This six-chapter monograph presents a model for student development which is designed to unify the diverse purposes of education. After Chapter I reviews recent criticism of education, it goes on to identify problems in the performance of our educational system and to propose that a student development perspective on education provides a framework for individualizing education. In addition to tracing the origins of student development, Chapter II delineates the student development education (SDE) model, which involves administrators, teachers, and counselors in a competency-based process of goal setting; assessment; use of change strategies in instruction, consultation, and milieu management; and evaluation. Chapter III provides theoretical support for this model in a review of the literature on developmental learning and moral, personal-social, physical, and individual development. Chapter IV discusses an attempt to implement the SDE model in the Police Science program at a two-year college and reviews the problems, challenges, and outcomes of this effort. Chapter V presents the results of a nationwide study of the current use of student development in colleges and universities. Chapter VI concludes with a summary of the problems and issues of evaluation. The monograph is appended by the questionnaire used in the student development survey, a history of the development of competencies for a Black History course, and a description of the SDE curriculum at El Centro College. (AIC)
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What Is Student Development?

By Donald Rippey, Chairman and Professor
Department of Educational Administration

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CHAPTER I

From its inception the United States has engendered an abundance of critics and supporters for the institutions that together make up what we call the American way of life. This is just as true today as it has been in the past. In fact, one might believe that the critics of American society have grown increasingly vocal in the past few years. Environmentalists tell us we are hell-bent on consuming or destroying as many natural resources as possible. Consumer advocates point out the immorality of marketing products with little concern for public safety or whether the products really serve a necessary function. Always prominent are the gadflies of government to remind us of the perils of "brinkmanship," of arming other nations throughout the world and the immorality of such things as the attempted burglary of a certain hotel in Washington, D.C. The current warfare between private industry and the government concerning the energy crisis makes one wonder if affixing blame is more important than solving the problem!

CRITICISM OF EDUCATION

Education has been no more immune from criticism than other institutions. One group of critics has proposed that American education is so bad that nothing can be done to improve the American educational system; that it is an anachronism that deserves only dismantling. Charles Reich's Greening of America holds that schools, as they now exist, cannot be a part of a truly humane society, since "school is intensely concerned with training students to stop thinking and start obeying." Reich adds that school has no prison bars or locked doors like an insane asylum, but the student is no more free to leave it than a prisoner is free to leave the penitentiary.

Joining Reich is Charles Silberman who, in Crisis in the Classroom, poignantly depicts schools as "grim, joyless places." Ivan Illich holds similar views in Deschooling Society. To Illich, "schools are designed on the assumption that there is a secret to everything in life; that the quality of life depends on knowing that secret, that secrets can be known only in orderly successions and that only teachers can properly reveal these secrets."

Another camp of critics takes the position that a significant part of the disenchantment of the American people with their education system stems not so much from the actual performance of the education system as from the confusion America has about the goals and purposes of its total society. Two major proponents of this viewpoint are Henry Commager and Max Lerner, both of whom feel that the nation is confused about many of its values and that often the schools become scapegoats to appease the mounting public frustration.

In The People and Their Schools, Commager proposes that in the turmoil of the current century, citizens are expecting educational institutions to alleviate societal problems, including an apparent loss of morality and an uncertain economy. Commager sums up his position by stating.
A society that is uprooted, divided, disillusioned and confused, and that has lost confidence in its own character, cannot expect to achieve unity through its schools. The very fact that we require our schools to do so much that society should do itself, is an indication that we do not know what our schools should do and that we are not prepared to do what we ourselves should do.5

In the monograph Values in Education, Lerner says, "before a frame for learning can be agreed on there must be a consensus on where, when, how, with whom, by whom, at whose cost, by what means and toward what goals the young will be educated." According to Lerner, society's failure to make even these basic decision places education in the most difficult situation.6

As Commager and Lerner indicate, society poses a myriad of expectations for education. One has only to ask associates, friends, or the man of the street: What do you expect America's schools to do to become aware of the variety of expectations? The answers will be nearly as varied as the persons asked; and after tabulating the results, we will likely get a bewildering, all encompassing, and often contradictory array of goals and purposes for American education. Given these results, it is not unusual that educators are often overheard struggling with decisions about which programs to eliminate and which to add. Regardless of their decisions, there will most likely be a sizeable amount of protest from various sources.

Even given this array and conflict of goals, Americans can be divided into two general groups—each with a distinctive, basic overall attitude toward education. A description of these groups will help to make clearer the reasons for dissatisfaction caused by the uncomfortable distance between what is American education and what ought to be.

PURPOSES OF EDUCATION

One major and articulate group in our society holds that education should be primarily devoted to the essentials, traditionally known as the liberal arts. Proponents of this position generally believe that education should teach students the knowledge and wisdom that has accumulated throughout the ages. This body of essential knowledge, the wisdom of the past, will assist the student in dealing with current experiences and is the best known preparation for dealing with future problems. Education's task is to provide the basic understanding of general knowledge. One significant aspect of this viewpoint, stated by many proponents, holds that education should not devote itself to vocational training. This should be the task of private industry. Since the world of work is changing so rapidly, one will simply learn the needed additional vocational tasks whenever necessary.

Counter to this stance is the attitude propounded by many Americans who are often classified as existentialists, pragmatists, or sometimes even realists. This group believes that the fundamental purpose of education is to assist the student to be happy, self-directive, and to attain a better life-style—that is, a job. The premise is
that the majority of educational experiences be offered cafeteria style, providing lots of choice and freedom, but including also vocational training that is specific enough to provide a saleable skill for each student who completes the program. Some of these supporters believe that education is the best hope of providing an opportunity for an individual to rise in the social order.

Though diverse in the aspects discussed above, the two groups merge to make a third basic demand for education. It should provide each student with an appreciation of his own nation and its heritage and teach him to meet the various obligations of citizenship. While there is consensus that education must teach good citizenry, there are divergent opinions as to whether or not education should devote itself primarily to presenting a body of essential knowledge or to more self-fulfilling tasks, including direct employment-related functions.

Even this limited and admittedly general description of the fundamental purposes of education provides evidence that, although disagreeing on some major issues, Americans hold a relatively common viewpoint of what they want education to accomplish. If educational goals can be worded in broad, nebulous, and grandiose fashion, as they have been in the past, a general consensus may be reached on the purposes of education for the American citizen. Perhaps educators have always been aware of the encompassing and often contradictory demands placed upon education and have purposefully been as nonspecific as possible when formulating educational goals and aspirations for Americans. The most recent of such goals for American higher education is found in the Carnegie Reports or in the Summary reference here. They state the following five purposes for higher education:

- The provision of opportunities for the intellectual, aesthetic, ethical, and skill development of individual students, and the provision of campus environments which can constructively assist students in their more general development.
- The advancement of human capability in society at large.
- The enlargement of educational justice for the postsecondary age group.
- The transmission and advancement of learning and wisdom.
- The critical evaluation of society—through individual thought and persuasion—for the sake of society’s self-renewal.

It is easy to see that the general elements previously discussed are inculcated in their exposition of what ought to be the purposes for American higher education. Most Americans would probably simply say “amen” to all of them.

As the demands for financing continue to grow and education continues to take an increasing percentage of the gross national product, there has been an accompanying demand for specific accountability. Outraged citizens and professional educators both have been taking a more detailed look at the various functions
of education. As doubts and questions become more specific, disagreements tend to
grow in an almost inverse proportion. Or, as specificity narrows, issue divergence
between positions widens. The schisms once so nicely covered by the generalities,
described as the goals of American education, have been laid bare as the different
groups prescribe their own remedies to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of
education.

PERFORMANCE OF OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Most citizens would agree, if for a variety of reasons, that the American
school system should provide a basic set of skills that can be used to facilitate future
learning. Belief in this concept is illustrated by widespread disillusionment follow-
ing publication of the study on functional illiteracy completed by the University of
Texas for the United States Office of Education in 1976. Numerous lawsuits have
been filed on behalf of high school graduates who completed the educational system
without acquiring these basic skills. The groups believing in different purposes for
education illustrated their diversity by the contrasting remedies they have proposed:
stricter discipline versus less restriction of creativity; back to the basics versus
an enlarged, enlightened curriculum; leaving family matters to the parents versus
letting schools fill voids left by inadequate families. The arguments continue ad
infinitum, and American education seems lost in the confusion of attempting to
please the strident voices of various taxpayer groups. Upon discovering that,
according to the University of Texas study, 20 percent of the students negotiating
our educational system fail to achieve basic competency levels, the educator
obviously is faced with a complex milieu of social problems that must also be solved
if the school situation is to be improved. Certainly some of the elements involved
include socioeconomic levels, family breakdown, school climate, teacher compe-
tency, and the availability of jobs. Virtually all studies show that the issues are
complex and multi-faceted, supporting Oscar Wilde’s belief that truth is rarely
simple and never pure.

Certainly educators have been familiar with the problem outlined here.
Traditionally, the most common way of dealing with it has been for woebegone
administrators to cry that given ample financing, these problems could be solved
and our significant educational ills would vanish. This argument worked quite well,
not in solving the problem but in providing an almost unassailable explanation for
the problem, until the advent of the Johnson administration. During this time
(1964-1972), educational projects were funded at a rate unprecedented in the history
of American education. If educators were the least bit energetic and creative they
could get funding for nearly any project that promised the slightest chance of
improving the educational process. While it would certainly be unfair to label most
of this experimentation a failure, even the most optimistic studies do not indicate
any great watershed or panaceas in our advancement of education, especially in
improving the success of students from those segments of our population that historically have high failure rates in negotiating the educational establishment.

With rapidly increasing costs and little evidence of increasing effectiveness, a rather large block of the public is calling for accountability. Why, they asked, do we not get better performance when we spend more money? In typical and not unreasonable American fashion, citizens believe they are paying for a Cadillac and thereby expect better performance from the Chevrolet that they seem to be driving. Their unhappiness is compounded as each taxpayer learns of the increasing paycheck deductions going for education. The calls for accountability are becoming more insistent.

These events set the stage for the accountability trend and for techniques such as planned program budgeting, zero-base budgeting, performance contracting, criteria referenced evaluation, and other ways of looking at outputs rather than at processes. No longer able to hide behind claims of inadequate financing, educators began to look for ways of delivering educational services that were more cost effective and efficient. Scores of techniques, such as open classrooms (sometimes called classrooms without walls) and individualized and computer-assisted instruction were attempted. Efforts were made to diversify labor by adding teaching assistants and interns, even students were engaged to work as peer counselors and tutors. Audio-visual aids were introduced to stimulate and improve class presentations. Tapes, slides, and other materials were made available to individual students at times of their own choosing. Open entry, open exit and individualized instruction were added to the repertoire of the educator. Learning resource centers replaced libraries, research and staff development offices appeared, and personnel offices were added to keep up with the diversity of job positions.

Have all of these changes been accompanied by significant improvement in the holding power of our schools and in the ability level of students who have completed their years of schooling? Have improved results come from local, state, and federal boards and from administrative requirements designed to improve the accountability level? The sparse evidence available is disheartening. The dropout rates have stayed about the same: in fact, Maudal, Butcher, and Mauger concluded after completing a major attrition study, that attrition rates for colleges have remained at approximately 50 percent for fifty years.8 There have been no studies indicating significant increases in student competencies on national achievement test scores, which should be more accurate indices of quality education than buildings, equipment, or degrees held by the faculty.

ARE THERE NO REMEDIES?

Education is a very complex social phenomenon by no means limited to the school building or to time spent within the school environment. It is a very broad, complex set of circumstances that surround the individual perhaps even before birth.
and certainly until death. Education includes one's entire environment, with the school being only a portion of that. When the critics compare American education with what it ought to be, there is no doubt that it is not as good as any of us would like it to be. On the other hand, compared with other educational systems throughout the world, it is quite clear that no other system has been as ambitious or has undertaken to do the kind of job that American education has been willing to attempt. This book, rather than being one more critical look at American education and pointing out the various elements and aspects that are wrong, is an attempt to answer the question: How can we improve American education and make it more closely resemble what most American citizens believe it ought to be. It seems clear that the quality of education is not going to be much improved by simply altering the strategies or techniques of instruction. Therefore, we need to look in other directions for solutions to the dilemmas facing education. This book offers such a look, one designed to confront and resolve a significant portion of the problems sketched briefly in this chapter. In doing so, it will provide a philosophic, psychological and operational model of an educational system that can be more effective and efficient in reducing the uncomfortable distance between what is and what ought to be.

This model is in many respects not so much a new plan or model as it is the tying together of a good many pieces, many of which are currently operating and in place. Similarly, it does not propose to achieve perfection nor to be a panacea for the incalculable problems facing education. As noted previously, education is an integral part of an imperfect environment; therefore, it can never achieve perfection. Until education can be addressed along with other societal needs in such a way that social problems can be seen holistically, and an agent or some coalition of agents can be found to deal with the problems in that fashion, it will be impossible for any one institution in our society to approach perfection, much less achieve it.

The model developed in the following pages is designed to weld some of the pieces of education, certainly a divided institution, into a more successful whole. These divisions are not the result of a grand scheme calculated to subvert the purposes of education. They are more the result of powerful societal forces tugging in several directions at the basic reasons for the existence of education—the development of human beings. These forces pose different answers to the basic questions of education. What shall they be like, these products of education? Shall they be more like society and thus better able to serve it? Or shall they be staunchly individualistic, acting on their own concepts and possibly attempting to reform society? Shall the products be a combination of these positions? After all, what is a well-developed human being? Both the questions and answers remain controversial. Much of the division within education has occurred because of the contrast between the increasingly specific curricularization of knowledge and the increasingly expanding spectrum of information necessary for a citizen to cope with life. Basically, the mushrooming amount of knowledge has required that knowledge be divided into a myriad of subject areas. Since everyone cannot learn everything, the argument has
been to let each person make choices from different areas of education. However necessary this process may be, the individual often develops in pieces, since he is rarely taught to see things holistically. He may learn mathematics at one time, art appreciation at another, and physical education at the third, but there are few opportunities for a student to understand how each of these subjects is related to his general human development.

This piece-meal development might suffice if the student could remain in school forever. Problems arise because the student must live in a society that demands the combination of various areas of knowledge and social development. The human being must be a complete person, knowledgeable in many areas, able to live with others, and able to see the virtues of individual and societal goals. Too often our students are unable to meet these demands, and diverse human problems result.

Education has been torn apart, divided into areas of increasing specificity. We must carefully stitch it together, taking care not to ignore any of its important parts. This book proposes that a student development concept of education be utilized to achieve this reunification. This concept is an attempt to weave the basic fabric of education together again, not into a grand pattern with a single design but into a tapestry with kaleidoscopic possibilities of design. Student development education enables educators to make students more fully aware of the varied skills and development they need to function as viable, successful participants in modern society. Students can become more aware of the grand design for themselves, and in doing so they can more clearly see how each part fits into that design. I previously stated this is not a new position in American education. There has never been a development of the goals or missions for American education that has not spoken of the need for a holistic development or the need for social and personality development, as well as basic skills and occupational development. Unfortunately, however, there has never been a system devised to make this goal achievable. We have continued to use our old fragmented and separated system of bringing instruction to our students, hoping that in some magical way they would pull the various pieces together. Indeed many of our students are able to do this and do it well. Unfortunately, according to recent studies, nearly 20 percent of our students finishing the twelfth grade have not learned basic coping skills and are functional illiterates. Of those continuing, we find an increasing number of students completing two-year, four-year, and even advanced degrees who have not yet achieved a marketable skill.

The student development model is a model that can be used at any grade level and, if used properly and adequately supported, should prevent these kinds of anomalies from happening within the educational system. The only significant difference in the student development model, stemming from the grade level in which the work is implemented, are the types of questions that need answers. For example, if it were implemented at the elementary school level, one question might be: What is a well-developed first grade student? This question, however, would be
answered by the school and parents with some type of norms established and with more prescription for students than might be expected at a higher grade level. In the junior high school, for example, the answer to what is a well-developed ninth grader will provide for more individual variation and student input; this will be increasingly true through the collegiate level, when occupational and professional programs are chosen by students according to their interests and their own growing understanding of themselves. How much freedom a student at a given grade level has in defining his or her own development would be subject to the same controls that are in the traditional system; namely, inputs from parents, primarily through direct influence with the principal and teachers, but also indirectly through the school board and the administration.

There is no reason to suppose that the student development model will require any radical overhaul of the educational machinery. It will, however, change the functions of the education machinery, the details of which are discussed in Chapter II. Likewise, the student development model permits the use of any type of instructional strategy. It is just as pertinent whether one is using a traditional lecture-textbook method of education or whether one has chosen to use a systems approach with careful delineation of objectives and evaluation. It is my bias, however, that if one is to evaluate properly the use of any instructional method, the need for a systems approach, evaluation, and learning for mastery are necessary components. This bias, however, is no reason for a school system to decide not to use a student development model, for it can be defined in any way a district chooses to define it.

Perhaps one of the best things about the student development model is that it permits the use of an instructional system that includes accountability measures, individualization, and mastery learning. It does this in a framework that is humane and pays attention to the affective areas of development at the same time that the cognitive and psychomotor areas are also being developed. Likewise, it provides a fine vehicle to individualize instruction in that each student’s development is looked upon as a unique plan. It is the antithesis of prescriptive norms for everyone. Furthermore, the student development model speaks directly to the criticism of many of the current critics of American education who believe our system to be a nameless, faceless, mechanistic system that deals not with individuals but with gross numbers of students. In the student development model, where each student is treated as an individual to determine his or her own special developmental needs, this type of gross handling of students would be altered. Teachers in conventional classrooms with scheduled classes can use the student development model, and the definitions of a well-developed student can be individually tailored for each student. If nongraded classrooms or open classrooms are used, the student development model can be utilized equally as well. Another real benefit, it seems to me, is that it raises the key questions about education early enough so that even with a future that seems as uncertain and unchangeable as ours, we can alter our definition of goals,
outcomes, and objectives for the system in time to assist students who are currently in the system. The student development model makes this very easy, since the definition for each individual student can be altered at each grade level along the way with major review and alterations when the school authorities deem appropriate. For example, without changing the traditional calendar, the review might come at the end of a given grade, or at the end of a semester; at the end of elementary school, primary grades, middle school, junior high school, high school, two-year college, baccalaureate, master or Ph.D. level.

The model can also be continued into lifelong learning, since its advantage is to provide the student with checkpoints and opportunities to redefine his or her objectives for becoming a well-developed human being throughout life. Certainly lifelong learning would fit this scheme well and would prolong the opportunity a person has to achieve the higher levels of personal growth and development. Finally, the chief advantage of the student development model is that it focuses education where it properly belongs. Accountability is not the proper focus of education, nor is using 16 millimeter films, or offering a course in sex education, or fielding a football team equipped with a marching band and a precision drill team. The proper focus for education is on developing and assisting human beings to become the best that they are capable of becoming. Carl Rogers stated this beautifully when he said:

> There is in every organism, at whatever level, an underlying flow of movement toward constructive fulfillment of its inherent possibilities. There is a natural tendency toward complete development in man. The term that has most often been used for this is the actualizing tendency, and it is present in all living organisms.\(^\text{10}\)

The student development model is a system that if properly used and supported has the potential to do just this. Far too long education has been considered an end. It isn't. The end is a well-developed human being. Educational institutions are only one of several means to that end. Developing students should have something in common with developing people for as Noel McInnis told us, "students are a lot like people."\(^{11}\) Unfortunately, our current educational systems are too often designed for administrators, the state, parents, the board, or the faculty, but rarely for students. The model presented in the succeeding chapters can enable a school to focus its efforts on the development of every student and do so without any major changes in its structure, budget, or accountability.

**ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK**

Chapter II delineates and describes the model. Chapter III provides the psychological and philosophical support for such a model. Chapter IV discusses an actual attempt to implement the student development model in the Police Science Program of one two-year college and provides the reader with the pitfalls, problems.
challenges and some success of this first attempt. Chapter V includes the results of the only nation-wide study which describes the current use of the student development model in colleges and universities throughout the United States, including some evaluation designs that can provide the reader with a system of evaluating any attempts to install the student development model. The problems and issues of evaluation along with a summary and some concluding remarks make up Chapter VI, the final chapter.
CHAPTER II

ORIGINS OF STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

It is predictable that the professional organization whose major task is to be concerned about students is the organization that conceived and first used the term "student development." In 1968, The American College Personnel Association (ACPA) planned "a response to the rapid and extensive changes expected in higher education in the years ahead." The project was named Tomorrow's Higher Education (THE), and Phase One resulted in a monograph entitled Student Development in Tomorrow's Higher Education: A Return to the Academy. This monograph defines the nature of learning and identifies the fundamental goals and premises of higher education. It is from the higher education point of view and put together by professionals in the area of student personnel services. Phase One defined the rationale and Phase Two addressed itself to building a model that would be operational for student affairs services within higher education. This model was described in a monograph by Ted Miller and Judith Prince, The Future of Student Affairs (1976).

Miller makes it clear from the outset that the concept of student development is certainly not a totally new idea. He indicates that in 1938 and again in 1949 the American Council on Education articulated four basic assumptions that formulated the current concepts of student development. These include: (1) that all facets of the individual student, rather than a single attribute such as intellect, must be considered; (2) that each student is recognized as unique with unique needs and must be treated as an individual; (3) that the total environment of the student is educational and must be utilized to teach the fullest development; and (4) that the major responsibility for a student's personal, social development rests with the student and his or her personal resources.

Furthermore, there is valid evidence that such a holistic concept existed prior to 1937. The seven cardinal principles of education first articulated in 1918 state the importance of developing areas of education beyond subject competency. These principles included:

1. Command of fundamental processes
2. Worthy home membership
3. Vocational efficiency
4. Citizenship
5. Worthy use of leisure
6. Ethical character
7. Health

Education, even that long ago, was understood as a whole rather than as a series of parts. These concepts combined with those of Miller's outlined above illustrate the foundations of the student development concept.
This, then, tells us that American educators have included the major elements of student development in the definition of the fundamental purposes of education. In this sense student development is not that new, and no one should quarrel with the actual title "student development"; in fact, all of education is about the task of attempting to help students develop. Unfortunately, this major goal is often lost in the many confusing and convoluted paths that lead toward developing a student, especially given the emphasis on academic content or disciplines. This has been especially true in higher education where it is quite common to think of developing mathematicians, developing engineers, developing historians, rather than developing human beings or developing students.

This massive emphasis on content or discipline comes in the face of mounting evidence that mastery of content is not the key factor in the success of human beings, nor even for success within an occupation or vocation. Illustrative of this fact is the research that has been done on learning curves. It is obvious that much of the content, no matter how painstakingly or carefully mastered, is lost very rapidly over the first few days following memorization and can only be retained over the succeeding months if it is renewed, used, or relearned. Moreover, there continues to be a large body of evidence from business and industry indicating that workers who fail to perform satisfactorily are either released from the job or continue to perform poorly on the job, not as a result of failure to grasp, retain, or understand content, or perform psychomotor skills, but rather, because they cannot get along with their co-workers, the persons they supervise, or the persons who supervise them. This evidence tells us rather clearly that a more valuable component in terms of job success is human relationship skills. This is not to say that one can perform in skill areas without mastering the skills or learning the material required for the performance of assigned tasks. It is to say, however, that paying exclusive attention to the content or skill required for the task is simply insufficient.

It is unfortunate that most educators continue to uphold this anachronistic tradition. Since the educational establishment has been organized to provide this body of content-knowledge based upon academic disciplines, persons who successfully negotiate the system end up understanding and supporting this process. They have little or no training that deals with areas other than their own discipline; therefore, if they become teachers in the educational establishment, they place their attention on the same skills they were taught virtually in the same manner the skills were presented. We have created a system that ignores nearly all elements of learning except the mastery of content. This was done knowing that there are other elements about a human being of equal importance, even in the successful practice of skills and utilization of content mastered within the discipline. This illustrates why it is logical that the conceptual thrust for student development and the creation of a student development model of learning came from those persons who had the training to understand the strategies and possibilities of elements of learning beyond...
content and discipline, i.e., those affective areas that include total environment assessment and change strategy, or more simply put, concern with the whole personality.

The debt to the THE project of the ACPA is hereby acknowledged, and in general the basic elements of the plan presented in this chapter coincide with those proposed by the THE model. The alterations are those that experience indicated were needed to move theory to practice, and a heavier emphasis has been placed on the relationship of student development to the instructional phase.

One outcome of the work done by the ACPA has been the widespread changing of terminology for counseling centers and classes dealing with affective elements of study. For instance, the term "student development" has been placed before divisions, courses, or whole areas of the college that formerly used the title Student Personnel Services. The model propounded in this book is of much broader scope than this, although it certainly includes these elements. I have avoided coining new terminology since it tends to add an element of pseudo-reality. I have chosen instead to use the existing term, "student development education," but the use of the term in building the model described within this book is not identical with the original THE model use. In this book the use of the term will indicate a model for a school where all of the educational resources are marshalled in order to systematize experiences to produce predictable results in learners. These resources may be organized in innumerable ways; the argument here is simply that they ought to be organized for student development. The human resources, the physical resources, the fiscal resources all should be so structured so that student development is a predictable result of the college experience.

**THE MODEL**

Student development education (SDE) possesses several explicit characteristics. The concept focuses on outcomes in students, relies on Gestaltist educational philosophy, depends on developmental learning theory, demands integrated learning strategies involving all available resources of the college, prescribes educational functions for all professional employees, and requires continuous collaboration among all persons involved in helping students to reach their goals.

In other words, student development education can be seen as a process of professional activities designed to promote learning. Chart I shows a linear process.
CHART I
STUDENT DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Goal Setting

Assessment

Use of Change Strategies
  - Instruction
  - Consultation
  - Milieu Management

Evaluation
of activities or competencies appropriate for all professional roles in education which, when applied to specific learning or management activities, characterize a systematic process leading to the achievement of predictable results.

Many readers will recognize this chart as what is often called a system of education. In the most basic sense this is precisely what student development is, a system or process which leads to student development. In order to make the model clear, the terminology of student development merits definition and discussion. Definitions follow immediately. Then they will be discussed to illustrate how the competencies relate to the developmental needs of students.

**Goal setting** is a collaborative process between learner, professional, and other resource persons to determine clearly and accurately what is to be learned or achieved. Collaboration should be underscored. Without collaboration, goal setting is perfunctory, ritualistic, and, worst of all, it may be counterproductive to student development.

**Assessment** refers to the process of determining where a learner already is in relation to his goals so that he may start at that point instead of a less appropriate point. Assessment may be a complicated process, and it certainly is a professional act requiring specialized knowledge. For our purposes here, it is most important to understand that assessment procedures may involve a myriad of activities ranging from observation to mathematical analysis, depending on the goals to be achieved.

**USE OF CHANGE STRATEGIES**

The use of change strategies refers to the options available to professionals to bring about development in others. The professional may instruct, consult, or manage the milieu of the learner. Each strategy potentially facilitates certain developmental dimensions of students. A definition of each strategy and a reference to the developmental strength of each strategy follows:

**Instruction.** Instruction is a strategy appropriate in dealing with the knowledge or skill differential between teacher and learner. The vast majority of all educational institutions are organized around bodies of knowledge or disciplines known to be needed in our society. Persons with greater knowledge or skill in these disciplines are employed to teach those with lesser knowledge or skill. Development occurs in the learner by the acquisition of knowledge or skill.

**Consultation.** Consultation is a strategy in which the basis for action is a need in another person (or group or organization) who believes that this need will be better met if intervention from a person with expertise in behavior change occurs. A person may seek consultation because he wants advice, modeling, counseling, technology, information, or support from someone with another perspective. Development occurs in the learner as a result of consultation inputs moving him toward a self-determined goal.
Milieu Management. Milieu management is a strategy which marshals all available resources to shape environments in ways which will facilitate desired change. Skillful use of this strategy depends upon a solid understanding of campus ecology, management theory, social systems, and the behavioral sciences. Development is facilitated as a result of the total milieu being structured toward common goals. Development occurs in the learner when milieu resources are used as instructions to reach self-determined goals.

Evaluation. Evaluation refers to a process of determining whether the original goals were met. Further goal-setting activity usually is indicated following the evaluation process whether the original goals were met or not. If they were met, new goals are indicated. If they were not met, revised goals should be set.

What is most important in the student development process is that it defines the work of teachers, counselors, and administrators alike! If our work is seen from the student development point of view, it is no longer necessary to see ourselves as performing a unique function for students. All of us are doing precisely the same thing, at least in terms of our goals, assisting students with their development. The SDE concept does specify certain process roles for administrators, faculty, and counselors. A discussion of these roles make up the next section of this chapter. It is vital to note, however, that emphasis should remain on their similarities, even when we examine their special characteristics.

NEW PROFESSIONAL ROLES

All developmental needs of students can be classified into one or more of three categories:

1. The development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes
2. The development of self-determination
3. The development of an ability to control one’s environment.

These categories of developmental needs of students are shown above as a taxonomy of needs. It should be emphasized that each vector of the taxonomy may best be accomplished by a particular professional competency normally practiced by a specialized professional person. For example, teachers are usually most skillful in the use of instruction as a change strategy, which in turn is a strategy best suited to the development of knowledge, skill, and attitudes in students. Counselors typically are viewed as possessing particular skills in consultative strategies with students, which usually promotes self-determination as a developmental need of students. Finally, administrators normally use milieu management competencies most often in their work, which is a strategy especially suited for the developmental need of students to learn to use their own environment to their advantage. Thus, each traditional role in college can be characterized in terms of the student development competency most often needed to conduct the work associated with that role and in
terms of the most likely outcome in student behavior. However, the question remains. Is this the best way to organize for student development? Probably not.

The SDE approach requires the use of all change strategies by all professional groups working in concert to meet all developmental needs of students. While the emphasis may remain different, an administrator must become skillful in the use of instruction and consultation as well as in milieu management; instructors must become competent in the use of consultation and milieu management as well as instruction, and counselors must learn to use instruction and milieu management as skillfully as they use consultation. This requirement will alter the traditional roles of teachers, counselors and administrators. In a sense, each must become more like the other. Ultimately, these “traditional” roles may blur or blend or perhaps disappear. In the meantime, the roles do exist, and they need to be redefined in terms of their particular responsibilities in student development education.

In order to understand the particular roles of administration, teaching, and counseling, it is necessary to examine what behaviors in students are to be sought. This examination can best be undertaken by asking the question What should a well-developed student be able to do?

One of the advantages of the student development model is that the definition of what a well-developed student is able to do can be tailored to the group that is doing the planning. In other words, each school system, school, grade, or class may have particular needs that are dictated by their unique clientele. It would seem imperative, however, that in order to bring all the resources of a given school to bear upon developing students, there would need to be a definition that is generally accepted by all the persons engaged in the process of education. One such definition was developed by a team of professionals and students at El Centro College in Dallas, Texas, by answering the question: What should a well-developed student be able to do? According to the El Centro definition, a well-developed student can

Locate, use, and enjoy knowledge, facts, and skills, AND

a. has acquired a saleable skill and/or is prepared to succeed in further academic study,
b. has organized knowledge into a satisfying value system compatible with society’s values,
c. values fellow human beings and relates politics to social justice,
d. has expanded his or her ability to discriminate between beauty and ugliness,
e. has acquired skills appropriate to the maintenance of good physical and mental health,
f. has acquired communication skills adequate for the maintenance of his or her own lifestyle, employment needs, and further study.
A well-developed student can

Understand himself or herself and this world well enough to plan his or her own life and to make realistic life decisions.

AND

a. views himself or herself with honesty and realism; his or her personal view is generally congruent with others,
b. realistically understands local, state, national, and international forces that affect his or her own life,
c. identifies and chooses life options in terms of their value, chances for achievement, and importance for self.

A well-developed student can

Make effective use of the environment to assist in achieving his or her own goals.

AND

a. is able to identify and use the portions of his or her environment that are subject to personal influence,
b. has sufficient confidence and skills necessary to cope positively with his or her own life situations,
c. understands and can use the social and political systems to individual advantage and to the advantage of others,
d. understands the effect of personal acts on society and accepts the consequences of personal acts.

This statement outlines the major categories of developmental needs of students. What then is the job of each professional employee to help students to meet these needs?

THE PROFESSIONAL ROLES IN STUDENT DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

The respective responsibilities of administrators, instructors, and counselors in this model are shown on the following pages in Charts II, III, and IV.

Each of the professional roles described in the Developmental Vector No. 1 Chart probably is best carried out using instruction as the primary method of change; the roles described in the Developmental Vector No. 2 Chart likewise are best suited to a consultation strategy; and the roles in the Developmental Vector No. 3 Chart lend themselves to the use of milieu management techniques. Naturally, a well-designed learning activity addresses the needs of each vector and utilizes each change strategy to achieve the best results.
### Chart II

**Developmental Vector No. 1**

**Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes**

**Student Outcome/Competency:** A well-developed student can locate, use, and enjoy knowledge, facts, and skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Needs of Students</th>
<th>Professional Action for Administrators</th>
<th>Professional Action for Instructors</th>
<th>Professional Action for Counselors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Has acquired a saleable skill and/or is prepared to succeed in further academic study</strong></td>
<td>1a Establish, maintain, and evaluate all classes and programs with criterion of skill/knowledge acquisition and success in future work</td>
<td>1b Organize course objectives so that successful mastery will provide each student the confidence and knowledge to master successfully succeeding courses</td>
<td>1c Assist instructors and students in choosing and in accomplishing a program to acquire a saleable skill and/or preparation for further academic study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Has organized knowledge into a satisfying value system consistent with society’s values</strong></td>
<td>2a Create an atmosphere to expose students to a variety of life styles</td>
<td>2b Teach so that students may practice analysis and conceptualization of knowledge</td>
<td>2c Provide opportunities for students to organize their values into a complete system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Appreciates fellow human beings and relates politics to social justice</strong></td>
<td>3a Create, maintain, and evaluate the college climate to insure social justice. Uses college politics to advance college goals'</td>
<td>3b Create a classroom environment that permits and encourages social interaction designed to maximize the worth and contributions of each individual</td>
<td>3c Act as a resource for administration and faculty in devising and in accomplishing strategies to increase caring about others both individually and collectively</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### CHART II
(Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Needs of Students</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Has expanded ability to discriminate between beauty and ugliness</strong></td>
<td><strong>Administrators</strong></td>
<td><strong>Instructors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create an atmosphere of beauty; expose students to generally accepted examples of beauty in many areas</td>
<td>4b Teach so that students may see and may understand the beauty inherent in organized knowledge, in the immediate environment, and in people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>5 Has acquired skills appropriate to the maintenance of good physical and mental health</strong></td>
<td><strong>5a</strong> Provide specific learning opportunities for development of physical skills and mental health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>6 Has acquired communication skills adequate for the maintenance of own life style employment needs, and further study</strong></td>
<td><strong>6a</strong> Insure that all learning activities promote open, honest communication among the college community</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHART III
DEVELOPMENTAL VECTOR NO. 2
SELF DETERMINATION

STUDENT OUTCOME/COMPETENCY: A well-developed student can understand self and this world well enough to plan own life and to make realistic life decisions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Needs of Students</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Views self with honesty and realism; generally congruent with how others view self</td>
<td>7a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Realistically understands local, state, national and international forces affect own life and acts on it</td>
<td>8a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental Needs of Students</td>
<td>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Can identify and choose life options in terms of their value, chances for achievement, and importance for self</td>
<td>Administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide information concerning life options, assist students in their choices, in their assessment of these choices, and in revising their choices when indicated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHART IV
DEVELOPMENTAL VECTOR NO. 3
USE OF ENVIRONMENT

STUDENT OUTCOME/COMPETENCY: A well-developed student can make effective use of environment to assist in achieving own goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Needs of Students</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR Administrators</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR Instructors</th>
<th>PROFESSIONAL ACTION FOR Counselors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. Can identify and use the portions of his environment that are subject to personal influence</td>
<td>10a Structure the college to enable students to know, use, modify the college environment</td>
<td>10b Teach so that knowledge is related to living and illustrate how it enables man to control his environment</td>
<td>10c Provide examples and data illustrating the various techniques and strategies of producing change in others and/or persuading others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Has sufficient confidence and skills necessary to cope positively with own life situation</td>
<td>11a Promote opportunities in every class and in many other activities to enable students to practice coping skills and to gain social confidence</td>
<td>11b Provide opportunities in all classes for students to practice skills demanded of effective persons with a high level of self-confidence</td>
<td>11c Be the strongest institutional resource for confidence building and for teaching the techniques of coping with stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental Needs of Students</td>
<td>Professional Action for Administrators</td>
<td>Professional Action for Instructors</td>
<td>Professional Action for Counselors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Understands and can use the social and political systems to individual advantage of others</td>
<td>12a Insure that courses, activities and programs include facts, experiences, and safe opportunities to learn about and to practice political and social change strategies</td>
<td>12b Provide class activities of supervised practice in the use of social and political systems</td>
<td>12c Provide out-of-class experiences in the use of social and political systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Understands the effect of personal acts on society and accepts the consequences of personal acts</td>
<td>13a Structure all activities to insure that responsibility and consequences are integral with opportunity and power</td>
<td>13b Structure course objectives and classroom environment to illustrate the social impact of personal choices</td>
<td>13c Work with faculty, administration, and students to assist them in understanding the social consequences of personal choices and to create a college environment where these consequences can be illustrated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What Is Different in Student Development Education for Me? One probable implication for all professionals is that they may find it necessary to re-think, to re-negotiate, and to re-write their specific task objectives. It will be necessary for all professionals to show specifically how they intend to help students achieve their goals in all developmental vectors. The material in the previous charts indicates generally what is expected of each role for each vector. What an individual professional will do specifically must be prepared in concert with others, so that learning activities will be planned to cause learning at all levels of developmental need.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

Probably most teachers feel reasonably comfortable with the job they are doing under the circumstances presented to them; thus, two important questions are, Why should I want to change what I am doing now? By what criteria will I know if I am becoming more developmental in my approach to teaching?

Why change? Most colleges are committed to helping students become more competent, more self-directed, and more “in command” of their worlds. Unfortunately, a total college effort is rarely made in these areas, with the result that most classes over-emphasize some needs and totally ignore others. Many professionals may need to change in order to increase the odds of helping students to become fully developed. All professionals must assume greater responsibility for helping students achieve goals in every area of developmental need. An attitude that “I-do-my-part-let others-do-theirs” is inadequate to achieve student development goals.

How will I know if I am teaching developmentally? This question may be seen as a very complicated and very sophisticated problem, but its answer is relatively simple. The student development education process described earlier suggests three simple checks which indicate steps taken in the right direction:

1. Course and/or program objectives are determined by a team of professionals, not individually written by a subject matter expert.

2. Each class is managed so that the teaching/learning process is a logical sequence of events for every student including: (1) assistance to every student to set his or her own goals for the class, (2) a determination of how many of these goals have already been achieved and how many remain to be accomplished, (3) utilization of all approaches for changing student behavior (instruction, consultation, and milieu management), and (4) the measurement of progress toward the achievement of student goals periodically during the class.

3. Each class is taught using every available resource of the college, including the students themselves, to help students achieve their goals.
These criteria are indicators—not conclusive—of developmental-oriented teaching.

As previously stated, student development education will not necessarily change the organizational unit, whether it be an elementary school, community college or university. It is clear from the discussion of the previous tasks, however, that roles as traditionally practiced by the staff within the school unit are going to have to be altered. What are these implications for changing the roles of the professional groups that now make up the staffs of our various educational units? The next section will deal with these role changes.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION**

Administrators must become educators. They must come to see their roles as having certain primary responsibilities to student development. Two obvious barriers to becoming more developmentally oriented exist for administrators, and both must be overcome by generating new behaviors in administrators more appropriate to helping students achieve their goals. These new behaviors must be created in the general areas outlined below:

1. Administrators traditionally view their work as a service to others, not as an educative process in itself. Much of the work of administration is maintenance and is a service to others, but this part of administration must never become 100 percent of the role.

2. The legacy of a status-based bureaucracy is counterproductive to student development. The I-am-better-than-you-because-of-my-title syndrome must be replaced with egalitarian attitudes reflecting equal status for all persons involved in the student development process.

The student development education concept suggests that administrators must view their work in much the same way as teachers view their work—i.e., their work should be collaboratively planned. Like teaching, administration should be planned and conducted systematically—not regarding old work or reacting but reaching out for timely objectives. Furthermore, it should always follow the student development process as outlined earlier.

What overt behaviors of administrators would indicate developmental orientation? Without diminishing the importance of attitude change, this list deals with behaviors which can be witnessed by others:

1. Anticipates necessary work,
2. Conducts preventive acts,
3. Conducts many face-to-face activities with associates,
4. Models behavior expected in others.
5. Works on problems existing in other administrative areas.
6. Practices improving verbal communication skills.
8. Reinforces effective professional behavior in others.
9. Structures frequent staff development activities for others.
10. Serves as a member of teams developing objectives and strategies.

As in the case with teachers and counselors, administrators must be in the process of constantly developing themselves. Their growth experiences will suggest directions for leadership for others.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING**

One major problem for counselors in implementing student development is that counselors typically have short-term contacts with a small number of students and with an even smaller number of teaching faculty. A major implication of the SDE concept for counselors is that they must structure their work so as to have impact on larger populations. A one-to-one approach is quite effective for some learning problems, but not for many of them. The most urgent learning problems lie in pervasive issues like grading, attrition, reading levels, and self-confidence factors. These issues must be attacked with powerful weapons designed to help large numbers of students to achieve their goals more effectively.

A comparison of a typical consultation strategy versus a typical developmental strategy may show the direction for change for many counseling responsibilities:

**Consultation Strategy**

1. Client informs professional of needs and/or problem
2. Professional assists client to clarify goals and/or set new ones
3. Professional assesses current client condition relative to goals
4. Professional utilizes eclectic approach to help client achieve goals
5. Professional and client determine degree of success in reaching goals

**Developmental Strategy**

1. Professional engages in proactive/preventive activities
   — assesses conditions of learning environment
   — identifies common barriers to learning
   — plans systematic approaches to reduce barriers;
2. Professional collaborates with all significant components of the learning environment to marshal resources to deal with barriers;
3. Professional utilizes instruction, consultation, and milieu management to deal with the learning environment as a gestalt.
Stated another way, developmentally oriented counselors will do more

1. Diagnosing of environmental learning problems and designing programs to deal with them,
2. Collaborating with others in designing learning activities for each class,
3. Learning and practicing instructional strategies commonly used in classes,
4. Developing in-depth understanding of learning modes and practicing their own skills in facilitating each mode of learning,
5. Serving as members of teams developing objectives and strategies.

The foregoing examples illustrate how the traditional roles of faculty, administrators, and counselors will be changed rather dramatically if the educational institution determines to proceed with the Student Development Model.

ADDITIONAL INSTITUTIONAL CHANGES REQUIRED

What other change strategies will be needed for an educational institution that makes the decision intentionally to develop its students? The most obvious implications of implementing a student development education fully are that

— courses and program objectives will need review and possible revision,
— professionals will need to review and possibly to rewrite their objectives,
— plans for specific in-service activities will need to focus on competency development for all professionals (i.e., administrators, teachers and counselors)

In order to better understand what these implementation strategies would be, illustrations in each of these areas are provided to show how each of the changes might be initiated.

COURSE AND PROGRAM REVISION

The following outline suggests a sequence of events, questions to be answered, and possible strategies or activities for redefining a typical program of instruction. Police Science, roused administratively in the Social Sciences Division of a college, is used as an example.
I. Goal Setting:

A. Who might collaborate with the instructor to set the program objectives and to prepare the curriculum?

- Instructor
- Another social science teacher
- Social science division chairman
- Instructor from outside social science
- Counselor
- LRC professional
- Administrator
- Police administrator (chief)
- Policeman
- Citizen
- Student

B. How can students be helped to formulate their objectives for the program within parameters set by the instructional team?

- Conduct goal-setting mini-workshops
- Provide routine opportunities for the learner to set and review own objectives for the course or program
- Provide an opportunity for the learner to measure personal goals against those set for a policeman by the instructional team
- Prepare evaluation experiences designed to check progress of the students toward achievement of his or her own goals.
II. **Assessment**: What techniques can be used to determine competencies already learned?*

- Self report
- Authenticated documents from reputable agencies
- Interviewing (possibly by a panel)
- Competency exams
- Performance tests

**Who should prepare and conduct assessment procedures?**

- Teachers
- Counselors
- Persons from occupation
- Administrators

III. **Change Strategies**: What strategies and/or resources are available to help students achieve their objectives?

- Self
- Other teachers, counselors, and administrators
- Police departments
- Other community agencies
- Instruction
- Consultation
- Milieu management

*This procedure is often called performance-based assessment.*
IV. Evaluation: What evaluation or continued assessment methods might be used to determine progress toward objectives?

- Performance tests
- Simulations
- Interviews
- Role Playing
- Written examination
- Oral reports
- Self-assessment
- Ratings
- Teacher
- Counselor
- Administrator
- Persons from occupation

Program development is a cyclical process, constantly setting new goals and evaluating progress. The instructional and assessment teams must be active in examining the effectiveness of the program at any time and stand ready to initiate changes.

PROFESSIONAL OBJECTIVES

The primary questions to be answered regarding the individual objectives of all professional staff are the following: Does my work involve me in some meaningful way in the developmental process for students? As a consequence of what I do, can I show a result in student outcomes, affecting all three developmental areas?

Most professionals have prepared objectives in the past which reflect a myopic responsibility toward overall student development. These objectives clearly have shown how professionals see their jobs and how they generally fit into an overall mission of the college, but typically they do not show how they see the jobs of their associates in the same mission or what part they will play in helping them to meet their responsibilities. Student development objectives must show the interdependent...
relationship of all professionals working toward the larger goal of developing students. Given that relationship, objectives must be prepared in cooperation with other professional groups and must illustrate the interlocking responsibilities of all groups for the achievement of college goals.

As an example of an interlocking objective, review the section of Chart III repeated below. Following that section is an objective that could deal with this developmental need from a counseling perspective.

(From Chart III):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Need of Students</th>
<th>Administrators</th>
<th>Professional Action for Instructors</th>
<th>Counselors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Views self with honesty and realism; generally congruent with how others view self</td>
<td>7a. Insure that every class and college activity provides some opportunity for realistic but non-destructive feedback for every human involved</td>
<td>7b. Provide frequent, honest feedback to students relating to their class work and to the mastery of course objectives</td>
<td>7c. Assist faculty and students in activities leading to students gaining an honest self-concept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective: Members of the counseling faculty will prepare and periodically conduct workshops for teachers dealing with feedback techniques such as responding and attending behaviors designed to stimulate student motivation.

This objective clearly relates to the administration’s responsibility to ensure “realistic but nondestructive” feedback for all students, to the instructor’s responsibility to “provide frequent, honest” feedback to students, and to the counselor’s responsibility to “assist faculty and students in activities leading to... an honest self-concept.”

A second illustration can be drawn from developmental need Number I as seen in Chart II. Note the section from that chart, then see the resulting objective.
Developmental Need of Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Action for Instructors</th>
<th>Counselors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1b. Organize course objectives so that successful mastery will provide each student the confidence and knowledge to master successfully succeeding courses</td>
<td>1c. Assist instructors and students in choosing and in accomplishing a program to acquire a saleable skill and/or preparation for further academic study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1a. Establish, maintain, and evaluate all classes and programs with the criterion of skill/knowledge acquisition and success in future work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Has acquired a saleable skill and/or is prepared to succeed in further academic study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER III

It would, of course, be folly to present a system, no matter how sophisticated, that did not have support in theory and philosophy. It is my belief that student development education, as presented in Chapter II, does have this kind of support.

DEVELOPMENTAL LEARNING

Its origins would logically go back to the persons who first conceived and supported a developmental view. Among the earliest writers we would need to include are Rousseau, Pestolizzi, and Froebel. All of these persons believed that in nature or in a natural state, man learns eagerly and spontaneously from his environment. They did not fragment learning and talk about learning as being cognitive, psychomotive, or affective, but about learning as developing. Many names that we recognize as being more familiar today are indebted to these three persons for the original concepts about humanistic development. The work of Maria Montessori with the slum children in Rome builds upon these same concepts of providing opportunities for human beings to grow and develop as naturally as possible. These concepts that we think of today as modern and innovative, such as open classrooms and learner-directed activities, are all logical outgrowths of the original historical concepts of the natural development of human beings. Even the concepts espoused by John Dewey in his writings in the 1920s and 1930s harks back to the idea of human learning evolving through natural activities. The central thesis that Dewey promoted was to encourage learners to be involved and to participate in their own learning.

It may well have been the early research done in the psychology of learning that initiated the original split between cognitive learning and other more holistic views of learning. It became clear through the research activities of Pavlov, Watson, and more recently, Skinner, that persons can indeed learn through stimulus-response systems. The school of behavioristic psychology was formed and learning was promoted in a mechanistic, behavioristic mode. Developing simultaneously with the behavioristic school was a body of research by psychologists who were likewise proving that human beings could learn by making cognitive leaps from their experience base or field of content. With additional clinical research it is now clear that human beings learn in both styles; that is, they learn by means of small quantities of information stair-stepped point by point until the collection of individual items of knowledge make up a whole concept (the behavioristic approach) and by working from a whole concept and analytically determining the smaller units of knowledge that have created this whole (a field type of learning).

Whitkin and Messick, working independently, have further developed this field-learning concept to show that some persons are dependent for learning upon the field, while others are independent of the field for their learning, and have thus created the concept of learning styles which is being experimented with currently outside the
clinical laboratory in the classroom. None of this work in the psychology of content learning appears in any way to detract from the developmental learning model presented here. The model can accommodate whatever style or strategies of learning that seem appropriate for the material and the students.6

Piaget, working from his laboratory in Switzerland, was generally considered to be the giant among researchers about learning. Most of his work was done with small children, and from this research he hypothesized a series of stages in which operational intelligence develops in children. He believed that the first stage, which he called "preoperational," lasts from about two years of age until about six or seven years. During this period, the child gradually accommodates his sensory motor structures of knowledge characterized by external action, but gradually moves toward internal action or thought. Children in the preoperational stage are primarily imitating. Through imitation children begin to realize that certain symbols can stand for concrete things. Another aspect of children operating in a preoperational stage is that the activity is irreversible in that they cannot back thought processes from one incident to a previous incident or logically connect it. They see no relationship between previous incidents and current happenings. Neither do children reason deductively or inductively at this stage.7

The second stage begins somewhere around seven years and lasts to approximately eleven years. One characteristic of this stage of intelligence development is that thought is concrete and literal. Children now are able to process concrete events and happenings logically in a way that makes sense to them, and as they grow older Piaget believed that they eventually acquire a type of intelligence that he called formal operational, which means that the new experience is tested against the previous knowledge so that a qualitatively different knowing behavior is impossible.

The third stage Piaget called formal operational behavior. Beginnings of this have already been mentioned, but Piaget saw this continuing throughout adult life. It is generally characterized by formal and abstract thinking action. Experiences now do not have to be concrete; the thoughts may be backed up or redone or changed, depending upon either concrete or abstract experiences. It is during this latter stage that the tremendous impact of environment is apparent. Since there is virtually an infinite number of environmental experiences possible, each individual shapes quite a different set of intellectual processes. This is in contrast to lower order mammals where it seems apparent that at birth a much larger amount of imprinting is done which prohibits even a rich variation in experience to alter thinking or knowledge patterns. In man, however, the large amount of cortex material in the brain does not appear to be very highly imprinted at birth and thus provides the environmental importance of experiences as they merge with the hereditary imprints in the cortical material. Undoubtedly this development of intelligence and the ability to reason is highly related to the other areas of development. It is quite clear that Piaget has been working essentially in the area of intellect or cognitive development. Coupled with this, however, is the entire area of personhood development or sense of self, as well as that of moral development. Let us now take a look at these two areas.8
MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Kohlberg has done a large amount of research in the area of moral development and has, in fact, developed some stages that are closely related to the previously mentioned stages of Piaget's intellectual development. Kohlberg believes that the zero to nine years old, which would be approximately the equivalent of the sensorimotor area, is what he calls preconventional, and it is in this stage that moral values are derived from external physical things, just as all learning is tied to immediate physical things. Kohlberg believes that in stage one the child responds to right or wrong, good or bad labels in terms of the authority of the person applying the label. In the second stage, however, the child responds basically to satisfy his own needs, or occasionally someone else's. He comes to understand that each person has a view of what is right and wrong. Kohlberg does not hypothesize nor does his research come up with a stage that is equivalent to Piaget's preoperational. However, the nine- to fifteen-year-old bracket, which Kohlberg calls the convention stage, fits in generally with Piaget's concrete operational stage. At this stage Kohlberg believes that moral values are derived from doing what most people expect to be done. In other words, whatever the general group consensus is, is right. Stage three relates to building stereotypical images and persons trying hard to please others. Stage four is in this same age bracket and relates to doing one's duty, including showing respect for authority and what is best for society in general.

The final development of moral stages Kohlberg calls postconventional. This, generally speaking, would be the equivalent in age to Piaget's formal operational, generally from age sixteen according to Kohlberg. Here one derives one's own moral values either from universal principles or from decision of conscience. In stage five, the person recognizes that role expectations have an arbitrary element, and recognizes the possibility of changing rules or contracts. In stage six, which would be the highest stage of development, a person is guided by his own conscience, probably looking to broad ethical principles of justice, equality, and human dignity. Kohlberg indicates that his data suggests that most people do not progress beyond stage three or four.

PERSONAL-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

There are at least two additional major areas of human development still to be accounted for: (1) personal-social, and (2) physical-behavioral. Let us turn now to the personal-social development. The best known researcher in this area is Sigmund Freud. He was perhaps the first person to realize that experiences in one's childhood seem to be retained and influence behavior throughout life. In fact, one of the limiting factors in his theory is that by completion of what he calls the pubertal stage, or around fourteen years of age, one's personhood development is set and can no longer be changed or influenced. Writers following Freud, however, have provided other hypotheses indicating that personal behavior, and even personhood or
personality development, may in fact be influenced or changed depending on events throughout one's life. Another major variation between Freud and later writers is that Freud placed almost total emphasis on sex-related developments, while many writers, such as Erickson, emphasized elements such as trust, autonomy, guilt, or inferiority in their development stage. Perhaps the most meaningful difference in the theories, relative to student development concepts, is that most of the writers and researchers in personality development following Freud have agreed that personality formation is not set and fixed at any certain age, but may be altered somewhat throughout one's life.  

**PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT**

The fourth area of development that relates to the concept of student development is that of physical and behavioral development. The first person to argue that there was an unvarying sequence in physical growth was Arnold Gesell. Gesell's research shows what the average child should be able to do at a given age. From these averages he then produced maps or charts to illustrate the development. This undoubtedly was helpful to many parents as well as to educators and other persons dealing with youth. Many of his followers, however, began to take these averages as being somehow "shoulds," and hence, if one did not fit the average, and was either precociously above it or retarded below it, there was a feeling that something was wrong. The entire idea of a self-fulfilling prophecy began to show up in the expectations of what parents and other people dealing with youth felt students ought to be doing at a certain point in their development, based upon Gesell's work.  

**PERSONHOOD AND LEARNING**

More current writers who have put forward theories of instruction or of developmental acquisition of knowledge and learning include Gagne, Bloom, Crathwold, Harrell, Bruner, and Hosford.  Although any generalization will be subject to error, for the purposes of laying the theoretical foundation for a student development model, it would appear that the following generalizations are sufficiently accurate. All of these researchers and thinkers in the area of learning theory are in agreement that development continues over a long period of time, that it generally moves from more concrete to more abstract from less reflective to more reflective, and occurs generally from the simple to the complex. Galloway has summed up the interrelationship between heredity and environment (genes and experience) development with the following rules.

*The Basic Rule of Interaction.* Development is a continuous, orderly, and lawful progression of structural and functional change that occurs within a living organism interacting with its environment over time.
The Rule of Reciprocal Feedback, or of Action-Reaction. Continuing and varied interaction of individuals with their environment is necessary for development to proceed.

The Rule of Increasing Delay of Feedback. Development occurs in the order of decreasing rigidness and immediacy of response.

The Rule of Progressive Internalization. Knowing behavior develops from preprogrammed, reflective knowing toward intentional, reflective knowing.

The Rule of Specialization. Development progresses from generalized, undifferentiated capabilities for responding toward specialized capabilities for responding.

The Rule of Increasing Socialization. Development progresses from individual-centered (egocentric) responding towards inter-individual, social-centered responding.

The Rule of Increasing Complexity. Development progresses from capabilities for basic physiological responding toward capabilities for complex cognitive and affective responding.

The Rule of Progressive Differentiation. Development progresses from a point at which individuals are most alike to a point at which they are least alike.

The Rule of Changing Motivation. Development progresses from essentially preprogrammed motivation to attend and to respond toward motivation to attend and to respond that is also controlled socially and culturally.

The Rule of Progressive Subsumption. The structures of knowledge that progressively develop through the interaction of genes and experience develop so that the old structures are always incorporated within the new.

The Rule of Varying Rates. Development progresses at different rates within and between individuals.

One of the persons who has provided the best insights into personhood development is Abraham Maslow. Maslow’s concept of personal development formation deals with satisfaction of needs. This idea of meeting needs is very similar to both Piaget’s and Burner’s idea of balance, or the belief that a person is constantly and actively in the process of becoming. They also believe that human potential is
virtually unlimited, and affective development and cognitive development really cannot be separated.16

We are greatly indebted to learning theorists such as Gagne, as we attempt to build a model that will bring us to a well-developed student, or perhaps better, a well-developed person. As Gagne says, we should begin at the end, that is, we define what it is we're attempting to develop.17 Therefore, how we define what a well-developed person is, of course, depends upon the values of those building the definition. The definition accepted by societal groups and the power structure supporting a Catholic school in Massachusetts will vary substantially from the one agreed to by similar groups supporting a technical institute in South Carolina. This exemplifies one of the great strengths of the model. The diversity of philosophical bases, as well as the local societal values can be preserved, perhaps even enhanced, thus strengthening a pluralistic society. The definition provided in Chapter II is only one illustration of such a definition. The framework and the need to define these various elements are generic. The specific elements may be, indeed should be, defined by the many components making up the internal and external milieu of a specific school or college. The actual implementation of one model will be illustrated and described in Chapter IV.

Few educational programs begin this way. In fact, many begin at the other end. We have, however, made considerable progress since the 1950s when authorities such as Tyler, Lessinger, Roueche, and others began to argue for measurable objectives designed and used to bring a rational accountability to the learning process. It is quite common today to find in every school teachers who are utilizing a learning system similar to the one advocated and articulated by Herrscher, Bloom, and others.18 Even though these systems include a rationale, that is, the reason why given objectives are included in a unit, Worthington's study of student development programs in higher education failed to find one college that stated it had defined program outcomes. This would require a definition of what is expected to develop a graduate, nurse, auto mechanic, or secretary.19

The weakness of failing to determine these student development outcomes is evident in that the program goals are almost always cognitive or psychomotive. For example, a two-year secretarial program may well have defined that graduates must type 65 words per minute. Activities are included in the curriculum to help the students meet this objective. Employers state, however, that job failures are most often due to a lack of human relations skills rather than a lack of typewriting skills. In an area study of job competencies done by Les Reed for Spartanburg Technical College, the employers of that region identified thirteen abilities or traits necessary for persons to be successful on the job. These traits were then placed in order of importance. Interestingly, in the first ten items only one (number eight) involved cognitive skills; all the rest were abilities within the affective domain.20
ABILITIES OR TRAITS
AS VIEWED BY INDUSTRY

ORDER OF IMPORTANCE

1. HONEST AND DEPENDABLE
2. RELIABLE AND PUNCTUAL
3. GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE
4. COOPERATE WITH SUPERVISORS
5. ACCEPT AND HANDLE RESPONSIBILITY
6. WILLING TO UNDERGO FURTHER JOB SKILL TRAINING
7. THINK OF SELF AS WORTHY PERSON
8. COMMUNICATE WELL ORALLY AND LISTEN EFFECTIVELY
9. WORK WITH MINIMUM SUPERVISION
10. SOLVE PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL PROBLEMS
11. POSSESS ENTRY-LEVEL JOB SKILLS/KNOWLEDGE
12. READ WITH UNDERSTANDING
13. UNDERSTAND REQUIRED MATHEMATICS

CONSIDERED UNIMPORTANT

1. USE LEISURE TIME WISELY
2. ADVANCED JOB SKILLS/KNOWLEDGE
3. PARTICIPATE IN COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES
4. SOUND PERSONAL FINANCE
5. COMMUNICATE EFFECTIVELY IN WRITING
6. VOTE AND PARTICIPATE IN GOVERNMENT
7. UNDERSTAND BASIC SCIENCES AND ENVIRONMENT
The student development model would include these affective objectives; for example, the objective that graduates will “get along with people,” number three above. This poses quite a different problem for education in that we now must conceive and offer activities that are designed to improve an individual’s working with other persons. Most educators in the past have simply left this to chance or have assumed that since formal education is itself a social setting, and since much of it does in fact include working with other persons (the teacher and students), these skills will be practiced and thereby perhaps acquired. The student development model goes a step further, however, in that once these skills are included in the definition of a well-developed student, then activities are specifically designed to bring about that competency in the individuals. Therefore, the classroom teacher would be responsible for conducting some activities in the classroom that would teach people to get along better in their working with others. Most classroom teachers will find this task strange, frightening, and perhaps outside their competence and training.

The entire philosophy and psychological base of developmental education supports the belief that human behavior can be changed. There are, according to most theorists, techniques that can assist persons to know themselves better and to modify their behavior in ways that will enhance their working with other persons. These techniques and skills may be currently held by counselors or other persons who are not classroom teachers. Thus, the student development model, as described in Chapter II, will require a collaborative effort from all of the college resources.

The student development model is based upon the same philosophic concept about human beings that were shared by Dewey, Piaget, Montessori and others who believed that a human being naturally will tend to move toward acquiring knowledge and learning for the rewards that are inherent in the process itself. Hence, a formal educational setting should be one that tends to reinforce and use these natural rewards. Further, the structure of the organization should be such that the maximum amount of freedom and moving toward achieving one’s learning objectives can be done with the least amount of interference and prescription from the adults concerned with the enterprise. In an operational mode, this might mean that the student, rather than being given a prescription which would include all of the courses one must take in order to achieve the concept of a well-developed student, would be provided a series of activities and guided into acquiring the necessary knowledge about one’s self and one’s desired future goals. This would enable the student to choose (in contrast to prescription without choice) the subjects, courses and activities that would be needed in order for the student to achieve maximum human development within the educational setting at that time. How much prescription would also be influenced by the philosophy of the school and the age level of the students.

The human development model could probably be said to rely on learning theory that in turn relies upon human developmental theory. What is known about
physical, mental, and moral development has been included in the learning theories of many writers, including Galloway, Hosford, Gagne, and Chall. So that, at any given stage of development from primary to adulthood, the student development model can and should accommodate what is known from developmental research, as well as the best in the development of learning theory. The term "development," as it is being used in student development, does imply, of course, a developmental theory of learning which indicates that there is a certain order or sequencing of material to be learned, and a proper time period in which it can be most readily assimilated. This would be true of the student development model since it does make use of a developmental theory of learning.

It is likewise true that developmental theories of learning have never resolved totally the "nature-nurture" controversy, but neither group of advocates is willing to say its position is either/or, and neither would rule out developmental education as a viable theory. Piaget, for example, believed that there is a good deal of middle ground in which readiness for the assimilation of a given item of knowledge is an interaction between the biological mechanisms and appropriate "experiences." Work by such researchers as Virginia Douglas make it very clear that the affective elements (even in such areas as readiness) are most important. Her research has shown that some students who are prone to become poor learners and who are overly represented in special classes for educationally handicapped, are students who have trouble controlling their impulsive tendencies. If this can be diagnosed, affective exercises could probably be developed that would increase their self-control, thereby enhancing their acquisition of learning. The student development model, of course, relies on learning theory that includes feedback so that the knowledge achieved through feedback can be used for correction. Bruner makes this a key point in his instructional theory. According to recent research in biofeedback, it is apparent that the feedback loop can achieve tremendous results, even in such technical areas as blood pressure and other anatomical systems.

**SUMMARY**

In Chapter III, I have attempted to show that no theorist who has worked in the area of human growth and development has postulated, nor has any research supported, the fact that human beings grow in cognitive areas irrespective of the personality, affective, and moral development areas. On the contrary, the body of research is growing that supports the position that emphasizing cognitive growth alone seldom enhances even cognitive growth. The student development model appears to be in harmony with the best research that has been done to date in learning theory; it can accommodate various theories of human growth and development, and fortunately it does not need to be limited to one philosophy or psychological school.

The student development model is based upon a solid foundation of psychological and learning theory, and is process-oriented enough to be equally
useful for several philosophical positions. The research related to human growth and development is quite conclusive about the close relationship between cognitive, affective, and even moral development. Growth seems to be a total concept, with environment and inheritance both playing a part. Rather than ignoring development in affective and moral areas, student development places them on an equal basis with cognitive development so that all three areas will be enhanced.

Chapter IV will illustrate the implementation of the student development model in the Police Science Program at a two-year college.
CHAPTER IV

SELECTION OF PROGRAMS

I previously stated that the student development model was not so much something new as it was a tying together of elements already in existence, as will soon become apparent in the two illustrations in this chapter concerning one community college's attempt to install the student development model in two program areas. This chapter is a description of one college's attempt to implement the student development model in two programs that badly need curriculum revision. None of the planners had release time, nor were funds expended for additional resources. The time frame began in January of 1975 with work on the model itself. Student input and other planning was virtually completed on that phase by the beginning of classes for the fall semester. The major curriculum efforts began in September and were scaled down from the programs to the two courses (plus the two human development classes) and eventually, using a competency-based instructional model, to the two-week pilot units that were actually used in the classroom in the spring semester of 1976. The college determined that it would attempt to apply the student development model first in the areas of police science and Black history. The choice of these areas was not made on the basis that they would be easy to fit into the model, but rather because these areas needed curriculum revision and improvement, and since they were to undergo treatment anyhow, it seemed appropriate to see if they could be refashioned in a student development mode.

PROCEDURES

Work began on police science, and meetings were held that included the president of the college; the deans of instruction, student personnel, and business services; the director of technical-occupational programs; the division chairman of social studies, in which division police science was administratively located; the instructors for police science; counselors and faculty members from other divisions; and students. In discussing the model described in Chapter II, the persons at these meetings determined that the future planning sessions for determining the police science curriculum and the learning activities should include representatives of several additional groups; the general public and potential employers needed to be involved in the planning. So lay citizens, representatives of the City Police and Sheriff's Departments were invited to meet with the previously mentioned groups to discuss the task of revising the police science curriculum.

In my experience, advisory committees are generally helpful and are used by most community colleges for their technical-occupational programs. Some of the members of the revised planning team came directly from the advisory committee. To involve a police department in planning the curriculum for a police science program is nothing new. However, to involve them along with other elements of the
college and the lay public in discussions about what a well-developed policeman should be is, to the best of my knowledge, a unique approach—the approach demanded by the student development model.

These meetings got under way in September and October of the school year. The first decision was that the curriculum should be built on a competency base. Further, a decision was made that the competencies should flow out of some assumptions. The following four assumptions were identified:

1. The college would attempt to develop competencies in students for the four developmental areas—information, job skills, self-knowledge and understanding the environment. Competencies identified then needed to be stated for each area.
2. It is important to help students gain knowledge at the higher levels of application and synthesis. For this reason, competencies should be stated in terms of the use to which knowledge and skills can be put.
3. It is useful to both students and teachers to be able to measure progress. Whether or not an outcome is measurable, however, should not determine its inclusion in the curriculum.
4. Students should have the right to determine for themselves to what extent they wish to apply their learning to their lives. Therefore, students should not be graded on the affective objectives.

To assure a common understanding among all the persons involved in the planning process, the members created some common definitions.

A competency is a terminal goal outcome, the use to which students put knowledge or skills, the ability to do something that the student could not do or did less well before the course.

The following is an example for a typewriting class: The student will type a business letter from rough draft at sixty words per minute with no more than two errors. Another example in political science is: The student will be able to make political decisions concerning China based on his understanding of the Chinese culture, past and present.

Cognitive competencies were defined in both skill and academic areas. Cognitive skill competencies need criteria that can be stated in measurable terms. They need an evaluation that can be done in a performance or demonstration mode, and the use of the evaluation should be made not only for the grade determination of the student but also for teaching improvement as well. The following competency in nursing is an example: The student will draw the proper amount of insulin when given several syringes, a medication order, and various vials of insulin.

Cognitive academic competencies should also have criteria that can be stated as often as possible in measurable terms, but since this sometimes is impossible, they should also have other evaluation methods which may include performance, oral discussions, or objective tests. The use of evaluation, as previously stated, is for competency, grade distribution, and teaching improvement. An
example of an academic competency in sociology might be: *The student will be a more effective participant in groups due to his knowledge of group interaction.* The evaluation of effectiveness is determined by a rating instrument used during discussion. Another illustration taken from political science stated: *The student will make effective use of the political system to express his own wishes.* A learning objective written for that competency might state: *The student will be able to diagram the steps in the passage of bond issues.* Another objective in measurable terms might be stated: *The student will list the duties of the following local government officials—mayor, mayor pro tem, city manager, and council members.*

The third area of competencies was defined as affective. In this case criteria again should be stated in measurable terms, if possible. The evaluation methods may include videotape, semantic differential scales, and other self-rating instruments. The use of the evaluation would be for student information and teaching improvement, not grade determination. The following is an illustration from a Black Studies course: *The student will be more tolerant of other cultures as measured on pre- and post-tests using a semantic differential scale.* The evaluation is teacher judgment; criteria in this case could probably not be stated in measurable terms, but the use of the evaluation would be for student information and teaching improvement. Another illustration might be in music appreciation: *The student will use music to provide himself with enjoyable experiences.*

The foregoing illustrates some of the understandings that came about as a result of the discussions among the large group. I state again that this is not a new strategy. There are many competency-based programs, and these definitions have been worked out and are to be found in many textbooks, as well as in use on many college campuses. The unique element required by the student development model is that these definitions were developed by a group that included administrators, faculty members, counselors, lay public, students, and employers.

The next step was to look at the police science program as a whole, rather than at just one course, and use the definitions as previously stated in an attempt to generate the purposes or goal statements followed by the objectives needed to accomplish the goal.

The efforts to do this required many hours of planning. To illustrate this, I am presenting the work in the same sequence that the meetings took place, although on the generation of some topics, more than one meeting was held. The following twelve tasks are presented in the order that they were produced by the group. Some of these areas, it was determined, did not need the participation of all of the groups. I will therefore identify the size of the team that worked on each topic area. (Each functional task was described as a "generation.")

Generation I determined that its task was to describe what a police science student would be like when he or she had completed the college course. The team for Generation I was the large group which included faculty from the Social Science Division, faculty from other disciplines, police officers, administrators, an instructional developer, counselors, and students.
After it was determined that the descriptions provided by the large group in Generation I needed some additional refinement, a team made up of a small group of faculty and an administrator was created to accomplish this writing task more effectively. Their work became Generation II and was reviewed by the large group to preserve the integrity of the descriptions. Generation III determined, after looking through the information that the large group had produced, that it needed additional restating and restructuring. The same small team of professional people worked on the restatement and the structuring of this information. Generation IV was the logical next step, synthesizing the information provided by the large group into competency statements. This was the application of the desire to change the curriculum in police science to a competency base. It was determined that it could best be done by adding an instructional developer to the small team. Generation V determined that its major task was to review and revise the competency statements written by the original large group. Their task this time was to review the competency statements which they may not have seen. This group had not met since they had provided the information and the description of what a police science student would be like when he or she completed the program. Generation VI determined that Police Science 241: Police Role in Crime and Delinquency would be the first course for which specific objectives would be written. The team designated to do this included an administrator, police science instructor, and the instructional developer. Generation VII, another small team, selected one unit of this course and wrote objectives for it. The process generated a narrowing and a more specific delineation at each step. This group began writing the very specific instructional objectives for one unit within one course within the program. The group included a police science instructor, instructional developer, counselor, and administrator. In Generation VIII the task was to write informal objectives for the unit on juveniles; this was done by the same team as Generation VII. Generation IX accomplished the task of devising strategies to teach the objectives for the juvenile unit, and again, the same instructional team did this. The decision to follow a system design or competency-based approach dictated that the next task was to devise evaluation or measuring instruments; so in Generation X the task was to design a test to measure the unit objectives. The same instructional team devised this. Generation XI was to devise an evaluation instrument to assess the planning and implementation of the unit, which is quite different from assessing how well each student had achieved the objectives. This was to determine how well the unit had been planned and implemented. Again, the instructional team did the work on devising the instrument. Generation XII was comprised of follow-up sessions to evaluate the entire curriculum process by the instructional team.

A well-developed police science student can:

1. Locate, use, and enjoy knowledge, facts, and skills.

   Developmental Needs:
   
a. To be articulate
b. To make decisions quickly
c. To take control of situations
d. To initiate and participate in crisis intervention
e. To exercise good judgment
f. To be knowledgeable in criminal law, the constitution, and the criminal justice system
g. To write clearly and effectively
h. To understand the concepts of crime control by involving the community and creating citizen involvement
i. To understand libel laws, labor unions, and open-book laws
j. To exercise discretionary opportunities wisely
k. To be knowledgeable about police functions
l. To understand computer functions in modern criminal justice

2. Understand self and one's world well enough to plan one's own life and to make realistic life decisions.

Developmental Needs:

a. To have a positive self-image
b. To feel self-confidence
c. To have an attitude of service
d. To be free as possible of personal prejudice, hostility and biases
e. To clarify his or her personal value system
f. To use his or her own behavior for positive communication
g. To set realistic self-goals in the police science field
h. To understand his or her own power needs and other specific personal needs
i. To be able to handle criticism
j. To separate self from work
k. To balance warm human qualities with necessary firmness
l. To accept and deal with his or her own feelings
m. To be independent of power symbols
n. To assess realistically the requirements of a criminal justice career

3. Make effective use of environment to assist in achieving his or her own goals

Developmental Needs:

a. To engage effectively in problem solving
b. To be effective in human relations
c. To understand major cultural forces in the society
d. To understand how the political system operates
e. To understand the criminal justice system as a structure
f. To interpret human behavior
g. To view realistically the limitations and possibilities of criminal justice work
h. To be aware of current affairs
i. To be a student of police and press relations.

The foregoing describes the framework in terms of tasks that were generated and completed by one two-year college in utilizing the student development model in a police science program.

During the first planning session, the group, using the techniques of brainstorming, defined the following topics, developmental skills, or competencies for the well-developed police science student who has completed the program:

OUTCOMES OF THE PROCEDURES

Logically and properly the input of the professional law enforcement officers is evident in this list of skills, but I think one can also see in them the feelings of the lay public, as well as the input from police science instructors, counselors, and students. While the list may not be complete or may be redundant, it nonetheless provides a starting point for working toward the next step.

Using the format described in Chapter II for student development models, the large group was asked to preface a statement such as, "A well-developed police science student can..." with three general topics: (1) locate, use and enjoy knowledge, facts, and skills, (2) understand self and one's world well enough to plan one's own life and make realistic life decisions, and (3) make effective use of the environment to assist in achieving one's own goals. The group then took the previously developed list of competencies that police science graduates should achieve and placed them under these three headings. When this task was completed it produced the list shown in Chart V.

Following this determination, the groups began to identify some strategies that could be used to help students achieve the identified competencies. Strategies identified as being helpful to achieve the objectives included a creative clinic in planning, videotaping of simulated situations, interactive activities such as CAI and role play, videotapes of realistic criminal justice job possibilities, small classes on community relations, human development classes and early student assessment. In order to identify the tasks for each instructional team member a grid was devised that begins with the student’s developmental need and identifies the strategy chosen to assist the student to meet it and the role that each team member will play. Chart V shows this simple but effective format.
Readers who desire additional detail concerning the implementation of the police science program can find the complete developmental history in Appendix I.

The efforts of moving from the theoretical student development model to implementation in an actual program within a college includes the task of viewing both the product (objectives) and the process (strategies) from the students' point of view. I previously pointed out that conventional education is organized to fulfill the needs of society, parents, board members, administrators, and faculty but only incidentally the needs of students. The student development model demands that the focus be student needs. This proved to be a more difficult task than we ever imagined. Our entire experience is so centered on administrative- and teacher-generated requirements for students that the involvement of students and community groups in the process of establishing requirements demands a quite different approach and one that often was frustrating and certainly slower.

In order to meet some of the affective objectives, it seemed expeditious to use existing courses. Since the college had previously developed three separate courses in human development, it was decided to include two of these in the curriculum of the police science majors and to designate sections restricted for the police science students to insure their particular objectives get accomplished.

The fact that there was little experience at the college in creating competency-based programs also slowed the transition somewhat. The competency definition improved after each revision, but this took time and effort. The content remained faithful, but the actual wording was revised several times.

The reader will also note that this entire process moved from the general to the specific. The broader competencies were identified first by the large group and then specific instructional strategies were created to implement the major competencies. The two-step wording of each competency follows this principle in that the formal wording is somewhat more general and harder to assess with the informal wording more operational, restricted, and assessable.
The process used to place Black history into the student development model followed almost the same process as has been described for police science. The major difference is that the academic nature of Black Studies did not call for community input, so that element of the planning process was eliminated. The team approach was used, however, with administrators, counselors and faculty involved in defining both the competencies and the strategies. The full history of the development of Black history is included in Appendix 2 for those readers who desire additional details.

Both teams, police science and Black history, decided to make their first classroom effort a two-week pilot unit. One reason for this approach was that the materials, strategies, and competencies were not prepared in time to begin a semester. Also the risk seemed less, since failure would not adversely affect students, especially students who had no choice when they enrolled in the class.

EVALUATION

The two-week pilot units were carefully evaluated and are summarized here. The police science class provided mixed data. In general the cognitive learnings were about equal to gains using the traditional approach. On the other hand, affective gains were greater. This is no great surprise, but it confirms that including both competencies and strategies for the affective areas does increase mastery. There was positive endorsement of the availability of additional resources, both people and materials. Negative feelings were indicated due to poor quality videotapes and the radical change in teaching style during a semester.

Black history achieved a very positive response from the students. Well over 75 percent achieved all of the competencies specified. The use of speakers from the community and the emphasis on group work were especially well-received by both the instructor and the students.

The instructional team indicated that the planning process provided them with valuable experience that will be helpful in future efforts. They identified four areas needing additional work:

1. Pre-assessment techniques
2. Learning strategies not involving reading
3. Closer communication with speakers from the community

The team agreed that the most positive gains were in developing expertise in building competency-based curriculum, exposing instructors to new strategies, and creating a viable process for curriculum development.

It is not an easy job to implement the student development concept in actual teaching experiences. The most time-consuming element for this college was
rewriting the course into a competency mode. This, of course, is not essential for using a student development model, nor is it fair to assess the time that it takes to build a course in that mode against the time it takes to install a model. Nonetheless, there is a good deal more time required in the planning of the program, because all of the objectives are developed and revised by a larger and more complex team, than the usual classroom teacher or even the several teachers who will teach the course. In this case it required nearly three months of meetings with the large team to build the definition of what a well-developed policeman should be. The definition provided the basis for building competency statements. Any major curriculum revision effort demands a considerable amount of time, regardless of whether the college is moving its curriculum into a student development model, individualization, competency-based education or some other framework. It is certainly easier to make no changes—simply to continue the traditional method. The issue, however, is not what is easier but what is better for the students.

Additional details about evaluation will be included in the discussion of evaluation strategies and techniques in Chapter VI. The evaluations done by the instructors and the teams at this college indicate that perhaps the greatest advantage that occurred from using the student development model was that the affective competencies, not usually included in a cognitive course, were identified and largely accomplished. This once again supports the contention that the student development model is not anything radically new but it does bring together in a meaningful way all of those items that are believed necessary for a well-developed student regardless of one's major or course of study.

It is difficult to see how we can expect to accomplish affective goals and objectives if these goals and objectives are never articulated and there are no strategies designed to accomplish them. The student development model does include affective goals, along with strategies for their accomplishment. Also, it is fair to say that in this one attempt to install the model, even as a pilot unit, faculty members were able to use the talents of counselors, instructional developers, administrators, and community resources to define competencies and strategies that went far beyond the cognitive ones with which they felt familiar. Perhaps a concluding statement should be made concerning this attempt at the introduction of student development education. Before the end of the academic year 1975–1976 when the attempt was made, the president left the institution for another position. The following year the dean of students left, and at the present time neither the staff development officer nor the division chairman are at that particular college. There are some efforts being undertaken, however, within the district to define course and program competencies.
CHAPTER V

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, I discussed the attempts of one two-year college to implement the student development model. Even in this age of rapid communication, it is difficult for any one institution to have accurate data concerning projects that are being conducted in other institutions. Certainly it seemed necessary for any book on the student development model to provide readers with a current update of what the practices are throughout the country. In contrast to the previous in-depth look at one attempt, Chapter V is an assessment of what is currently being done with the student development model throughout the United States in the two-year and four-year colleges.

Readers concerned with using the student development education (SDE) model in the public school will find that Chapter V does not include information on use of the model at that level. Unfortunately there is not much evidence that the model has been used in public schools, although many are using elements of it. The inclusion of public schools in the sample proved to be more ambitious than the capabilities of this study.

Ralph Worthington chose to study the use of the student development education model for his dissertation at the University of Texas at Austin. His efforts to finish this study were financed in part by the Kellogg Foundation Project whose mission is to improve teaching and learning in the two-year colleges. The director of this project, Dr. John Roueche, and I discovered in our initial efforts with 54 colleges throughout the United States and Canada that the greatest concern for these colleges was student development. This became apparent in the requests for workshop interventions that were held on participating college campuses. When we tabulated the topical areas of greatest interest, the overwhelming favorite request was for workshops pertaining to student development education. In order that we might be helpful to the colleges, we maintained current information on what use was being made of the student development model and of particular interest, whether significant results seemed to be occurring as a result of using the model.

WORTHINGTON'S STUDY

Ralph Worthington conducted the research presented in this chapter at the University of Texas during the fall of 1977 and concluded the writing in the spring of 1978. The decision was made to limit the study to public two-year and four-year colleges and universities. Colleges that made up the sample were chosen by random selection from the Education Directory, Colleges and Universities (National Center for Educational Statistics). Three hundred schools were chosen, half were public two-year colleges and half, public four-year colleges and universities. Since this sample represents nearly 20 percent of the public colleges in the United States, the
The first major problem in conducting the study was to solve the lack of common understanding of the student development model. In order to solve this problem, it seemed most propitious to address the questionnaire soliciting information to the Dean or Vice President of Student Services, the persons most likely to understand the concepts in the student development model. Even then it appeared probable that with the newness of the model, the unknown quality of usage and the high probability of error in the terms and definitions included within the model, the chance of getting comparable data was unlikely. To solve this problem, Worthington devised a somewhat different approach to collecting data by questionnaires. Rather than using the normal practice of asking questions about what one thinks or feels or has used, he constructed a response questionnaire that itself constituted a definition of the student development model. In this manner each college receiving the questionnaire would, by virtue of receiving the definition, be responding from a common set of definitions. To accomplish this all of the elements that make up the student development model had to be included in the questionnaire mailed to the colleges. The four elements from the model were (1) goal setting and assessment, (2) instructional change, (3) consultational change, and (4) milieu management. These, in fact, became the dependent variables of the study.

In addition to these variables taken from the student development education models, several demographic variables were included that became the independent variables. The selection of these variables was made in terms of what seemed most likely to relate to student success. These variables included the size of the institution, its location, whether in rural, medium-sized city, or metropolitan area, ethnic variable, admission policies (that is, whether there were restrictive policies or whether the college had an open-door policy), and finally, in order to get information on the general socioeconomic level of students, the percentage of students receiving financial aid. These variables were investigated to see if they did in fact have an effect upon the three major areas of the study.

The first area was the extent to which the SDE concept is currently being utilized in American two- and four-year public colleges. Secondly, since Worthington found virtually no empirical evidence documenting the effects that the SDE model might have on members of an institution that employed the concept, we chose to investigate this. Finally, no relationships had been established between the use of the SDE concept by an institution and the ability of the student to succeed within that institution. The foregoing items, then, illustrate the basic design of the study.

The questionnaire itself described specific attributes of the SDE model. For example, Question No. 1 stated: "When a student enters the institution, is he given..."
assistance in establishing and understanding what goals he would like to achieve while in school?" All responses were coded on a four-part response where the first item which designated the greatest use stated, "Virtually all students are given such assistance in setting goals," followed by less usage stated as, "Most students are given such assistance," somewhat less by, "Some students are given such assistance," and finally, "Few or no students are given such assistance." The questionnaire was divided into three parts, section one dealing with the attributes of the SDE model. Section two asked for additional information relating to the history of using SDE that was to be filled in only by respondents who indicated "Modest use or more" of the SDE concept in section one. And finally all respondents were asked to complete section three, which included the demographic or independent variable data. Section three also included a request for information from colleges regarding studies that had been done by the institutions that might provide some additional information concerning the results or evaluation of the model.

As previously stated, the questionnaire items were designed to relate to the dependent variables and in order to treat these statistically the responses were coded numerically with "four" being the highest usage in a scale of one, two, three, and four. When grouped according to the variables, this allowed a numeric computation of the strength of each one of the items in the questionnaire individually and then as it related to the variables. In the analysis, then, each institution received a score on each of the variables one through four, and additionally, each institution received a score on variable five, the total of variable one through four. Variable five represented the overall SDE score for each institution. A five one-way analysis of variance was conducted to test hypotheses with the type of college as the independent variable, and variables one to five as the dependent variables. The summary of each variable was finally grouped to provide an SDE score for the institution. The institution score had a possible range of 20 to 80. The actual range came out 23 to 72. The mean was 45.4.

**MAJOR FINDINGS**

The following results were obtained after treatment of the data. First, data gathered in the study indicated that the extent of SDE utilization by colleges can certainly not be labeled as extensive. Since the mean SDE score for all colleges was only 45.4 of a possible range of 20 to 80, the utilization level can be more accurately described as low to moderate. Furthermore, since this study found only 19 of 184 schools going above 60 (slightly more than 10 percent of the schools), it appears that only about 10 percent of the public colleges in the United States can be described as being "extensive" users of student development education. Furthermore, slightly over 35 percent of the colleges in the United States (67 of 184 in the study), can be characterized as "low" users or schools scoring between 20 and 60 on the SDE scale. Ninety-nine schools scored between 41 and 60 on the scale (over 53 percent).
so the conclusion is that more than one-half of American colleges could be labeled as moderate users of SDE.

Looking at the scoring when it is subdivided into the four SDE variables, it is Goal Setting Assessment that is used most extensively, with a mean score for all colleges of 13.56 out of a possible 20. This means generally that most students in most colleges are assessed by a number of measures, are aided in establishing goals, and are placed in the institution in classes concurrent with the student’s needs and abilities.

The Instructional and Consultation Change Strategies are not employed as much, for their mean scores were 10.31 and 10.12, respectively, out of a possible 20. This means that these strategies are employed only some of the time in U.S. colleges. Milieu Management scored only slightly higher at 11.45. The conclusion is that while goal setting and assessment enjoys a rather widespread usage in colleges, the SDE change strategies are employed less frequently.

When two- and four-year colleges are considered as subpopulations, the findings vary. Two-year colleges use SDE to a degree significantly higher than four-year colleges; the two-year colleges in this study scored 48.27, while the four-year colleges scored 42.62. Two-year colleges also utilized the four SDE variables more than four-year colleges. When their scores were compared in this study, two-year college means on all four variables were significantly higher (Sig. greater than 0.05) than four-year colleges. The greatest difference lies in the utilization of the Consultation Change Strategy, for two-year colleges score 11.38 on this variable, whereas four-year colleges score only 8.99 (Sig. = 0.0000). Obviously, the consultation process is utilized less than “some of the time” in four-year colleges, signifying that counselors are not well integrated into the overall environment.

Of the 20 questions that comprised the SDE score, four-year colleges scored higher on only two questions. More four-year colleges have instructors who have received training in counseling techniques (1.6304) than in two-year colleges (1.6087). Also more four-year colleges have teams organized to evaluate the overall climate of the institution (1.8702, 1.7065). None of these scores approach significance, however. Two-year colleges scored significantly higher on 10 of the remaining 18 questions and approached significance on one other question. This is a further indication of the greater extent to which two-year colleges employ the SDE concept.

In examining two-year colleges to determine whether demographic characteristics were vital in predicting the SDE score, no demographic variables were found that predicted Goal Setting and Assessment, Instructional Change Strategy, and Milieu Management. When the Consultation Change Strategy was considered, however, the interaction of the size of the contiguous population and the size of the student body predicted varying Consultation Change Strategy scores. Colleges with student bodies of 3,000 to 7,000 individuals use Consultation more than smaller or larger size colleges in the same population area. Worthington’s conclusion on this
was that SDE scores U.S. two-year colleges are not related to demographic characteristics of the institution.

On the other hand, four-year colleges with more students receiving financial aid utilized more Goal Setting and Assessment. If a high number of students receive financial aid, it was interpreted as an index of low socioeconomic standing. The conclusion is that four-year colleges that face less affluent incoming students tend to take more care in assessing the students' abilities and in placing the students appropriately within the institution. Demographic characteristics, however, are not indicators of the instructional change strategy. To summarize Worthington's conclusions, generally four-year schools utilize SDE more when they face a more heterogenous student body.

The use of SDE does increase the impact of Student Affairs on the institution. Colleges with higher SDE scores generally reported that Student Affairs had more significance in the institution and that the Student Affairs area was able to exert more influence on curriculum design. These findings were basically the same, whether all colleges or the two- and four-year colleges sub-populations were considered.

Schools with higher SDE scores have better organizational and personal relationships, according to Worthington. Whether the population is all colleges, two-year colleges, or four-year colleges, a higher SDE score will result in a better relationship between the Student Affairs staff and the Instructional staff and, more specifically, between counselors and instructors. Similarly, the all-college and the two- and four-year grouping showed that there were better relationships between major organizational units of the colleges among colleges with higher SDE scores.

Worthington summarized, "Colleges in the U.S. who utilize SDE more will have a Student Affairs area with greater impact and will have improved organizational and personal relationships within the institution."

The final area that Worthington studied was the concern for whether or not there is a relationship between the student development model and student success rates in the institutions applying the model. He found that when two-year and four-year colleges are considered separately, there were no significant differences in the student success rate of colleges with different SDE scores. He concluded that although two- and four-year colleges in the U.S. may have different student development education scores, these scores do not account for different student success rates.

One other aspect that was considered in relationship to students' success rates was the independent variables of the demographic characteristics. Worthington concluded that these characteristics were much better predictors of a student's success rate than student development education scores.

Worthington also designed into the study an effort to get some idea concerning the SDE model from those people working in it. One of the questions that he asked was, "Did the respondents to the survey believe the future of SDE in
their own institutions to be one of increasing use or decline?" Of 172 people who responded, 87 said that the use of SDE would increase, while 73 said it would remain stable, only 10 expected it to decline, and 2 thought it would be generally discontinued. This is pretty clear evidence that those persons most familiar with SDE models and using it within the institution do expect that it will increase in the future.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the Worthington study is that there are many aspects of the student development model that are not so new and different and that somewhere approaching one-third of the colleges in the United States are using a goodly portion of student development model. For those using it, the most significant finding is that the more a college uses the model, the more beneficial the relationships are within that institution. This is not limited to the student development area itself. Perhaps even more significantly, the relationships are enhanced among all of the elements that make up the college organization. For the first time it appears that we have at least a benchmark from which to view continuing results at developing the model throughout the public two- and four-year colleges in the United States.

It is obvious that additional studies need to be done, especially those of a longitudinal nature and those of single colleges where other variables could be controlled and accounted for. This will determine if there is some combination of the SDE model with demographic or other institutional variables that might further increase the benefits of using the model.

Perhaps the most disappointing result of the study was that Worthington found no significant correlations between student performance and the use of the model. One can hypothesize many reasons for this, but the fact remains that until additional studies are conceived and accomplished there is no empirical evidence that indicates that the student development model does in fact enhance students' successes. My own belief relating to this disappointing finding is that the elements of the student development model that have been implemented, generally speaking, are those that deal with Goal Setting and Assessment. These are areas with great potential, but as currently practiced they have no direct impact upon student success. It may well be that for the student development educational model to affect student success, a much more intensive, widespread, and dramatic shift will have to take place within the institution to incorporate the student development model before student success benefits directly.

SUMMARY

It would appear that although all four elements of the student development model are being used to a modest extent throughout the nation, any real changes in the behavior of the organization are not apparent at this time. A careful look at the instrument that attempted to measure the use of these strategies makes it clear that
institutions could rate their use at a third or fourth level by utilizing most of the existing strategies within institutions. For example, an institution that does have a student assessment for basic skills and does have planning sessions that work on institutional goals might very well list its usage of the Goal Setting and Assessment at the third or fourth level. This would be quite different from the kind of effort that was undertaken by the college in Chapter IV. I. likely would not include the student in terms of the goals setting, and the assessment might not apply to all students and certainly not to the assessment of goals other than basic skills. While it is clear that there are benefits in terms of the better working relationships between counselors and instructors, and although the student development education model seems to have promoted this, there is not a corresponding high level in terms of Instructional Change. Therefore, it would be possible for a college that has a good working relationship between counselors and instructors to rate itself at the third or fourth level, although there is little impact upon instruction per se.

The foregoing illustrates what I believe to be a weakness in the measurement instrument in that it may provide a somewhat distorted view toward the upper end of the scale in that conventional practices have tended to increase the SDE scores when in fact no real change had taken place within the institution. The fact that the Worthington study showed demographic variables, quite often playing a greater part in the outcomes than the SDE models, tends to reinforce this position. Even if there is a bias in favor of higher scores, the actual mean is only 45.4 out of a possible 80, indicating that widespread use of the SDE model to impact instruction is certainly in the future, if it is to occur at all. Readers who would like additional information on the study will find the questionnaire in Appendix 3. It is a questionnaire that makes a good internal instrument if an institution wants to get a reading on its current usage of the elements that make up the SDE model. Worthington has copyrighted this instrument, therefore, any widespread use of it should receive his permission.
CHAPTER VI

The first portion of this concluding chapter will deal with the issue of evaluation, and the final part of the chapter will be a summary statement of the major conclusions to be drawn from the work that went into this book.

EVALUATION

Evaluating the use of the student development model is actually no different from evaluating any other portion of the educational enterprise; it is very difficult. Any social activity has many variables and is complex, especially since many of its outcomes are longitudinal rather than immediate. Evaluation has long been the ignored stepchild of the educational function. If the SDE model is ever to fulfill its potential, it is going to have to come to grips with creating an evaluation model that is in harmony with the basic tenets of the model itself. Moreover, it will have to be a more effective model than we have previously applied to other educational efforts.

One of the key ingredients of the SDE model, of course, is its heavy emphasis upon growth in the individual student, especially those longitudinal aspects of becoming a better or more fully developed human being. Unfortunately, these are the very aspects that are the most difficult to evaluate effectively. The second major element of the SDE model is that it deals with the entire person, especially in the areas of personhood development and affective or feeling relationships to cognitive development. Once again these are the elements in education that have essentially defied any kind of concrete or statistical evaluation. It is for these reasons, then, that the creation of a good evaluation model for SDE is a most difficult task. The fact that it is difficult, however, does not mean that we should not attempt to create the best available model in order to do the best possible job in evaluation. It simply means that many of the most important tenets of the SDE model are not going to be as reliably evaluated, especially as quantifiably evaluated, as other elements in the total learning process.

PROCESS EVALUATION

The evaluation forms included in the Appendix I are virtually all dealing with the process. In fact, process evaluation has always been the mainstay of our total educational evaluation efforts. Many writers on evaluation use the term formative for this type of evaluation, since it does deal with the form in which the learning is presented or the process itself. "Happiness index" is perhaps a somewhat cynical but fairly accurate description of this type of evaluation. Faculty members are asked their opinions of whether or not they believe the SDE process is helpful, whether they have enjoyed the experience, whether they feel more closely allied to the development specialists, such as counselors or instructional media persons. These kinds of questions relate to the feelings that faculty have about using
the SDE model. Certainly no institution would want to base its judgment concerning
the effectiveness of the SDE model on this type of evaluation scale alone. On the
other hand, this type of evaluation is important in that it obviously deals with the
persons most closely related to the process and certainly has validity in terms of
continued use and support by those same persons. Likewise, this type of formative
evaluation is very helpful when used by the students involved in the SDE format of
education. In fact, all of the team members that are involved in the SDE process
should have the opportunity to give feedback concerning their opinions about the
process, the strengths and weaknesses that they have observed or experienced as
they worked in the SDE model. There is certainly no special formula or magic for
creating this type of evaluation instrument. One good approach is to build an
evaluation team with representatives from the different arms that made up the
working group for the SDE attempt and ask these people to contribute questions for
the questionnaire. The questionnaire can be administered to all the persons included
in the survey. These can then be tabulated and conclusions drawn as to how well the
process was conducted, and some fairly representative feelings will emerge at least
about the effectiveness of some of the outcomes observed by the participants.

OUTCOME EVALUATION

The other key element of evaluation that has already been mentioned as
being difficult to document is, of course, the longitudinal outcomes, or what many
writers call summative evaluation data. These data would relate to outcomes that
have been achieved by the students who participated in the student development
(SDE) activities. If the purpose of SDE is to increase human development, any
evaluation model must deal with the problem of how to measure increased human
development. If the development is in psychomotor skill areas, such as typewriting
or laying a bead with a welding torch, this measurement is not so difficult. These are
elements of human development (learning) in which the individual student has
participated, and examinations or other kinds of evaluative testing will provide a
progress report of how well development has taken place in these areas. Similarly,
young cognitive development can be measured in the same manner that it is currently
measured in classrooms that have never heard of the SDE model. Just because the
SDE model has been used in no way negates the need to measure the cognitive skills
that have been acquired. What the SDE model does do is promote using this type of
evaluation to aim at evaluating the higher levels of cognitive knowledge rather than
building the tests so heavily upon a knowledge base only. Current efforts in this
regard appear to be oriented heavily toward knowledge and comprehension and not
nearly so much toward synthesis and evaluation.

In the area of longitudinal evaluation and especially evaluation of affec-
tive objectives relating to human development, the SDE model demands considerably
more expertise and instrumentation than is readily available for practitioners using
SDE approach. Certainly there are some usable and helpful attitude scales available,
orientation measurement instruments. On the other hand, measuring the kind of affect and value shift that is inherent in attempting to develop a human being in all aspects is, perhaps beyond the kinds of instrumentation and evaluation devices we have available. This is not to say that we should not attempt to evaluate these more longitudinal efforts. For example, in the Chapter IV discussion concerning police science program outputs, it was apparent that much of what the team determined as the proper elements for well-developed policemen were indeed values and personality variables that they believed were key ingredients for a well-developed policeman. The best and most logical evaluation of whether a person has acquired these ingredients and has further developed them to the extent needed to perform in a policeman’s role is simply to evaluate that person once he or she functions as a policeman. This means that the evaluation process for the SDE model is not going to end when one has completed a program or course. A more longitudinal effort is needed—one that attempts to follow up in a longer time frame, perhaps as long as five years after entering an occupational area. This type of evaluation system is obviously much more trouble, probably more costly, and requires a great deal more effort on the part of the institution. It does appear, however, that it would be well worth the effort, since it is the only logical way to determine whether or not a person has grown in his or her human development, especially as it relates to the occupational field.

A good many colleges have created fairly sophisticated follow-up evaluation instruments for their technical occupational programs. The motivation for these has often had no relationship to SDE in that the purpose is more often to discover whether or not the training programs have been cost effective for taxpayer or legislative groups or to assist advisory committees and college administrations to make proper decisions about continuing or altering training programs. These same techniques, however, would lend themselves to the longitudinal evaluation required by the SDE model. It will probably mean that additional instruments will need to be prepared, but the sampling techniques and the methods to reach students no longer enrolled in the institution, who have been employed in area business and industry for months or years, should be effective. These instruments again can be prepared with the help of the teams that created the model and should include questions in both the affective and cognitive areas.

Several colleges throughout the United States have attempted both to evaluate graduates in terms of competencies and to use a competency base for program completion. Two notable examples of four-year institutions are Alverno College and Mars Hill College which have attempted to set up criteria for graduates of their baccalaureate programs. This type of criteria evaluation lends itself well to the SDE model in that the definition of the well-developed person must be done prior to training and can be formulated in terms of competencies that should be achieved for the proper development at a given stage in one’s career. This type of competency-based evaluation also speaks to the critics who have said that formal education may
or may not make a difference in human beings; and since we have no way of proving its benefits, there is no reason to support education at high levels of funding. Many of the demands for accountability come from this questioning of the cost-benefit value of education. It is obvious in looking at the kinds of criteria included in the definition in Chapter IV of a well-developed policeman that it would be relatively simple to build an evaluation model that includes these criteria as the competency level for graduation or completion of the program. Although the study found no examples at this time, it appears feasible for community colleges to do this in their academic transfer programs as well. They could use a model similar to those used by the four-year institutions that have built competencies for their graduates—except that the competency would be scaled down to the one- or two-year level. Most appropriately, they would be scaled for those students who were achieving the Associate AA degree and would be at the two-year level. This would mean that a well-developed student, in order to achieve an AA degree, would have to achieve a set of competencies very similar to those that were worked out for the well-developed police science graduate. Once again, the toughest part of this type of evaluation is to include the affective elements which are key components and should not be left out.

It appears that all of our traditional older forms of evaluation would be helpful and should be continued if an institution chooses to use the student development model with whatever portion or number of its programs. On the other hand, it also seems apparent that if the SDE model is to reach its full potential, newer forms of evaluation must be developed that can deal with the affective area and, in addition, cover an extended period of time in order to determine the longitudinal benefits of some of the experiences received in their educational development. The evaluation of the formative elements is essential to the acceptance of the SDE model throughout the college. Certainly if those persons associated with attempting to use the model are not pleased with their efforts, the outcomes, the timing, and the resources devoted to installing the model, their efforts will not be expanded nor continued in the institution. Through a good formative evaluation process, the elements that are creating dissidence and negative feelings can be picked up and improved in time to reduce any long term hostile or negative feelings about the model. Measures and summative evaluation should work to build criteria, using the higher levels of knowledge. Students should always be made aware of the usefulness of the cognitive materials that they are acquiring; additional affective instruments that can provide evaluation in that area should be devised and located. Longitudinal effort should be expanded, using existing longitudinal efforts in the technical occupational area and additional ones designed to work with college transfer students.

One final note concerning evaluation. There is some concern that when educational institutions work with crucial areas such as values and beliefs, they may be going beyond the province of the school—that such matters should be left entirely
It seems prudent, as well as realistic, for administrators who attempt the SDE model, which has a heavy reliance upon this kind of personhood development and value system, that the evaluation component include as much representation from persons outside the college as possible. This will encourage not only better evaluation but a better understanding on the part of the general public as to the needs and purposes for dealing with the affective areas in the instructional units. Evaluation should always be incorporated into the planning process, and the SDE model makes this easy. If, for example, the planning group decides that one of the attributes of a well-developed person is self-reliance, and the evaluation of whether or not a student has grown in the dimension of self-reliance has an independent scale, and the use of this scale and the subsequent use of the evaluative information will be much more easily understood and supported if lay-groups have been involved in creating the definition and if the individual gets this information and is helped in interpreting it. Finally, the data should be used by the evaluative teams as a portion of the criteria for graduation or successful completion of a program.

**SUMMARY**

It was stated earlier that education in the United States is badly fragmented. This lacking of cohesive, well-supported organizational thrust gives rise to a situation that often times encourages fads and panaceas. It seems high time in looking toward a new century that we begin to bring some kind of general reasoning, organization, and consensus to our educational effort. It is painfully obvious today that the United States has no generally agreed-upon energy program and hence is floundering badly in an attempt to do a patchwork effort of moving from crisis to crisis. It seems to me that it is also true with education. We have moved from an early emphasis on moral training to basic skills training, to an education for life or life adjustment, back to an emphasis on heavy mathematical and scientific skills so that we could place a satellite in the sky to compete with the Soviet Union. It now appears as though we are moving into a "back-to-the-basics" fad without any general understanding of or agreement about what "the basics" are. The professionals in the field have even more problems to contend with, since they are now faced with demands for accountability, more productivity, and more and better teaching effectiveness. They are told that to achieve greater effectiveness, they should be using learning-style inventories, individualized approaches, additional media, competency-based and systematized strategies. It is clear that none of these approaches have anything to do with a concerted effort to improve individual human beings. It is likewise clear that the educational system in the United States is not designed in any aspect to develop human beings. Schools simply are not built for students. They may be built for legislators or board members, for administrators, faculty members, for local chambers of commerce, or parents, but certainly not for students. The student
development education model is unique in the sense that it makes it clear that the educational enterprise should be focused upon helping the student to be a well-developed human being. It demands that a definition be made of what a better developed human being is. This definition may be broad and general, as in the case of a liberal arts student who plans to transfer to a four-year institution, or it may be quite specific and fairly narrowly focused, as in the case of a graduate of a technical occupational program, such as police science, office occupation, or machinist. It permits the use of many, or perhaps all, strategies to assist students to achieve this growth and development. It tells teachers that their task is to help to develop all human beings—not to attempt to sort out some special group or class that is permitted to continue or achieve. It should be able to tell the public what they are getting for their money and how accountable their educational system is. It should be able to tell employers what kind of employees are available. It should, moreover, solicit their support in formulating a definition of what a well-developed employee is for any industry or type of position. It should be able to tell senior institutions of higher education what competencies the graduates from one and two-year programs have when they transfer. Perhaps most importantly, it should tell students what our society, our employers, and our senior institutions desire in the way of well-developed human beings. It should further provide students honest feedback about their development in terms of developmental criteria.

The student development education model can provide a framework, skeleton, or philosophical approach that can make sense out of the pressures, strategies, and concepts about what American education ought to be. It provides freedom for adaptation to local needs; it helps teachers know what their tasks are; it helps administrators to interpret the functions of the school to their communities; it solicits opinions from the lay public, from employers, students, faculty, counselors, and administrators. The major impact of student development education is probably upon those people charged with educational functions, primarily administrators, faculty, and counselors. Its impact, however, is probably the greatest, or at least can be the greatest, upon the nation as a whole. It seems to have the capability of bringing some order out of the chaos that too often characterizes American education.

It is encouraging that the first nation-wide study of student development education indicated that there is currently at least modest use of many of the aspects that make up the model in the two-year and four-year institutions of this country. Further, those professionals who are closest to the model indicate that this will be an increasingly useful concept in the future. The discouragement of finding little substantial benefits in terms of student outcomes to institutions using the model may be offset by the fact that no institution is currently using the model with much more than a modest effort. If additional colleges in the future attempt to install the model along the lines of the illustration (in Chapter IV) in which the impact is directly upon instruction, this disappointing finding may change as the impact of using the model is distributed throughout the colleges, especially as it relates to the instructional areas.
The uniqueness of the student development model is probably that it forces a philosophical turnaround and asks that schools and colleges be organized to help the student develop. The implication is clear that the institution should provide resources and assistance to help the student choose and understand what a well-developed student is, or more particularly, what he chooses to be as a well-developed human being. Throughout this book, the term human being and well-developed student have been used synonymously. Many writers make a clear distinction between these two terms, and perhaps the summary is a good place to indicate that this is an intentional choice on my part; for the student development model, it seems to me, intends that there not be a distinction between well-developed human beings and well-developed students. The essence of education should be a means to the end of helping a human being become a well-developed person. Education is not an end in itself, as many of our Ph.D. holders are finding on today’s tightening economic markets. Only as a person becomes more the kind of person he chooses to be, having those skills required to function in our social and economic realms, does education have meaning. The SDE model can assist Americans in designing their educational enterprise to more closely approximate the kinds of dreams, hopes, and aspirations that Americans have always given to the function called education. From our earliest writers, such as Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson, the high faith Americans hold in education has been clearly and forcefully articulated. In education, as in any institution, there tends to be a settling into fossilization. There is generated built-in resistance to change. In a world that changes as rapidly and is as complex as ours, it becomes a greater and greater task to keep our institutions in line with our changing focuses, needs, and desires. It is from this point of view that the SDE hold its greatest promise.

The SDE model forces change, because it causes the entire institution to refocus attention on its original purpose: developing human beings. When our job is defined in this manner, curriculum, professional roles, and priorities change. Education can then be viewed as but one of society’s institutions helping to develop human beings, and cooperation with other social agencies, such as the church and the home, becomes easier and routine.

Perhaps we may soon see the beautiful colors and patterns take shape as we begin weaving back the divided fabric of education. For only from a whole tapestry, one that prescribes diversity of pattern and many variations of color, can we expect to produce whole persons.
REFERENCE NOTES

CHAPTER I
2. Reich, *Greening*, p. 137.

CHAPTER II
CHAPTER III

APPENDIX I
Worthington's Student Development Use Questionnaire

1. When a student enters the institution, is he given assistance in establishing and understanding what goals he would like to achieve while in school?
   - virtually all students are given such assistance in setting goals
   - most students are given such assistance
   - some students are given such assistance
   - few or no students are given such assistance

2. Are performance standards agreed upon by the student and the educator who helps him so that the student and educator understand what the student has to do in order to achieve his goals?
   - such standards are established for virtually all students
   - standards are established for most students
   - standards are established for some students
   - standards are established for none or few students

3. How does your institution assess the abilities and needs of a student?
   - A variety of measures of the student's abilities and needs are taken for virtually all students. Some of these measures include testing, grade transcripts, counseling, academic advising, career planning, and other indices relevant for the student.
   - most of the measures mentioned above are used
   - some of the measures mentioned above are used
   - few or none of the measures mentioned above are used

4. After a student's abilities and needs have been assessed, are the results used to find a place and/or program within the institution that match the student's abilities and needs?
   - yes, for virtually all students
   - for most students
   - for some students
   - for a few or no students

5. Is the student informed as to the amount of work he must do in order to advance from his present level of needs and abilities to be able to reach the performance standards necessary to achieve his goals?
   - such information is explained to virtually all students
   - such information is explained to most students
   - such information is explained to some students
   - such information is not available or is rarely or never explained

6. Some educational institutions offer courses in human relations or human development, i.e., courses that seek to facilitate student growth both as a learner and as a person. To what extent are such courses offered in your institution?
   - sections are offered virtually all the time
   - sections are offered most of the time
   - sections are offered some of the time
   - sections are rarely or never offered
7. Who generally writes regular credit course or program objectives?

- a team that includes a subject matter expert, a counselor, an administrator, a student, and other relevant professionals
- a team that includes a subject matter expert, a counselor, and an administrator
- a subject matter expert and a counselor
- a subject matter expert

8. Have instructional competencies been developed for instructional programs, i.e., has agreement been formally reached on what the student must be able to do once he completes a program of study?

- yes, in virtually all programs
- in most programs
- in some programs
- rarely, or not at all

9. Have instructors received training in counseling techniques?

- yes, nearly all instructors have received such training
- most instructors have received training
- some instructors have received training
- few or none of them have received training

10. Do courses include objectives designed to foster student development in areas besides the traditional mastery of subject matter?

- virtually all courses include such objectives
- most courses include such objectives
- some courses include such objectives
- few or no courses include such objectives

11. Do counselors assist instructors in writing course objectives?

- yes, in nearly all courses
- in most courses
- in some courses
- in none or few courses

12. Are counselors assigned to specific instructional areas? (Answer "yes" to this question even if counselors have general duties in addition to their specific instructional area assignments.)

- yes, virtually all counselors are assigned to specific instructional areas
- most counselors have such specific assignments
- some counselors have such specific assignments
- few or no counselors have such specific assignments

13. Have counselors received training in the instructional techniques generally used by the institution?

- virtually all counselors have received such training
- most counselors have received such training
- some counselors have received such training
- few or no counselors have received such training
14. Do counselors work with instructors to assist them in diagnosing and correcting student learning problems?
   ______ quite often
   ______ most of the time
   ______ some of the time
   ______ rarely or not at all

15. Have counselors agreed on the characteristics a "well-developed" student should possess when he leaves the institution?
   ______ yes, agreement has been reached in writing
   ______ yes, agreement has been reached although no written document has been produced
   ______ there has been some discussion or limited agreement
   ______ there has been little or no discussion or agreement

16. Has the administration organized any teams to evaluate the overall climate of the institution as it pertains to student development?
   ______ yes, such teams are used regularly
   ______ yes, such teams are used from time to time
   ______ a team has been used on one or two occasions
   ______ no team has been organized

17. Has the administration organized any human awareness or development training for non-counseling and non-instructional staff to assist them in dealing better with students?
   ______ yes, for virtually all the staff
   ______ yes, for most of the staff
   ______ yes, for some of the staff
   ______ no, or for very few of the staff

18. Does the administration above your level actively support the exchange of ideas between student affairs people and the instructional staff?
   ______ yes, or consistently
   ______ most of the time
   ______ some of the time
   ______ rarely, or none of the time

19. Do administrators serve as members of teams developing course objectives?
   ______ yes, virtually all the time
   ______ most of the time
   ______ some of the time
   ______ rarely, or none of the time

20. Do administrators above your level show equal concern for all organizational areas involved in the student development process?
   ______ yes, or consistently
   ______ most of the time
   ______ some of the time
   ______ no, or infrequently
21. Look back over your answers to the questions above. If you marked the last response to every question above, then your institution is not presently employing the SDE concept. If, however, you made one of the other responses to any of the questions above, your institution employs SDE to at least some extent. Based on your responses to the questions above, does your institution utilize SDE to at least some extent?

___ yes
___ no

If "no", skip to Section III entitled DEMOGRAPHIC DATA. If "yes", answer the questions below before proceeding to Section III.

II. INSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF STUDENT DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION CONCEPT--
By looking back over the first twenty questions you should now have a clearer understanding of the SDE concept. Basically, the first response to each question represented the "purest" incidence of one of the SDE traits; the other responses signify another usage level of the trait. Please note, however, that your responses do not mean that your institution is "good" or "bad"; for that reason, don't feel tempted to change your responses. At present little is known about the effect SDE has on an institution or its students. Your responses to the questions below will assist the researchers in detecting possible relationships.

1. To what extent is the concept used in your organization?
   ___ used in virtually all programs
   ___ used in most programs
   ___ used in some programs
   ___ used in a few scattered programs

2. How long has your institution employed the concept?
   ___ two years or less
   ___ between two and four years
   ___ five years or more

3. Based on your assessment of your institution, what will the future of SDE be at your school?
   ___ use of SDE will increase
   ___ will remain relatively stable
   ___ will decline
   ___ will be generally discontinued

4. How would you describe the organizational relationship between student affairs and instructional affairs at your college?
   (Check one.)
   ___ one structure
   ___ separate but equal
   ___ separate but unequal (Which one is at a lower level?)
   ___ separate, equal, and adversarial
   ___ separate, unequal, and adversarial (Which one is at a lower level?)
5. How would you describe the professional/personal relationships between the student affairs staff and the instructional staff at your school?
   ___ team members
   ___ basically cooperative
   ___ distant, cool
   ___ adversaries

6. More specifically, how would you describe the relationship between counselors and instructors?
   ___ team members
   ___ basically cooperative
   ___ distant, cool
   ___ adversaries

7. What effect has SDE had on the status of student affairs within the institution?
   ___ has improved impact of student affairs
   ___ has had little or no effect
   ___ has decreased the significance of student affairs

8. Has SDE allowed student affairs to exert more influence on curriculum design?
   ___ yes, to a large extent
   ___ yes, to some extent
   ___ has had little or no effect

9. What effect has SDE had on the relationship between the major organizational units of the college?
   ___ has helped establish closer, more cooperative relationships
   ___ has had little or no effect
   ___ has damaged relationships

10. Of the traditional administrative, instructional, and student affairs areas in an educational organization, indicate which areas, if any, have been instrumental in supporting or opposing the concept.

11. What developments at your institution have served to promote or inhibit SDE?
    ___ promoters___

    ___ inhibitors___
III. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA--to be answered by all participants in this survey

Information obtained in this section will be used to allow the researchers to determine what relationships may exist between the extent to which an institution uses SDE and the student success rates for that institution. Once again, all material you supply will not be used in any way that singles out your institution for scrutiny. In answering the few questions below, feel free to consult others in your institution who may assist you in supplying the data requested.

1. Your college is located in a:
   ____ rural area--not close to a large population center or in a city with a population less than 15,000
   ____ medium-sized city--located in or near a community whose population is between 15,000-150,000 and at least 30 miles from a larger metropolitan area
   ____ metropolitan area--located in or within 30 miles of a city with a population greater than 150,000

2. Approximately how many students are enrolled at your institution?
   ____ less than 3,000  ____ 3,000-7,000
   ____ 7,000-11,000  ____ 11,000-15,000
   ____ over 15,000

3. Of these students, what percentages of the following ethnic groups make up the student body?
   ____ Black
   ____ Caucasian
   ____ Latin American
   ____ Other (If any other ethnic group(s) make up more than 5% of the student population, please list that group and its individual percentage(s):____________________)

4. Does your college?
   ____ generally accept all applicants (open door)
   ____ generally employ academic admission requirements

5. What percentage of the student body receives financial aid?____%?

6. During the past school year, what was the average grade point average at your institution? (based on 4.00=A, 3.00=B, etc.)
   ______ (Please specify to the second decimal place. e.g., 2.18, 2.37, etc.)

7. For the purposes of this study, attrition is defined as the percentage of students who withdraw from school without completing the course(s) in which they are enrolled. Based on this definition, what is the attrition rate at your institution? ______%?

8. Estimate the percentage of the grades below that were awarded during the past school year. A_____, B_____, C_____, D_____, F_____, Incomplete_____. If your school has another grading policy, please list the grades used and the accompanying percentages.
9. Does your institution have a formalized process of student 
evaluation of instruction? yes ____, no ______. If "yes", 
do the results show that students are: 
____ quite satisfied with the quality of instruction 
____ generally satisfied with the quality of instruction 
____ somewhat satisfied with the quality of instruction 
____ dissatisfied with the quality of instruction

10. Does your college have a college transfer program, i.e., the 
first two years of a baccalaureate or similar degree? 
____ yes 
____ no

If "yes", please note the results of any follow-up studies that 
have been done to assess the success of your students when they 
transfer to other institutions.

11. Please cite the results of any studies that have been done to 
assess the employability of your graduates. (advisory committee 
reports, employer surveys, etc.)

12. ADDITIONAL DATA: If you have further information you consider 
relevant to this study, please include it below or attach 
additional sheets.

Thank you again for your time and care in completing this survey. 
Please return it in the envelope provided.
Determine Philosophy of Education

Determine Psychology of Learning

These statements make explicit the mission of the institution. The Philosophy of Education describes who and what is taught. The Psychology of Learning describes the method of teaching to which the institution subscribes. The entire institution as well as community members should have input into these statements.

Describe Developed Student (Program)

A large group, made up of students, instructors, counselors, administrators, and community representatives, describe what they would want the student to be like when he/she has completed the program. The description should speak to attitudes, skills and knowledge.

(example - Police Science - be able to take control of a situation)

Task Analysis

When vocational/technical programs are considered, a task analysis is advisable. A task analysis is a careful description of what a competent person does when he is performing on the job. It should be completed with the help of the advisory committee and/or community members working in the field.

(example - prepare working drawings for steel framed structures using standard architectural graphic language)

Write Initial Competencies (Program)

A small group, (instructor, ID and counselor or administrator) will write competency statements based on the description of a developed student and the task analysis. These statements should be written as measurable as possible. Although some competencies cannot be stated measurably they should be included if they are important to the curriculum. These statements should not refer to content only, but rather the final use to which the content is put.

(example - Nursing - establishes and maintains interpersonal relationships)
Review Competencies

The large group should review the competencies worded by the small group, adding or deleting where appropriate.

Finalize Competencies

The small group using the input from the large group review would write the agreed upon list of competencies for the program.

Development Component Competencies (Course)

Small groups will write competencies for each course in the program which are compatible with the program competencies. As with the program competencies, these statements should refer to the final use to which the student will put any skill or information.

(Example - Black History - the student will use historical data to make decisions on current social problems related to Blacks)

Screen Component

A small group will screen the competency statements for each course to assure:

1. that courses do not have excessive repetition of competencies
2. the competencies are as measurable as possible
3. that course competencies are congruent with program competencies
4. that all vectors of development, self, environment, and knowledge are represented adequately
5. the competencies are at all appropriate levels of Bloom's taxonomy.

Design Assessment Tasks and Evaluative Tasks for Each Competency

A small group will create a pre test activity for each competency which the instructor can use in class to determine the level of achievement of his/her students. A similar post test activity will be created for the instructors use in determining whether the student has learned. This activity might or might not be used to assign a grade. The activities for both pre and post could include interviews, simulations, written examinations, self assessments, oral reports, etc.
Review Components, Assessments, Evaluations

The large group will review the work of the small groups adding or deleting as necessary.

Finalize Curriculum

A small group using the input from the large group will make the final revisions of the written curriculum.

SDE IMPLEMENTATION

Assess Student Goals and Competencies

The instructor with the help of the small group will assess the goals of each student in the class. The pre test activity will be used also to determine the level of competency on either the first or all competencies to be taught in that class.

Design Learning Plans

Using the information from the student assessment the small group will work as an on-going team to develop learning plans for teaching the competencies.

Determine Development Needs

As the team works to devise learning plans, the members will identify the areas in which they wish to gain more expertise.

(Example - instructor wants to learn more about how to lead a discussion)

Plan Staff Development Needs

The administration will work with the faculty to provide instruction or information in areas that the faculty has identified.
Implement Staff Development

The members of the team will participate in these activities that will improve their own professional skills.

Implement Plans

The instructor will teach the class, using the plans developed by himself and other team members.

Evaluate Student Competencies PRODUCT

The team will use the post test activities to evaluate the students growth in each competency. This measure may or may not be used as a grade determination.

SDE EVALUATION

SUBSTANTIVE

Evaluate Course Content (Yearly)

Each year a small group should review the content of each course to assure its relevance.

Evaluate Task Analysis (3-5 years)

Because of rapid advances in technology and social change, a task analysis should be completed in each vocational/technical program every 3-5 years.

Evaluate Philosophy - Psychology (3-5 years)

At intervals of 3-5 years, large groups should re-think the mission of the school to assure that the institution is meeting student and community needs.
Evaluate Entire Program (3-5 years)

The entire program should be reviewed by a large group every 3-5 years to assure that competencies are still viable.

PROCESS

Evaluate Curriculum Development Process

A continuous feedback should exist as to the method of curriculum development. As more workable processes are identified, they should be used.

Evaluate Implementation Process

Students should have the opportunity to evaluate each course they take. In addition, division chairmen should evaluate the implementation process.
Determine Phil. of Educ. (Inst.)
Determine Psych. of Learning (Inst.)
Describe Developed Student (Program)
Write Initial Competencies (Program)
Review Competencies
Finalize Competencies
Task Analysis

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Plan Staff Development
Determine Development Needs

IMPLEMENTATION

Student Assessment for Competence
Design Learning Plans
Implement Development Plans
Evaluate Student Competencies Product

Evaluate Task Analysis (3-5 yrs.)
Evaluate Phil. - Psy (3-5 yrs.)
Evaluate Entire Program (3-5 yrs.)
Evaluate Curriculum Development Process (as needed)
Evaluate Implementable Process (as needed)

SCREEN COMPONENTS

DEVELOP COMPONENT COMPETENCIES (Course)
SCREEN COMPONENTS
DESIGN ASSESSMENT TASKS AND ASSESSMENT EVALUATION
REVIEW COMPONENTS ASSESSMENT EVALUATION
FINALIZE CURRICULUM

SUBSTANTIVE EVALUATION

PROCESS EVALUATION
= SMALL GROUP

= LARGE GROUP

= INSTRUCTOR

= ADMINISTRATION

= STUDENTS
A HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF
COMPETENCIES FOR BLACK HISTORY

GENERATION I

Purpose - to identify the competencies a Black History student should have when he/she has completed the course.

Team - Large Group - Faculty from Social Science, faculty from other disciplines, counselors, students, instructional developer, administrators.

GENERATION II

Purpose - to take the information provided by the large group and synthesize it into competency statements.

Team - Small Group - Administrator, instructional developer

GENERATION III

Purpose - to review and revise the work of the small group to assure that it represents the thinking of the large group.

Team - Large Group (see above)

GENERATION IV

Purpose - to determine if the competencies are valid by fitting the course content into the framework of the competencies.

Team - Small Group - Black History instructor, administrator

GENERATION V

Purpose - to select one unit (urbanization) from Black History 120 to develop objectives.

Team - Small Group - Instructional team composed of 2 administrators, instructional developer, Black History instructor.

GENERATION VI

Purpose - to write informal objectives for the unit on urbanization for student use.

Team - Instructional team (see above)
GENERATION VII

Purpose - to create strategies to teach the objectives for the urbanization unit.

Team - Instructional team

GENERATION VIII

Purpose - to create an examination to test the objectives for the unit on urbanization.

Team - Instructional team

GENERATION IX

Purpose - to design an evaluation instrument to assess the planning and implementation of the unit.

Team - Instructional team

GENERATION X

Purpose - follow up session to evaluate the curriculum process.

Team - Instructional team
BLACK HISTORY COMPETENCIES

Historical Identity
Relationship of History to Current Problems
Important Individuals
Role Models
Present Problems in Dallas, Texas
Cultural Aspects - Art, etc.
Sense of Involvement in Community
Basic Economic Situations
Cultural Beginnings
Understand More About Yourself
Large Land Holding System
Minority Struggles
Art & Literature
Myths of History
Role that Black People have Played in Society
Neglected History
Identifying with Oppressed People of the World
Human Rights
BLACK HISTORY COMPETENCIES

**Formal 1.** The student will be able to use historical evidence to influence others to view Blacks more positively.

**Informal 1.** You will know Black history well enough to talk with other people about Black history.

**Formal 2.** The Black student will feel a sense of racial pride that will increase his feelings of personal worth.

**Informal 2.** You will have a rewarding feeling about you and your people.

**Formal 3.** A non-black student will feel more positive toward the capabilities, attitudes, values of Blacks.

**Informal 3.** You will understand and appreciate Black people more by knowing their history.

**Formal 4.** The student will use historical data to make decisions on current social problems related to Blacks.

**Informal 4.** You will understand Black history well enough to see how some of the problems Black people have today began.

**Formal 5.** The student will feel a need to actively work toward remedies of black problems.

**Informal 5.** You will become involved in activities on the campus or in the local community that will help solve Black problems.
BLACK HISTORY COMPETENCIES

Formal 1. Can use an understanding of history to influence others to view Blacks more objectively.

Informal 1. You know Black history well enough to talk with other people about Black history.

Formal 2. Feels a sense of pride in the Black race which increases feelings of personal worth.

Informal 2. You have a rewarding feeling about you and your people.

Formal 3. Uses historical data to make decisions on current social problems related to Blacks.

Informal 3. You understand Black history well enough to see how some of the problems Black people have today began.


Informal 4. You become involved in activities on the campus or in the local community that will help solve Black problems.
COMPETENCIES AND CONTENT

History 120
Afro-American History

A study of the role of the Negro in American History; overview of the slave trade and slavery in the United States; focus on contributions of the Negro in the U.S. from colonial times. Emphasis on political, economic and sociological factors of the 20th century.

Competencies 1A. Can use an understanding of history to influence others to view Blacks more objectively.

2B. You know Black history well enough to talk with other people about Black history.

Content:
I. The origins of the Slave Trade.
II. Slavery: The "Peculiar" Institution
III. The "Why" of Segregation
IV. The meaning of class in the Black Community

Competencies 2A. Feels a sense of pride in the Black race which increases feelings of personal worth.

2B. You have a rewarding feeling about you and your people.

Content:
I. Africa history and heritage
II. The role of Blacks in the Revolutionary War
III. Resistance: The Civil War and the Black American
IV. The Abolitionist

Competencies 3A. Uses historical data to make decisions on current social problems related to Blacks.

3B. You understand Black history well enough to see how some of the problems Black people have begun.

Content:
I. The Urbanization of Black folks
II. The Impact of the Great Depression
III. Black workers and the American Labor Movement
IV. Key Issues in Black America:
A. Education
B. Politics
C. Religion
D. Sports
E. Economics

Competencies 4A. Actively works toward remedies of Black problems.

4B. You become involved in activities on the campus or in the local community that will help solve Black problems.
Content: I. "The Movement"
   A. From Civil Rights to Human Rights
   B. The Black Revolution
   C. Summing Up - The Afro-American
120 Black History - Unit on Urbanization

1. Using his own words the student will be able to state a definition of urbanization that includes:

   1. industrialization
   2. migration
   3. changes in 5 basic social institutions

   1. family
   2. economy
   3. religion
   4. government
   5. education

2. Using at least 3 causes the student will evaluate the decision of those blacks who choose to migrate to the City of Detroit after World War I

   1. natural disasters
   2. industrialization
   3. post war optimism
   4. demand for labor
   5. social oppression
   6. 
   7. 
   8. 

3. The student will describe the response of southerners to the failure of northern industrialists to meet the expectations of blacks

4. Given the three major black responses to urbanization the student will be able to write a paragraph for each that describes a specific force or event that supported that response

   1. fight for equal rights
   2. Marxism and Socialist theory
   3. Black Nationalist
5. The student will state the 3 major themes in the Harlem renaissance, and list at least 2 contributors to each

1) New Negro - identity - pride
   Alan Locke, Hughes, Cullen, Johnson

2) Protest
   McKay

3) Cultural Awakening

6. As a result of individual research the student will describe at least one of the 6 social problems resulting from urbanization and list sources

   1. lack of housing
   2. job discrimination
   3. education
   4. crime
   5. violence
   6.
   7.
   8.
OBJECTIVES FOR UNIT ON URBANIZATION

1. Know the meaning of "urbanization" so that you can write a definition that includes the items discussed in class.

2. After learning about the migration of Blacks to the cities following World War I, give your own opinion of whether this was a good decision.

3. Describe the response of southerners to the failure of northern industrialists to meet the expectations of Blacks.

4. Write a paragraph about each of three major Black responses to urbanization and describe a specific event or social force that supported each response.

5. List the 3 major themes of the Harlem Renaissance and list at least 2 contributors to each.

6. Research then write a one page report on one of the following 6 social problems:
   1) lack of housing
   2) job discrimination
   3) education
   4) crime
   5) violence
   6) health care
STRATEGIES FOR UNIT ON URBANIZATION-BLACK HISTORY 120

DAY 1

Objective 1 - Urbanization

Strategies - hand out objectives - give overview of unit
pre-test over objectives informally - ask for
sources for information
give lecture on urbanization - Annette Floyd
hand out on urbanization
assign students to:

1) read handout
2) develop 10 items multiple test
3) develop a one page report on a current social
   problem - prepare to participate in panel

Tasks - find or write handout - Al
locate resource persons for lecture - Al
locate list of sources for social problems

Evaluate - Write a definition

DAY 2

Objective 1 - Urbanization

Strategy - students exchange test
discussion of test

Tasks

Evaluate - Write a definition

Objective 2 - Causes of migration

Strategy - hear blues album - Gene
student tasks - write out reasons suggested in album
assign reading for day 3

Tasks - locate record - Gene, Lincoln
prepare discussion - Gene
prepare assignment hand out - Linc In

Evaluate - evaluate decisions to migrate
DAY 3

Objective 2 - Causes of migration

Strategy - Dramatic reading of portions of "The Big Sea" or other

Tasks - locate specific reading - Don
locate reader - Don

Objective 4 - 3 responses to urbanization

Strategy - small group discussions (3) to exchange information on primary sources
assign text chapter

Evaluate - write a paragraph

DAY 4

Objective 3 - response of southerners

Strategy - lecture - Gene

Evaluate - describe response

Objective 5 - 3 themes of Harlem Renaissance

Strategy - show filmstrip on Harlem Renaissance

Tasks - arrange for filmstrip

Evaluate - state the 3 themes

DAY 5

Objective 5 - 3 themes of Harlem Renaissance

Strategy - read short paragraphs representing each theme
group consensus exercise

Tasks - locate paragraphs
reproduce paragraphs

Evaluate - state 3 themes
DAY 6

Objective 6 - Social problems

Strategy - small group discussion to combine information and choose panel members
panel discussion - question - How effectively is Dallas dealing with each of these problems?
 Evaluate - describe one social problem

DAY 7

Evaluation - test of what was learned (product)
critique of unit (process)
1. In your own words write a definition of "urbanization" that includes the major ideas presented in class.

2. In your opinion did those Blacks who chose to migrate to the cities after World War I make a wise decision? Discuss your opinion below and include at least 3 of the reasons Blacks migrated:

3. Describe the response of southerners to the failure of northern industrialist to meet the expectations of Blacks.
4. Write a paragraph for each of the following major responses to urbanization and give a specific event or force that supported that response.

1. Fight for equal rights

2. Marxism and Socialist Theory

3. Black Nationalists
5. Give the 3 major themes of the Harlem Renaissance and list at least 2 contributors to each.

1

2

3
EVALUATION OF UNIT

Which activities in this unit best helped you learn?

Were there any activities that you did not learn from? If so which ones?

Amount you learned from this unit (check one)

very little ___________ some___________ a great deal ___________

Amount you enjoyed this unit (check one)

very little ___________ some___________ a great deal ___________

Suggestions and comments