the post-high school plans component of a high school counseling program. Subsidiary problems identified were the approach to be taken (humanistic) and the methods to be employed in implementing that approach (participant observation and intensive interviewing), which would provide access to subjective and interpersonal knowing. Evaluation was defined as being concerned essentially with three questions: (1) what is being done, (2) is it worth doing, and (3) how well is it being done. The limitations of the study were discussed, and a rationale for conducting the study was presented.

A history of the philosophical arguments between positivism and humanism was presented in chapter two, to illuminate the origins of the dominant objective approach to evaluation, and to demonstrate the need for an alternative approach. That the dominant approach is based on a view of reality and a view of science as opposed to the view of reality and science was suggested as the philosophical basis for justifying a humanistic approach.

Chapter three consists of a review of the literature associated with the need to evaluate counseling programs, evaluation studies, criticism of evaluation studies, and methodology. The review demonstrated a clear need to evaluate counseling programs in terms of their

effectiveness in meeting their stated purposes and disaffection with the quality of evaluation studies which have been produced. The evaluation studies reviewed showed a decided preponderance of evaluation concerned with the definition of behavioral objectives and criteria for determining the levels of successful achievement of those objectives. The concern that the objectives selected may not reflect the purposes of counseling was suggested. Approaches to evaluation using test-retest and comparative analysis models also appear in the literature, in far fewer numbers than do behavioral objectives or criterion based studies.

The criticism of counseling program evaluation studies was seen to be centered in an objection to studies of social institutions and human interaction which rely on methodology which may be more appropriate to the physical sciences. It was pointed out as well that a subsidiary concern has been that the findings of evaluation studies employing pure research or basic research methods bear little relationship to what actually goes on in the counseling process. Finally, recommendations for action research, for an ethnographic approach to research in counseling, and for studies conducted in the field where counseling takes place were seen to appear repeatedly in the literature. It was pointed out, however, that there is little evidence that these recommendations have been implemented.

The design of the study is presented in chapter four. The setting in which research was conducted was described, as were the post-high school planning activities which constitute the program component evaluated. Information collection and analysis procedures were discussed in some detail.

Chapter five was devoted entirely to a presentation of the information collected, including pertinent student comments. It is this information which was analysed for an evaluation of the program component being considered. The material revealed areas of student dissatisfaction with the program component, as well as program strengths and recommendations for program improvement. Observations of formal program events, including participants and procedures were included as well.

Chapter six presents an analysis of the material and evaluations of the program component activities. The analysis is concerned with the initiation, process and termination of events, and with the acts, activities, settings, participation, relationships, and meanings of events. The influences units of the structure of the program events have on the relative success of the events are suggested. Meanings are given considerable emphasis, being discussed from the points of view of participants who occupy various identifiable roles in the structure of the institution.

In chapter seven, conclusions regarding the procedures used in the study, the evaluation of the program, recommendations for further research, and this brief summary are presented. That the procedures used are effective in eliciting useful evaluation materials is demonstrated. Both participant observation and intensive interviewing are seen to provide access to meanings that would be unlikely to emerge in more objective approaches to evaluation. The program component is shown to have weaknesses that are the result of the relationships that exist in the institution, failure to define and clarify areas of responsibility, and the structure of the institution itself. It is suggested

that the relative infrequency with which evaluation procedures taking a humanistic approach have been employed renders the approach itself a rich field of research to be mined.

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APPENDIX

Interview Guide

Introduction

1. Explain purpose and nature of the study.
2. Assure anonymity and confidentiality.
3. Indicate that while some of the questions may seem trivial, absurd, or obvious, because what is appropriate to one person may not be for another, the concern is with the student's own opinions and experiences. Alert the student to the fact that there are both information and opinion questions to be asked.
4. Let the student know that he or she is free to interrupt, request clarification, criticize the line of questioning, or diverge at will.
5. Explain something about the interviewer's background and interest in the topic.
6. Ask permission to tape record the interview and explain the reasons for doing so.

Facesheet

1. Interviewee code number _____
2. Date of interview _____
3. Place of interview _____
4. Sex of interviewee _____
5. Age of interviewee _____
6. Interviewee's parents' occupations

Father _____

Mother _____

7. Post-high school plans

___ a. Military: Branch _____

___ b. Housewife

___ c. College or university

Institution _____

Area of major study _____

___ d. Employment _____

___ e. Apprenticeship _____

___ f. Other _____

___ g. Undecided _____

8. Transcript endorsement

___ a. Minimum graduation requirement

___ b. General education

___ c. Vocational _____

___ d. College preparatory

Questions

1. General reactions to contacts with counselors and to participation in the program

a. This year, have you seen a school counselor for anything other than a schedule change? (If so, what was the nature of the contact?)

b. Have you ever seen a school counselor for help in deciding what you want to do after you graduate from high school? (What was the result of the contact?)

- c. Have you ever seen a school counselor for help in planning a high school program which will prepare you to meet your occupational or career goals? (What happened?)

2. Post-high school plans

- a. What do you want to do after you graduate?
- b. What do you expect to do after you graduate?
- c. How did you decide what to do?
- d. What do your parents think about your plans?
- e. What do your friends think of what you want to do?
- f. Did anyone help you decide what to do after you graduate? (If so, who?)
- g. How well can you picture yourself doing what you've selected as an occupation?
- g. What do you see as your major obstacles to reaching your goal? (What will be difficult for you?)

3. SUTOE (Self-Understanding through Occupational Exploration)

- a. What was your reaction to the tests you took in SUTOE, the General Aptitude Test Battery and the Interest Check List (GATB/ICL)?
- b. What did you learn from GATB/ICL?
How useful is it to know that?
- c. How does the information you have from GATB/ICL fit what you know about yourself? (Were there any surprises for you?)
- d. Where have you gone for information about the career or occupation you've chosen to follow?
- e. How does your choice relate to your feelings about yourself?

(How do you feel about your choice of career or occupation?)

f. How do you feel about writing a letter of application for a job?

How do you feel about going for a job interview?

g. What do you think of apprenticeship programs?

h. How useful would you say SUTOE was for what you will do after high school? Can you explain that to me?

4. Senior credit check

a. Each semester a counselor does a credit check from your transcript.

Have you ever been called in for a credit check? (If so, how do you feel about that? If not, how do you feel about his doing a credit check on you?)

b. How are you coming along with your credits for graduation?

5. Transcript endorsement

a. How do you feel about the endorsement your transcript will have?

b. What does the endorsement you're earning have to do with what you want to do after high school?

c. How did you decide which endorsement program to follow?

d. Have your plans for an endorsement changed in the past four years? (If so, did you have time to complete the requirements for a different endorsement? What prompted the change?)

e. How does your endorsement relate to your ideas about your own skills and abilities?

6. Pre-enrollment

a. At the end of each school year we have pre-enrollment for the following year. How useful has pre-enrollment been for you?

b. Have you used the pre-enrollment materials to help make decisions

- about an occupation or career? (If so, how did you use them?)
- c. How do you feel about the high school program you've selected during pre-enrollment? How do your parents feel about it?
 - d. What do you think of the advising you've had from teachers or counselors during the first period planning sessions of pre-enrollment week?
 - e. Have you ever wanted to talk to a counselor about your pre-enrollment outside of pre-enrollment class time? (If so, were you able to? What was the result?)
 - f. How did you choose your electives? Do you feel you made the right choices for you?

7. Scholarship workshop and file

- a. Are you applying for scholarships to help with college costs?
- b. Where are you getting scholarship information?
- c. Did you participate in the scholarship workshop? (If not, what kept you from doing so?)
How useful has it been to you?
- d. Have you ever used the scholarship file?
How helpful do you find it?

8. College and university visitations

- a. What do you think about the state college and university representatives coming to visit students at school in the fall?
Did you participate?
Did you get answers for your questions?
Did you get to see the representatives you wanted to see?
- b. What do you think about private colleges and universities sending

representatives to school?

Did you meet any of the representatives?

Did you get answers to your questions?

- c. This year, we arranged for Douglas High School graduates who are now in college to meet with students in the library. How do you feel about their visits?

Did you participate?

- d. Did you visit the campus of the college of your choice?

How did the visit come about?

Was the visit useful to you?

9. Financial aids workshop

- a. Are you applying for financial aid for college? (If college bound and not applying, why not?)
- b. How useful was the financial aids workshop?
- c. Who have you talked to about financial aid?
- d. How do you feel about filling out the Financial Aid Form?

Have your parents any unanswered questions about the Financial Aid Form?

- e. Has adequate help and information been available to you and your parents? (If not, what do you need?)
- f. Did you know about the parents' night for financial aid information and assistance at the college? Did you or your parents attend?

10. SAT workshop

- a. What do you think about the information and materials you received on the Scholastic Aptitude Test?
- b. Do you need to take the SAT? (If so, do you understand what your

scores mean and how they relate to your application for admission to college?)

- c. How well do your SAT scores agree with your judgment of your own ability and preparation for college?
- d. Did you take the Pre-SAT/National Merit Scholar Qualifying Test?
(If so, did you find it useful? In what way?)

11. Military

- a. What do you think about military recruiters coming to the high schools to talk to students?
- b. Have you talked to any of the recruiters when they've been here?
(If so, how do you feel about the contact?)
- c. Have you ever considered training or a career in the military?
- d. Did you take the ASVAB (Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery) last year when the recruiters administered it here?
(If so, did you get your results? What do your results mean?)
- e. Are you aware of the education benefits, double matching funds and ROTC programs which the military offers to help with college costs? (If so, have you ever considered enrolling in one of the programs? If not, would you like to know more about them?)

12. Closing

- a. How do you feel about your preparation for following through with your plans for a career or education after you graduate?
- b. How useful do you think your four years of high school have been for getting ready for life after high school?
- c. Who would you go to first for help with college, career, or occupational plans?

d. We've talked about a number of activities that are intended to help you make decisions about what you'll do after graduation. Do you need any information that you haven't been able to get?

Can you think of anything we could have done to help you that we haven't done?

e. In the activities we've discussed, how do you feel about the way counselors have treated you?

f. Do you have any recommendations for things we could do or ways we could change the program to make it more useful for students?