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THE EFFECTS OF AN OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE PROGRAM ON VOCATIONAL INTEREST INVENTORY SCORES

A Thesis

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of an occupational experience program on interest inventory scores. A pretest posttest control group design was used. An exploratory program of peer counselor training was the treatment, or independent variable. Scores on counseling related scales of the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey were the dependent variables. The subjects were involved in the occupational experience program over a six months period. A control group received no occupational experience program. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test and observation tables were used to measure results.

Significant differences were not found for the matched groups on the pretest. However, a significant difference in the two groups was found on the posttest, after the occupational experience program. Six of the twelve OEG subjects decreased in their counseling related scales after treatment, and six increased their scores. Nine subjects of the twelve in the control group decreased their scores from pre-treatment to post-treatment testing, and three subjects increased their scores. Group scores for both the occupational experience group and the control group declined on the posttest.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

Many proponents of career exploration programs for youth support their results of these programs purely by subjective judgment (Fessant & Kenneke, 1973; Gearon, 1973; Smith & Davisson, 1973). However no one has attempted to observe changes in interests after an occupational experience career exploration program. Therefore, it was the purpose of the present study to observe changes in interest inventory scores after an occupational experience.

Rationale

Secondary counseling has been charged with the task of providing many services to meet the needs of school youth. Among these services are the following: the disemination of career and vocational information, testing and test interpretation, application procedures for institutions of higher education, placement, personal counseling services, and as of late, the concept of providing psychological education. Counselors find means of providing career and vocational information, but rarely does the counselor have the opportunity to provide real occupational experiences for his counselees.

Students today are obviously much more aware of, and exposed to the world of work than were high school graduates ten or twenty years ago.

This is accomplished through various programs at the secondary level that expose them to work experiences. Such programs are the high school work-study program, distributive education, vocational office education, and others. At the same time, the students are unnerved by the listing of literally thousands of job titles and descriptions. To complicate matters, experts are projecting the coming of thousands of new job titles. Most guidance programs are using outdated career programs in this day of revolutionary career changes.

It is worth much to the individual to assess early in life whether he or she would find fulfillment in various types of careers. If, after an experience in performing the tasks demanded of the particular field, the individual sees that he does not wish to follow this career, time is available for investigating other fields. On the other hand, if the student sees promise in a field from actual experience, much is gained from this exposure.

Educators, especially guidance experts, advocate the individualization of educational offerings, but guidance services are frequently the same for all pupils. Few attempts have been made to provide real work experiences for students while in the high school setting. Schools should have the task of creating experiences that give their students a realistic view of the world of work. The secondary counselor has opportunities within his own school to provide true-to-life occupational experiences to one particular group--prospective counselors--those students who indicate an interest in working with others in career areas such as high school counselor, psychologist, psychiatrist, or social work.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions were made:

1. Interests of high school seniors were accurately reflected by the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey.

2. The high school seniors under study answered truthfully and sincerely to all questions on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey.

3. Occupational scales on the KOIS requiring counseling skills included: high school counselor, all areas of social work, psychology and psychiatry, the ministry, and some medical related professions such as physical therapy, etc.

4. Peer counseling sessions provided experiences that were representative of the types of problems faced by counselors.

5. The seriousness of problems faced by the student counselors were correlated with the training level which they achieved.

Hypothesis

Stated in the null form, the hypothesis for this study was that there would be no significant difference between those students who expressed interest and participated in the occupational experience program, and those students who did not express an interest and did not participate in the occupational experience program.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study were as follows:

1. The small sample size was a limitation and presented the need for qualifying any attempt to generalize the results obtained.

2. The student counselors were chosen by the investigator on the basis of scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, not on the basis of random procedures.

3. The research was limited to twenty-four seniors in one high school. The high school was selected because of convenience and accessibility to the investigator.

4. The Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (Form DD) was used as the measuring instrument in this study. This interest survey has been under question in much of the current literature in reference to its test-retest reliability.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this research the following definitions were employed:

1. Occupational Experience--An exposure to a particular field of work involving many of the conditions which are characteristic of that field. In this study the occupational experience was a career exploration program and consisted of peer counselor training.

A. Peer Counseling--Students counseling other students in regard to academic affairs, career information, and personal social matters.

B. Microcounseling--The method of presenting counseling techniques and skills to the peer counselors.

2. Vocational Interest Inventory--The Kuder Occupational Interest Inventory (KOIS) Form DD.

3. Counselors-in-training--Same as peer counselors.

Procedure

For the purposes of this study, categories appearing on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey which were considered as counseling related occupations included the following: high school counselor; minister/ religious educational director; physician/nurse; physical therapist; psychologist/psychiatrist; clinical psychologist; social caseworker; group social worker; and psychiatric social worker.

Two groups of students were studied. One group, made up of 12 students had expressed to the investigator an interest in pursuing fields of study which would necessitate some counselor training. These 12 students were assigned to an occupational experience program, which consisted of peer counselor training. The program lasted from October of 1973 to April of 1974, and included skill training in counseling and also actual counseling contacts. The group met once weekly for one and one-half to two hours of activities. The microcounseling format of counselor skill training was used to train members of the occupational experience group. The other group, made of 12 students also, expressed no interest in pursuing a career in the counseling related professions. These students served as the control group and did not participate in

an occupational experience program. Pre-treatment and post-treatment scores on the KOIS were obtained for both groups. A comparison was made between the groups and data were analyzed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test.

Summary and Organization of this Study

The written report of this research was divided into five chapters. Chapter one contained the problem, the rationale, the assumptions, the hypothesis, limitations of the study, definition of terms, procedure, and the summary and organization of the study. Chapter two contained a review of the literature pertinent to the problem, and was divided into three sections, one dealing with research in the area of career exploration programs, one dealing with the training of peer counselors, and another dealing with research related to microcounseling. Chapter three contained a review of the methods and procedures used in the study. Chapter four contained the results of the research, and Chapter five contained the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter first reviewed research related to career exploration programs for youth. A number of studies were presented to demonstrate the range of such programs. Secondly, the chapter reviewed research in the area of peer counseling. Here studies showed that peer counselors were being used effectively from the elementary level to the college level of education. The chapter was concluded by a look at research related to microcounseling. Several studies suggested that micro-counseling was being effectively used as a systematic means for counselor training. A summary of Chapter Two finalized the chapter.

Career Exploration

Career Education

Career education has traditionally been the primary function of the school counselor. Many speculate that career education will become inseparable from the counselor's role (Hoyt, 1972; Gysbers & Moore, 1972). Others feel that this will be brought about by the restructuring of the school's curriculum and because of the call by top-ranked administrators (Marland, 1972; Bottoms, 1972) for the fusing of academic and vocational education. Marland (1971), in his first major address after becoming United States Commissioner of Education, called for the

abolition of the general education curriculum and its replacement by career education.

During the early 1970's career education has rapidly become a part of the current educational scene. Hoyt and others (1972) have defined career education in the following manner, which stresses the importance of the individual's total involvement in career education:

> Career education is defined as the total effort of public education and the community aimed at helping all individuals become familiar with the values of a work oriented society, to integrate these values into their personal value systems, and to implement these values into their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual [p. 1].

Ginzberg (1971) states that career education is a lifelong process which begins at the time an individual begins school. With this concept in mind, Resnick and Ricciuti (1972) report that the U. S. Department of Education calls for career education to be a K-12 program. In accordance with this call, Miller (1973) outlined a program which was developed by the Michigan Department of Education. The program's philosophy involved the developing in the child at the elementary level an awareness of the educational and occupational world, providing occupational and educational experiences and explorations which stimulated the child's thinking at the early secondary level, and providing specialized training for a specific occupation or a grouping of closely related occupations at the late secondary level.

Many studies have attempted to determine the effects of career exploration programs by youth. Most of these suggest programs which personalize career exploration for youth. DeFleur (1966) found that

personal contact as a method of learning produced the greatest depth of understanding of vocations. Stanley (1973) ventured to say that perhaps the major function of career education was indeed the exposure of the individual to the occupation in a personalized way.

Johnson (1971) contends that it is not easy to offer vocational experiences for our youth today as he writes:

> Actual vocational experiences for youth in school are increasingly difficult to provide as advancing technology, increasing educational requirements, rapidly proliferating job titles, and population shifts away from the working city to the residential suburbs have widened the gap between youth and the world of work. Simulations offer a way of giving students interesting, brief, introductory experiences in a variety of occupations to test their interests and to serve as a basis for further exploration [p. 30].

Simulations

Job simulations are being widely used as a means of career exploration. Simulated vocational kits wherein the student actually works at tasks like those performed by many workers are beginning to be developed. Krumboltz and others (1967), and Krumboltz, Baker, and Johnson (1968) developed a two-phase program in the simulation of work experience. Developed at Stanford University, the kits first sought to impress upon the student the importance of the specific occupation. Students were then allowed to use the kit to solve problems representative of that occupation.

Nelson and Krumboltz (1970) tested two alternative ways of simulating career exploration. Fifty-five non-college bound eleventh grade males were assigned either to a problem-solving simulated

occupational experience in appliance repair service, or to a general career kit. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in the two approaches in terms of their ability to inspire career exploration.

Johnson's (1971) research in job simulations in X-ray and laboratory technology for high school students produced interest in those occupations. One hundred and twenty ninth and tenth grade girls were allowed to perform simulated tasks related to health occupations, with the result that many of them continued to explore more in detail after the simulation.

MOLD (Making of Life's Decisions) was reported by Johnson and Myrick (1972) as a workable simulation exercise. These authors found that the simulations were interesting to the 36 students questioned in one study. The program had a positive effect on students' acquisition of educational and occupational information.

Fessant and Kenneke (1973) related a new concept used by Oregon's State Department of Education. It consisted of a delivery system for industrial arts career exploration. Involving five school districts, the plan stressed the understanding through experiences by the high school students. Students exposed to simulated hands-on experiences in the industrial arts while in a classroom situation.

Another type of simulation for career exploration was described by Kinsler (1973). The American Vocational Association and the Motor Vehicle Manufacturers Association have developed a partnership between their organizations and secondary and post-secondary education for

simulating automotive assembly repair and instruction. The program was designed to permit students to be exposed to facets of the tasks performed by automotive mechanics and technicians. The program not only teaches entry skills and knowledge, but allows students the opportunity to explore the field before actually beginning the training, the author stated.

Also used in a classroom situation is a simulation called 'labor versus management'. Gearon (1973) related that the game was not only excellent for career exploration, but also for social studies classes. Through role-playing, students obtain insights into relations of labor and management. Students are confronted with labor problems to which they must relate many facets of labor positions; then they must make decisions on the basis of what they have learned.

Still another simulation game, the Life Career Game, incorporates decision making into hypothetical educational and occupational situations. Boocock (1967) found that the game was helpful in arousing students' interest and in communicating factual occupational information. Johnson and Euler (1972), however, found that the Life Career Game was less effective in teaching educational and occupational material than teachers who used the lecture method of presenting the information.

School-Community Cooperatives

Many persons advocate the use of community resources as a means of providing career exploration. The McCormick Plan, reported by Carey and Marshall (1973) is gaining popularity as a means of filling the school-industry gap. Developed by the Community Involvement Committee of

McCormick and Company, Inc., and the staff of General Henry Lee Junior High School in Baltimore, the plan is a comprehensive one. The plan started out by getting students to the plants in the community for educational, recreational, and cultural experiences. Students are allowed to spend entire days at the plant. They visit different departments of the plant such as spice mills, computer operations, and quality control. Students are permitted to choose one job area in which to perform as many tasks as they safely and adequately can.

Using the school--community cooperative principle, Smith and Davisson (1973) reported results of a career exploration program for college-bound seniors at University High School in Urbana, Illinois. During one semester a student chooses two successful professional persons to act as his resource persons. The student observes and assists the professionals in various aspects of their jobs, asks questions, and clarifies his interests with the help of professional persons. An extension of the resourse person concept was related by Hirsch (1973). Involving 800 students in New York, this exploration program is called the 'executive high school internship'. Interns take 'sabbatical leaves' from their high schools for one semester. Four days per week are spent with the student's sponsor who may hold positions ranging from city government jobs, to newspaper editors, to hospital administrators. The students become involved not only in programs operations, but also conferences and social gatherings involving the professional persons.

A program combining videotaping and field trips was reported by Gilgannon (1973) in Hazelton Area School District, Hazelton, Pennsylvania.

Videotapes are made of the professional persons as they go about their daily tasks. Students view these and then after having had time to think of questions about what they saw in the tapes, the students are allowed to tour the businesses and plants and are allowed to meet with the workers and clear up possible questions that they may have.

Among the career theorists who consider the field trip as a major tool in career exploration is Rost (1973), who feels that these trips have two main functions. One is that students are allowed to see the real purpose in studying certain subjects in school as a result of seeing workers who must use these skills constantly on the job. Secondly, young people can determine whether or not they would want to pursue certain careers after viewing some of the working conditions.

Jepsen (1972), in a study of 262 rural ninth grade students, used videotaped occupational fieldtrips to encourage inquiry into career exploration. As few industries were within commuting distance of the rural schools, the videotaped method provided the only convenient exposure to industry.

Isaacson (1966) spoke of 'diversified cooperative education', his term for the harmonious cooperation of the high school and local employers in allowing students to gain occupational experiences. Isaacson felt that this allowed the student to become more mature in his economic, social, and home life relationships. Carey and Marshall (1973) offered their thoughts on the relationship that should exist between school and industry as they stated:

> Business and industry should provide work stations for cooperative education students; employment agencies

> should offer job information and help to place students; advisory committees should give advice on curriculum and evaluation; employers and labor organizations should furnish materials to enrich the curriculum and bring students closer to the realities of the world of work [p. 28].

Additional Exploratory Programs

Dodson (1971), Avent (1965), Englander (1965), and Mezzano (1969) all used informal talks by speakers to encourage career exploration by youth. These students agree that bringing persons from different professions into the classroom enhances a child's awareness of a specific occupation, and contend that this should be a part of teaching career exploration through the classroom setting.

Hamilton and Bergland (1972) reported another use of the classroom situation to develop interest in the world of work for youth. In a study of 15 eleventh graders, the experimenters used videotapes, audiotapes, and live modeling sessions by peers to stimulate career exploration behaviors among adolescents. The peer social models concept offered positive results for the experimenters as it was reported that students who previously sought little or no information about possible educational and vocational goals, did so after this exposure.

Implications for Future Programs

Sinick, Gorman, and Hoppock (1971) contend that career exploration programs are not long enough in terms of time. Implications from a comprehensive study of 44 dissertations, theses, and journal articles on career exploration programs indicate that "experimental variables must be given adequate opportunity--in terms of duration of application--to

demonstrate any effects [p. 134]". Further, Flanagan (1973) quoted research findings from project TALENT to substantiate the same idea. (TALENT was a comprehensive career exploration proposal). The findings also suggest that career exploration must start earlier and encompass more time if the secondary school education is to be relevant to the needs and plans of youth. Morrill and Forrest (1970) supported this thought and carried the concept one step further by implying that our total career education program does not prepare students for the changing environment. Exploration programs must change with the very rapid changes in the world of work, according to those authors.

Peer Counseling

Counselors have known for a number of years that trained lay persons can bring about positive changes in counselees through counseling sessions. Carkhuff (1969) indicated that:

> Lay persons can be trained to function at minimally facilitative levels of conditions related to constructive client change in relatively short periods of time, and lay counselors can effect significant constructive change in clients [p. 11].

Carkhuff (1971, 1972a, 1972b), in more studies, related that trained lay persons could effect significant changes in counselees' lives through systematic programs. Truax and Carkhuff (1965a, 1965b, 1967) showed that with less than 100 hours of training, students in clinical and counseling psychology and hospital attendants were able to closely approximate the level of therapeutic conditions communicated by experienced psychotherapists. An extension of these studies confirmed that

there were no differences in levels of accurate empathy or nonpossessive warmth shown by lay persons and experienced therapists.

Peer counselors, lay persons, and paraprofessionals are being used on all levels of education. Steenland (1973) reported that the results of a pool of 135 directors of counseling centers at the 1971 Task Force on Paraprofessionals meeting, were amendable to the use of peer counselors. Nearly 100% of all the counseling centers that were questioned indicated that they used some form of peer counseling. Among the tasks performed by the student counselors were the administration of interest inventories, counseling with students with study problems, intervention counseling, and counseling students with adjustment-to-college difficulties.

Zunker and Brown (1966) reported their research using peer counselors. In working with 160 college freshmen, they found that student peer counselors were as effective as professional counselors on all tested criteria of counseling productivity. These criteria involved in the study included survival orientation, test interpretation, study habits guidance, and study skills survey. The authors further found that student counselors received greater acceptance from counselees than did the professional counselors.

In another study at the university level, Wrenn and Menchke (1972) found that students were effective as group counseling leaders. These students, who attended the University of Arizona, were used by college faculty members and personnel in the counseling center to lead groups in nonverbal exercises, role playing, and in psychodrama.

McCarthy and Michaud (1971) reported another use of student services at American University. Peers acted as companions to counselees, not only having counseling center sessions with helpees, but also meeting with them outside the center. These sessions outside utilized real campus situations to evaluate and support social activities of the helpees. 'Companions' modeled assertive scenes, practiced skills of empathic listening and supportive counseling. Further, they learned to reinforce development of skills in clients. The authors related that this unique structure has helped the clients to develop social skills and to overcome loneliness.

Brown (1965) used upperclassmen to counsel incoming freshmen students on academic affairs. A control group was used which consisted of students who received no counseling. Results revealed that the peer-counseled freshmen earned grades which were, on an average, one-half grade higher during the first semester than did the non-counseled freshmen. Brown noted many carryover benefits of peer counseling which included the improvement of communications between upperclassmen and underclassmen, improvement of faculty and student communications, and prevention of many academic failures.

Hauer (1973) referred to adjunct counselors as he spoke of employing nonprofessionals in direct service positions. That author felt that students could relate more easily to other students, and that the adjunct could monitor the clients' behaviors in a natural environment.

Although most of what has been done in training peer counselors has been accomplished on the college level, studies have shown the

effectiveness of these helpers on the secondary and elementary levels. A comprehensive program in Palo Alto School District in California was related by Varenhorst (1973). One hundred and fifty students in grades seven through 12 were trained as peer counselors. After a 12 week training program, students were allowed to work with other students who were lonely, new to the school district, physically handicapped, or those who could benefit from modeling older students in order to learn appropriate social behaviors.

Vriend (1969) trained disadvantaged eleventh graders in Detroit to be peer counselors. These students were trained to support and reinforce certain behaviors in other students. Results noted that low performing groups who received counseling developed better classroom skills, attained higher grades, and developed higher levels of vocational and educational aspirations and expectations.

Gutsch, Spinks, and Aiken (1959) used counselor aides in the local high schools to perform many of the clerical tasks, while Sullivan (1972) used peer counselors to advise on classes and educational programs and work with new students. Sullivan noted that one major benefit in teaching counseling skills to high school students was that it encouraged them to look at themselves more closely and feel freer to open up to some different ways of communicating.

Riessman (1965) reported successful use of peer counselors on all educational levels. One study involved a group of fourth graders with reading problems who were tutored by a group of sixth graders who were also having reading problems. Results confirmed that both groups

benefited. Riessman noted that while students' performances improved, an additional benefit involved the possibility that a teaching career could enter a child's mind after tutoring others.

Grumaer (1973) in discussing the 'peer facilitator' on the elementary level remarked:

> The peer facilitator is a child trained by a counselor to work with other students. He is able to begin a small group discussion and to use the facilitating responses of clarifying, reflecting, and giving feedback. The child can encourage other group members to explore their ideas and feelings. The peer facilitator can also help the counselor demonstrate concepts presented for discussion in a classroom. In brief, he is a leader of other children who is prepared to facilitate discussion among his peers [p. 4].

Grumaer used ten and 11 year olds after 12 one-half hour training sessions in the classroom. That researcher used their services primarily to explore interpersonal relationships through group processes methods.

Hurst (1971), in discussing one particular use of peer counselors in drug education programs, reported that selection of peer counselors was very important. Hurst expressed the opinion that the students must meet several requirements. First, the students should have empathy and the ability to relate to others. Next, they must be committed to the counseling program. Thirdly, they should have sufficient maturity not to identify completely with the clients, but enough to be able to bring them another point of view. Lastly, they should possess a trained 'feel' for when referrals to professionals are needed. Hurst related that he would be skeptical of using students as counselors unless these criterion were met. Pyle and Snyder (1971), in discussing the use of community college peer counselors, were also somewhat skeptical. Although

the authors noted success of the peer counselors in helping minority students adjust to their new milieu, the researchers related that students should be chosen by a combination of their natural concerns for others and their extensive contact with others' needs for help. Jackson (1972), in using black youth as peer counselors saw great need for use of them, but was somewhat reserved in relying upon them unless there was a real need. Jackson stated that one must remember that peer counselors are persons, with emotional needs and anxieties like those of their clients. Gruver (1971) was more concerned with the effect of peer counseling sessions on the student counselor himself. That author reported that one important aspect of paraprofessional counseling was the developmental impact that this activity has on the paraprofessional. Conceivably, a high school student might be helped along the road to career commitment if he were to lead a group discussion within a class, demonstrate a group technique in a counseling group, or take over a group guidance class.

Delworth and Moore (1974) called for the counselor to use his role to teach others to do part of the counseling. Those authors related that many more persons could be assisted through this training. Ivey (1973) also called for the counselor to teach others, including student peer counselors, community persons as hot line operators, and parents as paraprofessional drug counselors. Ivey related that this training should involve counseling and human relations skills. That author also felt that through using a concept called microcounseling, natural empathy would evolve in the peer counselors.

Microcounseling

Microteaching has been used for many educational endeavors. Ashlock (1968) demonstrated that microteaching could be used in an elementary science methods course; Clayton (1968), in an accounting course; and Eggers (1968), in an industrial arts course. McKitrick (1968) used the microteaching concept in teaching business and shorthand to teachers, and Aubertine (1967) showed the effectiveness of microteaching in training supervisory teachers. Calabro (1969) contended that the microteaching concept of breaking down course material into small component parts was especially effective in teaching the foreign languages. Elsenrath, Coker, and Martinson (1972) showed that microteaching was a practical method of teaching complex human behavior by a component part approach. Those researchers used microteaching to teach interviewing skills by a programed approach.

Recently, the microteaching concept has been expanded to include its use in counseling. Thus, the microcounseling concept was born. Ivey and others (1968) defined microcounseling:

> Microcounseling is a scaled down sample of counseling in which beginning counselors talk with volunteer clients for brief five minute counseling sessions which are video-recorded. These scaled down sessions focus on specific counseling skills or behaviors. Microcounseling provides an opportunity for those who are prepared to counsel to obtain a liberal amount of practice without endangering a client. While microcounseling has other purposes, its principle aim is to provide pre-practicum training and thus, to bridge the gap between classroom theory and actual practice [pp. 1-2].

Ivey and others (1968) used videotape feedback and the use of video models in effectively training beginning counselors in three behavioral skills of attending behavior, reflection of feeling, and summarization of feeling. Guttman and Haase (1972) duplicated part of Ivey and others' work and found that it was indeed replicable. Those authors were concerned with whether the microcounseling paradigm could be generalized to actual counseling sessions. They found that some of the skills obtained in microcounseling (attending behaviors, reflection of feeling, and summarization of feeling) were retained and were carried into actual counseling sessions after training, showing only loss of skill which would be normally expected in terms of an extinction curve.

Miller and others (1973) reported the feeling that the effectiveness of microcounseling was due to its "immediate and specific feedback via videotape and extensive use of reinforcement in shaping the subject's behavior [p. 21]." Those authors obtained results in their study which were consistent with results of other microcounseling studies. In a study of 12 psychology and sociology majors at Colorado State University, the naive college students were trained by the microcounseling method to assess clients' attitudes toward guidance tests.

In a further extension of the use of microcounseling, Bellucci (1972) showed that microcounseling could be combined with imitative learning theory to produce highly effective school and college counselors. In that author's research, it was stressed that the counselor educator be a model for the counselors in combination with appropriate application of positive reinforcement techniques. Haase and Dimattia (1970), and Haase,

Forsyth, Buttman, and Lee (1971) found that they could train clients and counseling paraprofessionals in certain behavioral skills by use of the microcounseling techniques of videotape models and videotape feedback.

Summary

In review of the pertinent literature, an attempt was made to survey the research noting the wide range of career exploration programs provided for youth. Studies indicated that there was much benefit in programs provided by school-community cooperatives and by simulations. The pertinent research in peer counseling supported the idea that students, when properly chosen and trained, could effectively act as counselors in a variety of areas. Finally, literature related to the use of microcounseling as a training program for counselors indicated that this systematic method was indeed a very effective one in fulfilling its purpose.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURAL ANALYSIS

Included in this chapter are the design of the study, a description of the sample population, a presentation of the instrument used, and a discussion of the methodology.

Design of the Study

The general design of the present study followed the pretest-posttest control group design described in Campbell and Stanley (1969). A graphic view of this design is as follows:

$$R \quad O_1 \quad X \quad O_2$$

$$R \quad O_3 \qquad O_4$$

Sample Population

The subjects (Ss) for the present study were 24 college-bound seniors who were to graduate from Norris High School, Norris, Tennessee, in June of 1974.

The 24 subjects were selectively chosen by the experimenter on the basis of scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey. Twelve of the subjects were assigned to an occupational experience group (OEG) on the basis of their expressed interests in counseling related fields

as career choices. Designated by the experimenter as counseling oriented scales on the KOIS were the following: high school counselor, minister/religious educational director, physical therapist, physician/nurse, psychologist/psychiatrist, clinical psychologist, social caseworker, group social worker, and psychiatric social worker. The 12 other subjects were chosen by the experimenter to serve as the control group (CG), undergoing no occupational experience program. The subjects in the control group were selected on the basis of very similar scores to those of the occupational experience group on counseling related fields on the KOIS, yet expressing no interest in pursuing such fields as career choices.

Scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey which were obtained prior to the occupational experience program were designated as pretreatment scores. The pretest was administered in April of 1973. The survey was administered at Norris High School by the former counselor at that school.

Ten of the 24 subjects were males and 14 were females. Subjects' ages ranged from 16 to 18 years. All subjects were high school seniors who were planning to enter a junior or senior institution of high education sometime during the following year. The subjects' grade point averages were average or above average in comparison with the average of their particular class.

Instrument

The Kuder Occupational Interest Survey--Form DD was used to assess subjects' occupational interest levels. The KOIS is a 100 triad inventory requiring the respondent to choose one item in each triad as liked most and one as liked least. KOIS scores represent the degree to which testees' preferences are like those typical of people in various occupations and fields of study. One hundred and seventy-one scales of occupations and college majors are represented on the KOIS. Items appearing on the interest inventory were developed in accordance with the following principles:

> 1) The Inventory should include a representative and systematic sampling of as many relatively independent and relevant vocational and personal interest areas as possible. Items are considered relevant if they sample areas that have already been found, in past research, to be related to occupational choice or job satisfaction.
> 2) It should be possible for the inventory to be completed easily by most subjects in approximately one-half hour. Within this time it is more important to sample a fairly large number of relevant areas than to obtain large samples of only a few relevant areas.
> 3) Since the instrument is designed primarily to differentiate between occupational groups, reliability within groups is of secondary importance [Kuder Booklet, p. 17].

Methodology

The occupational experience program was conducted over a period of six months, lasting from October 18, 1973, until April 18, 1974. The 12 experimental subjects, along with the experimenter, met once weekly for a period of one and one-half to two hours. The only exception to this

weekly arrangement came at Christmas vacation when the group did not meet during one week. A schedule of weekly meeting and topics is found in Appendix A.

Skill Training

One facet of the occupational experience program was to teach counseling skills to the counselor-in-training. The skills to be learned were as follows: 1) attending behaviors, 2) open invitation to talk, 3) minimal encourages to talk, 4) reflection of feeling, 5) paraphrasing, 6) summarization of feeling, 7) summarization of content, 8) expression of feeling, 9) sharing behavior, 10) direct, mutual communication, and 11) basic interpretation skills. These skills were taken from Allen Ivey's Microcounseling: Innovations in Interviewing Training (1971), and were used for the purposes of this study by permission of the author. The method of teaching each skill was the same, as it followed the micro-counseling format. Ivey's method utilized a video method of training counselors in basic skills of counseling within a short period of time. The procedure used in the occupational experience group was as follows: 1) a five-minute diagnostic interview was taped in which counselors-in-training were told to, "Talk with this student for five minutes," 2) trainees next read the applicable portion of the Microcounseling Manual, which described the basic components of the skill to be learned, 3) the experimenter then demonstrated the skill, 4) the trainee was shown his initial interview and was asked to identify specific instances or absences of the skill to be learned. The experimenter discussed the

skill with the group during the viewing of the first interview, 5) the experimenter and the trainee discussed the skill to be learned in depth, 6) as a test, the trainee then interviewed the same client again for five minutes. While individual students were involved in the taping, all students were involved in the discussions. A rotation procedure was used in allowing all counselors-in-training to tape sequences. A complete compilation of skills which were used is found in Appendix B.

Each skill to be learned was discussed over two consecutive sessions. During the last of the two sessions, the counselors-in-training had an opportunity to discuss the skill and to ask questions about its use. Counselors-in-training were also encouraged to explore their own feelings as they understood each skill.

Peer Counseling

Counselors-in-training were also involved in peer counseling sessions. The sessions were arranged in one of two ways. First, the peer counselors were allowed to obtain their own clients. However, the peer counselors were required to give the experimenter some idea of the scope of the problem area, with no names being brought out. Secondly, the experimenter referred students to the peer counselors through his daily contacts with students. An example of this type of referral occurred when a student asked the experimenter if the experimenter could give to him information regarding the effects of a particular drug. Although the experimenter had a basic familiarity with the drug, one particular counselor-in-training had an indepth knowledge of the effects

of most drugs. The experimenter asked the student if he felt he could talk with this particular peer counselor. Other referrals followed similar patterns.

A schedule of periods when peer counselors could be available for sessions was posted in the experimenter's office. This schedule was revised weekly in accordance with availability of the peer counselors. A sample copy of this schedule is found in Appendix C.

After each interview, counselors-in-training were asked to complete an Interview Data Form. This form included the following information: 1) name of counselor, 2) name of client, 3) date of interview, 4) interview number, 5) a general overview of the interview, and 6) projected plans for working with the client. Since these forms were confidential, the experimenter was not allowed to view them unless the counselor-in-training and the client requested it. A copy of the Interview Data Form is included in Appendix D. On April 18, 1974, during the last meeting of the occupational experience group, the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey was readministered. The survey was also readministered to the control group. The survey was administered by the experimenter, and scores from this survey were designated as post-treatment scores.

Because improvement in the use of counseling skills was not the basis of the present research, no effort was made to evaluate peer counselors' performance or usage of the skills. The primary focus of the study was therefore, to observe effects of the training program only.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Twenty-four subjects were identified by the experimenter on the basis of scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey to participate in this study. Twelve of the subjects were assigned to an occupational experience group (OEG) on the basis of their expressed interests in counseling related fields as career choices. Designated by the experimenter as counseling related scales on the KOIS were the following: minister/religious educational director, high school counselor, physical therapist, physician/nurst, psychologist/psychiatrist, clinical psychologist, social caseworker, group social worker, and psychiatric social worker. The 12 other subjects were chosen by the experimenter to serve as the control group (CG), undergoing no occupational experience program. The subjects in the control group were selected on the basis of very similar scores to those of the occupational experience group on counseling related fields on the KOIS, yet expressing no interest in pursuing such fields as career choices. Numerical scores on the KOIS represent the degree of correlation between the individual's responses and responses characteristic of each of the criterion group. It should be noted that for the purposes of this study, scores on the KOIS are expressed in terms of whole numbers. Ordinarily the scores are listed as decimal numbers.

Scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey which were obtained prior to the occupational experience program were designated as pre-treatment scores. Scores on the KOIS which were obtained following the program were designated as post-treatment scores.

The statistical analysis for this study consisted of an application of the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test which is described in Siegal (1956, p. 75). The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was chosen because the present study employed two related samples and it yielded difference scores which could be ranked in order of absolute magnitude. Observation tables are also constructed to relate findings.

Table 1 offers pre-treatment scores of the occupational experience group on KOIS scales. Each subject received one score for each of the nine designated areas of counseling related professions. The last column shows an average score for each subject on all counseling scales. The group average is shown directly below the last column. The experimenter ranked subjects in order of highest to lowest KOIS average scores. It should be noted that as a general rule each subject in the OEG maintained some consistency in scores on all scales of the counseling-related areas. The group average score was 35.7. This score serves a purpose only when one compares it with the posttest of the same group, or when comparing it with group scores of the control group.

Table 2 contains post-treatment scores for the occupational experience group on KOIS scales. These numbers represent each subject's scores on all of the designated counseling-related areas after experiencing the program. The most obvious sight in viewing these post scores is

Table 1

Pretreatment Scores of OEG on KOIS Scales

SUBJECT	KOIS SCALES	High School Counselor	Physician/Nurse	Physical Therapist	Psychologist/Psychiatrist	Clinical Psychologist	Religious Education Director/Minister	Social Caseworker	Group Social Worker	Psychiatric Social Worker	Average
A		58	54	57	51	52	55	59	57	57	55.6
B		47	57	57	47	49	52	53	53	54	52.1
C		52	54	52	48	48	50	53	49	53	51.0
D		40	52	50	54	50	42	49	47	53	48.6
E		49	48	50	45	48	39	38	38	40	44.3
F		36	38	43	38	39	34	35	34	39	37.4
G		31	37	38	21	25	44	38	41	34	34.3
H		40	30	33	31	26	32	39	36	33	33.3
I		33	38	31	21	20	25	26	26	25	27.2
J		21	22	24	14	14	14	14	13	17	15.4
K		11	31	26	08	10	14	12	10	11	14.8
L		14	23	23	13	11	14	10	10	12	14.4
										Group Average	35.7

Table 2

Posttreatment Scores of OEG on KOIS Scales

SUBJECT	KOIS SCALES	High School Counselor	Physician/Nurse	Physical Therapist	Psychologist/Psychiatrist	Clinical Psychologist	Religious Education Director/Minister	Social Caseworker	Group Social Worker	Psychiatric Social Worker	Average
A		39	39	32	24	25	40	32	34	28	32.6
B		47	54	57	47	49	52	51	53	54	51.1
C		34	52	37	24	28	37	35	33	35	35.0
D		39	49	45	49	43	52	46	44	48	46.1
E		44	53	49	40	40	35	34	31	34	40.0
F		30	35	37	35	37	24	31	30	34	32.6
G		51	59	65	49	52	60	59	61	54	56.7
H		38	24	29	22	19	32	34	32	28	28.7
I		32	43	39	23	23	26	26	26	25	29.2
J		30	34	37	20	19	14	22	18	24	24.2
K		22	46	44	22	22	26	25	23	23	28.1
L		18	25	27	17	16	16	14	12	17	18.0
										Group Average	30.0

the decline in the group scores. The post-treatment group score was 30.0, exhibiting a decline in group scores of 5.7 from the pre-treatment score. In examining the second testing scores, one finds that subjects A, B, C, D, E, and F, who had exhibited the highest scores on the pretest and also subject H, dropped on the second measurement. However, the opposite was true of subjects G, I, J, K, and L, whose original scores were the lowest. These scores all increased on the second testing. A regression toward the mean seemed evident, as higher scores tended to lower on the second testing, while lower scores increased. As one views individual differences in pre-and posttest scores of subjects, several extreme differences are seen. Subject A's posttest score declined 23.0, from an original 55.6 to a posttest score of 32.6. Subject B declined very slightly by only 1.0, from a 52.1 to a 51.0. Subject C's score decreased from a 51.0 to a 35.0, a significant difference of 16.0. Subject G showed the greatest increase in scores, an increase of 22.4, from a pretest score of 34.4 to a posttest score of 56.7. Subject K increased a very significant 13.3, from a 14.8 pretest score to a 28.1 posttest score.

Table 3 offers pre-treatment scores of the control group on KOIS scales. As with subjects in the occupational experience group, control group subjects received one score for each of the nine designated areas of counseling related fields. The last column shows an average score for each subject on all counseling scales. The group average is shown directly below the last column. As was true with the OEG, subjects in the CG were ranked by the experimenter in order of highest to lowest

Table 3

Pretreatment Scores of CG on KOIS Scales

SUBJECT / KOIS SCALES	High School Counselor	Physician/Nurse	Physical Therapist	Psychologist/Psychiatrist	Clinical Psychologist	Religious Education Director/Minister	Social Caseworker	Group Social Worker	Psychiatric Social Worker	Average
M	48	57	62	45	48	51	51	51	48	51.2
N	46	58	54	41	44	52	49	49	49	49.1
P	44	49	48	40	42	45	45	45	43	44.6
Q	43	57	48	36	35	45	42	38	39	42.6
R	43	23	36	45	40	35	40	41	41	38.2
S	32	40	36	31	34	36	36	35	38	35.3
T	32	45	51	29	29	37	32	33	29	35.2
U	26	32	33	35	33	27	31	32	32	31.2
V	27	29	28	23	21	18	24	21	23	23.8
W	19	29	29	18	11	17	14	10	15	18.0
X	15	24	22	11	13	11	13	11	14	14.9
Y	18	21	18	15	15	08	12	10	14	14.6
									Group Average	33.2

average scores on the KOIS. Also, as was true with the OEG, subjects in the CG tended to maintain some consistency in scores on all scales of the counseling related areas. The group average was 33.2. This score serves a purpose only when comparing it with the posttest scores of the same group or when comparing it with group scores of the OEG.

Contained in Table 4 are the post-treatment scores of the control group on KOIS scales. The scores of the CG are reflective of no occupational experience program. As was with the OEG, the control group average score dropped. The group post-treatment score was 28.4, a decline in scores of 4.8 from the pre-treatment score. Subjects M, P, Q, R, S, T. U, S, and Y declined in average scores, while subjects N, V, and W increased their scores on the post-treatment test. A more thorough analysis of subjects' scores is evident as extreme individual differences are noted. The average score of subject N increased a slight .6 from a pretest score of 49.1 to a posttest score of 49.7. Subject P declined in scores of 8.7, scoring 44.6 on the initial test and 35.9 on the final test. The score of subject Q decreased considerably, 19.4, from a pre-test score of 42.6 to a posttest score of 23.2. Subject T scored 35.2 on the pretest and a 25.9 on the posttest, a decline of 9.3. Subject U declined in scores also, a difference of 12.1 from pretest score of 31.2 and a posttest score average of 19.1. A marked increase in scores was true of subject V, moving from a pretest score of 23.8 to a posttest score of 33.8, a difference of 10.0. An increase was also noted in the scores of subject W. A slight .7 increase was recorded from the pretest score of 18.0 and a posttest score of 18.7.

Table 4

Posttreatment Scores of CG on KOIS Scales

SUBJECT	KOIS SCALES	High School Counselor	Physician/Nurse	Physical Therapist	Psychologist/Psychiatrist	Clinical Psychologist	Religious Education Director/Minister	Social Caseworker	Group Social Worker	Psychiatric Social Worker	Average
M		48	57	61	45	46	48	48	46	48	49.7
N		41	64	61	39	44	53	49	48	48	49.7
P		31	38	42	36	38	34	33	36	35	35.9
Q		26	35	30	21	17	22	22	18	18	23.2
R		39	29	38	36	32	33	36	38	34	35.0
S		30	40	36	31	34	35	36	35	36	35.1
T		23	35	37	22	21	29	22	25	19	25.9
U		19	22	23	19	20	19	17	15	18	19.1
V		36	35	40	34	31	27	31	29	31	33.8
W		20	35	33	17	10	21	12	08	12	18.7
X		05	13	11	03	00	-03	03	-01	03	03.8
Y		17	20	18	09	07	06	07	03	07	10.6
										Group Average	28.4

Table 5 contains the analysis of the pre-treatment scores using the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test. Each OEG subject was matched initially with a CG subject on the basis of very similar average scores on the counseling related scales of the KOIS. Subject A was matched with subject M, B with N, C with P, etc. The second and third columns using the Wilcoxon model represent the average score of each subject on the KOIS scale. Column four shows the difference in OEG and CG subjects' average scores. The difference is ranked in column five, and the less frequency signs are ranked and added. In the pre-treatment test, the sum of the positive ranks does not equal the sum of the negative ranks. The smaller of the sums of the like-ranked equals 1+2+3+6 = 12. In observing Critical Values of T in the Wilcoxon Test (Siegal, Table G, p. 254), one can see that for the 12 pairs of scores which the experimenter used, a T value of 14 must be obtained for the .05 level of significance. Therefore, by using the Wilcoxon Test, one can state that there was no significant difference in the matched pairs.

Table 6 offers the post-treatment results using the Wilcoxon Test. The matched pairs of the OEG and the CG remain the same. As one observes the smaller of the sums of the like-ranked numbers, 1+3+4+9 = 17. Again, a T value of 14 is needed for significance at the .05 level. A score of 17 on the post-treatment test allows the experimenter to state that a difference does exist for the matched pairs after the occupational experience program. In considering differences in matched pairs from the pre-treatment and post-treatment analyses, it is important to look at several extreme individual matched pairs. Matched pair A-M had a

Table 5

Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Analysis of KOIS Pretreatment Scores

Pair	KOIS Mean Score--OEG	KOIS Mean Score--CG	d	Rank of d	Rank With Less Frequency Sign
A-M	55.6	51.2	4.4	9	
B-N	52.1	49.1	3.0	7	
C-P	51.0	44.6	6.4	12	
D-Q	48.6	42.6	6.0	10	
E-R	44.3	38.2	6.1	11	
F-S	37.4	35.3	2.1	4.5	
G-T	34.3	35.2	- .9	-3	3
H-U	33.3	31.2	2.1	4.5	
I-V	27.2	23.8	3.4	8	
J-W	15.4	18.0	-2.6	-6	6
K-Y	14.8	14.9	- .1	-1	1
L-Y	14.4	14.6	- .2	-2	2
					T = 12

Table 6

Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Analysis of KOIS Posttreatment Scores

Pair	KOIS Mean Score--OEG	KOIS Mean Score--CG	d	Rank of d	Rank With Less Frequency Sign
A-M	32.6	49.7	-17.1	-9	9
B-N	51.1	49.7	1.4	2	
C-P	35.0	35.9	- .9	-1	1
D-Q	46.1	23.2	22.9	10	
E-R	40.0	35.0	5.0	5	
F-S	32.6	35.1	- 2.5	-3	3
G-T	56.7	25.9	30.8	12	
H-U	28.7	19.1	9.6	8	
I-V	29.2	33.8	- 4.6	-4	4
J-W	24.2	18.7	5.5	6	
K-X	28.1	3.8	24.3	11	
L-Y	18.0	10.6	7.4	7	
					T = 17

difference of 4.4 on the pre-treatment test and a difference of -17.1 on the post-treatment test. Matched pairs B-N had a slight 3.0 difference in pre-treatment scores and a 1.4 difference in post-treatment scores. Pair C-P demonstrated a difference of 6.4 on the pre-treatment analysis and a difference of -.9 on the post-treatment analysis. Matched pair D-Q had a difference of 6.0 on the original test analysis and a 22.9 difference on the final test analysis. Matched pair G-T recorded a -.9 difference on the pre-treatment test and a 30.8 on the post-treatment test, an extreme difference. Pair K-X had a -.1 difference on the pre-treatment test and a large 24.3 difference on the post-treatment testing.

Stated in the null form, the hypothesis for this study was that there would be no significant difference between those students who expressed interest and who participated in the occupational experience program, and those who did not express an interest and did not participate in the occupational experience program. By using the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test, the experimenter can reject the null hypothesis.

There is a need to go beyond the present finding derived from the KOIS to observations of actual life experiences to see if the behaviors of persons in the OEG are different after the experience. The experimenter feels that many things occurred within the framework of this occupational experience program that cannot be measured or explained statistically. For example, subject A's average score on the counseling related scales of the KOIS was 55.6 on the pre-treatment measure and 32.6

on the post-treatment measure. Logically speaking, one would think that the 55.6 score would indicate a higher interest in the counseling related fields than would the 32.6 score. However, subject A was one of the most outstanding subjects in the OEG, showing much enthusiasm and excitement at the idea of counseling throughout the six months period. Further, subject A is accepted at a state university for the fall quarter after graduation to study education, aspiring to go into secondary counseling. This is only one example of an instance where the subject has made plans to enter a counseling related field, yet scored much lower on the KOIS after the program.

It should be brought out that most of the subjects in the occupational experience program are at present planning to enter some type of counseling related field of study after their graduation, as is subject A. Subject B, whose score decreased also will study social work at a university in the fall. Subject C, with decreased scores, will study to become a medical secretary or a beautician after graduation. Subject D, whose scores also decreased, will study pre-medicine at a state school in the fall. Subject E, with decreased scores, will attend college with hopes of going into psychiatric medicine. Subject F, whose scores decreased, will study social work, beginning in the summer. Subject G, whose scores increased considerably, has been accepted at a private college and will study in the school's newly formed major of psychobiology. Subject H, whose scores decreased, will study nursing at a large city hospital. Subjects I and J, both of whose scores increased, have decided on a major of pre-physical therapy or occupational therapy

at a community college in the fall. Subject K, whose scores increased, has been accepted at a state school to study nursing in the fall, and subject L, with increased scores, aspires to become a psychiatric social worker and will begin studies also in the fall. As one can observe, 11 of the 12 subjects have made some form of initial commitment to the counseling related fields after graduation. It would seem that the scores of the first six subjects would not have declined on the KOIS but would have increased as the subjects gained a more realistic view of the role of the counselor. The experimenter cannot offer an explanation for this, unless after undergoing the occupational experience program the subjects became more analytical or problem-solving oriented. An analysis of other scales on the KOIS could be prepared to note new directions for subjects.

Although no attempt was made to measure any aspect other than interest scores on the OEG, several subjective observations of the experimenter are in order. Subjects in the OEG became obviously more responsible during and after the occupational experience program. The experimenter relates this to the responsibility that was placed on each of the subjects. Each was made to feel more 'adultlike' with due responsibilities. Although no research is included to support this, all subjects in the OEG achieved higher grades than they had received in prior years of high school. Teachers of the subjects often made comments to the experimenter on how responsible and mature certain subjects were this year. The experimenter does not attempt to relate these changes to

the occupational experience program, because they are presently attributed to the Hawthorne Effect or simply the maturation process. However, participation in the occupational experience program does remain a possibility for the changes.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to determine the effects of an occupational experience program using Allen Ivey's microcounseling format for training peer counselors on subjects who were interested in pursuing counseling related careers. A pretest posttest control group design was used. The occupational experience program was the treatment, or the independent variable. Scores on the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (Form DD) were the dependent variables. The OEG met for a period of six months, while a control group did not meet at all. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test and observation tables were used to examine results.

Significance was not found on the pre-treatment test at the .05 level of significance using the Wilcoxon Test. However, significance was found on the post-treatment test at the .05 level of significance using the Wilcoxon Test. Stated simply, there was no significant difference in the matched-pairs scores of the OEG and the CG before the treatment was implemented. However, after the treatment, there was a significant difference in matched-pairs scores of the OEG and the CG. Although six of the 12 OEG subjects decreased in their counseling related scales after the treatment, six increased their scores. While nine subjects in the control group decreased their scores from the

pre-treatment to post-treatment testing, three subjects did increase their scores. Group scores for both the occupational experience group and the control group declined. The group score for the OEG on the pre-treatment test was 35.7 and on the post-treatment test, 30.0. The pre-treatment test score for the CG was 33.2, with a 28.4 recorded for the post-treatment test. Further, the experimenter made several subjective statements regarding members of the OEG. While experiencing the program, subjects in the OEG maintained higher grades, projected images of responsibility and maturity, and impressed teachers to the extent that the teachers often made comments to the experimenter.

Several considerations regarding internal validity may be made for the statistical outcome of this study. First, maturation may prove to have been the largest single variable. The period of 12 months from the pretest to the posttest may have been a crucial time for the subjects. It is during this time that many students feel pressured to make some sort of career decision. Further, much reading and investigation into careers is done during this senior year of high school. Six months or one year may make a marked difference, just because the student is actually more mature. A second consideration is the effect of testing. The KOIS was given to the subjects twice and there is the possibility that the subjects remembered how they answered on the first testing. In essence, the first testing may have served as a learning experience. Next, the concept of contemporary history should be considered with respect to this study. The possibility exists that the subjects

experienced events besides the exposure to the occupational experience program that may have affected their dependent variable scores.

Should a study of this nature be attempted again, the experimenter would offer several suggestions. The results of the present study were limited by the small n = 24. This research needs to be replicated with a larger sample. Random selection and assignment of subjects should be controlled, if for no other purpose than being able to select a more sensitive statistical analysis than was used. For a future study, the experimenter would suggest measuring instruments other than or in addition to, the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey. The KOIS by itself is not a very reliable instrument for use in this type of study. One suggestion would be to use an empathy scale, pre and post, with the subjects.

Implications

It appears that the participation in an occupational experience group by high school students is of value to the students. The results of the present study suggest that the investigation of the occupational experience for high school youth is both conceptually meaningful and experimentally feasible. Given that the basic findings are replicated in other studies, many questions bearing on an eventual structural program of this type in the public school program demand further inquiry. School officials should consider the possibility of occupational experience programs in areas other than counseling. The concept of allowing students to become involved with exploratory programs early and

intensely should hold much consideration for school personnel. One might use the KOIS in areas such as engineering, teaching, business, and other fields using the occupational experience approach. Many variations of the present study could be employed. Although the experimenter was the only professional adult used in the program, there exists no reason why resource persons from specific fields could not be brought in periodically to teach fundamentals of a specific career area.

The experimenter feels that this study has shown that students can grasp both academic requirements and practical application to succeed in the basics of a profession. When one hesitates to allow a student to explore a field indepth because of the age of the student, a mistake may have been made.

For the elementary, high school, or college counseling center, this study should hold many implications. Students have been shown time and again that they can and are being used in counseling capacities in many areas. Not only does the use of peer counselors place responsibility upon the peer counselors themselves to accept a more mature role, but it frees the counselor in the school of much time which can be used for working closely with needy students.

A follow-up study of the subjects in the OEG would be interesting to note definite career directions. Just how many of the subjects actually chose a counseling related field as a career goal?

Perhaps an implication is to consider the development of better interest inventories. Much of the success of the present study rested on interest inventory scores, which proved to be quite questionable.

Perhaps there is a need to be pointed out affective or cognitive changes occurring.

Finally, one could generate numerous research topics in this area that could be explored using the general techniques in this exploratory study. This entire field of inquiry is so vast that the present step is but the first in a journey of many miles.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SLATE OF TOPICS FOR COUNSELING PROGRAM

OCTOBER 18	INTRODUCTION OF IDEA OF COUNSELING PROGRAM. DISCUSSION OF WHAT EXPERIENCE WILL INVOLVE
OCTOBER 25	VIDEO TAPING--ATTENDING BEHAVIOR
NOVEMBER 1	DISCUSSION OF ATTENDING BEHAVIOR
NOVEMBER 7	OPEN INVITATION TO TALK
NOVEMBER 15	DISCUSSION OF OPEN INVITATION TO TALK
NOVEMBER 19	MINIMAL ENCOURAGES TO TALK
DECEMBER 6	DISCUSSION OF MINIMAL ENCOURAGES TO TALK
DECEMBER 13	REFLECTION OF FEELING
DECEMBER 19	DISCUSSION OF REFLECTION OF FEELING
DECEMBER 28	PARAPHRASING
JANUARY 3	DISCUSSION OF PARAPHRASING
JANUARY 10	SUMMARIZATION OF FEELING
JANUARY 17	DISCUSSION OF SUMMARIZATION OF FEELING
JANUARY 24	SUMMARIZATION OF CONTENT
JANUARY 31	DISCUSSION OF SUMMARIZATION OF CONTENT
FEBRUARY 7	EXPRESSION OF FEELING
FEBRUARY 14	EXPRESSION OF FEELING
FEBRUARY 21	SHARING BEHAVIOR
FEBRUARY 28	SHARING BEHAVIOR
MARCH 7	DIRECT, MUTUAL COMMUNICATION

MARCH	14	DISCUSSION OF DIRECT, MUTUAL COMMUNICATION
MARCH	21	INTERPRETATION
MARCH	28	DISCUSSION OF INTERPRETATION
APRIL	4	THEORIES OF COUNSELING
APRIL	11	THEORIES OF COUNSELING
APRIL	18	CONCLUSION, TESTING

APPENDIX B

ATTENDING BEHAVIOR

Good attending behavior demonstrates to the client that you respect him as a person and that you are interested in what he has to say. By utilizing attending behavior to enhance the client's self-respect and to establish a secure atmosphere, the interviewer facilitates free expression of whatever is on the client's mind.

The following are the three primary types of activities which best characterize good attending behavior:

1. The interviewer should be physically relaxed and seated with natural posture. If the interviewer is comfortable, he is better able to listen to the person with whom he is talking. Also, if the interviewer is relaxed physically, his posture and movements will be natural, thus enhancing his own sense of well-being. This sense of comfortableness better enables the interviewer to attend to and to communicate with the client.
2. The interviewer should initiate and maintain eye contact with the interviewee. However, eye contact can be overdone. A varied use of eye contact is most effective, as staring fixedly or with undue intensity usually makes the client uneasy. If you are going to listen to someone, look at them.
3. The final characteristic of good attending behavior is the interviewer's use of comments which follow directly from what the interviewee is saying. By directing one's comments and questions to the topics provided by the client, one not only helps him develop an area of discussion, but reinforces the client's free expression, resulting in more spontaneity and animation in the client's talking.

In summary, the interviewer's goal is to listen attentively and to communicate this attentiveness through a relaxed posture, use of varied eye contact, and verbal responses which indicate to the client that he is attempting to understand what the client is communicating. Specific behaviors which may be utilized are the following:

1. Relax physically; feel the presence of the chair as you are sitting on it. Let your posture be comfortable and your movements natural; for example, if you usually move and gesture a good deal, feel free to do so at this time.
2. Use eye contact by looking at the person with whom you are talking.

3. Follow what the other person is saying by taking your cues from him. Do not jump from subject to subject or interrupt him. If you cannot think of anything to say, go back to something the client said earlier in the conversation and ask him a question about that. There is no need to talk about yourself or your opinions when you are attending.

A final point is to respect yourself and the other person. Ask questions or make comments about things that interest and seem relevant to you. If you are truly interested in what is being said, attending behavior often follows automatically. But remember, the more interested you are, the harder it sometimes becomes to keep yourself quiet and listen to the other person.

OPEN INVITATION TO TALK

The client comes into an inverview with something that he feels is a problem. The initial task of the interviewer is to stay out of the interviewee's way so as to find out how the client sees his situation. Most useful in determining this is the technique of providing limited structure through the use of an open invitation to talk.

An open invitation to talk may be best understood when compared with a closed approach to interviewing. For example,

Open: Could you tell me a little bit about your marriage? How did you feel about that?

Closed: Are you married? Do you get along with your wife?

It may be observed that the open comments provide room for the client to express his real self without the imposed categories of the interviewer. An open comment allows the client an opportunity to explore himself with the support of the interviewer. A closed invitation to talk, on the other hand, often emphasized factual content as opposed to feelings, demonstrates a lack of interest in what the client has to say, and frequently attacks or puts the client in his place. Closed questions can usually be answered in a few words or with yes or no.

Crucial to open-ended questions is the concept of who is to lead the interview. While the interviewer does ask questions while using this skill, the questions are centered around concerns of the client rather than around concerns of the interviewer for the client. Questions should be designed to help the client clarify his own problems, rather than provide information for the interviewer. A typical problem with closed questions is that the interviewer leads the client to topics of interest to the interviewer only. Too often an interviewer projects his own theoretical orientation onto the information he is trying to

gather, imposes artificial structure too early. If the interviewer relies on closed questions to structure his interview, he is often forced to concentrate so hard on thinking up the next question that he fails to listen to and attend to the client.

Open invitations to talk are extremely useful in a number of different situations. The following questions are some examples:

1. They help begin an interview. (What would you like to talk about today? How have things been since the last time we talked together?)
2. They help get the interviewee to elaborate on a point. (Could you tell me more about that? How did you feel when that happened?)
3. They help elicit examples of specific behavior so that the interviewer is better able to understand what the interviewee is describing. (Will you give me a specific example? What do you do when you get "depressed?" What do you mean when you say your father is out of his mind?)
4. They help focus the client's attention on his feelings. (What are you feeling as you're telling me this? How did you feel then?)

Go through the examples above again and give your supervisor some possible closed-ended questions in each case above. Then change your closed questions to open questions.

MINIMAL ENCOURAGES TO TALK

Once the client has been helped by the interviewer's attention and open-ended questions to begin telling his story, the interviewer's task is to facilitate his continuing to talk. The interviewer really needs to say very little in order to encourage a client to continue talking, elaborating, and explaining.

Simple "um-humm's," repetitions of one or two words from what he just said, one-word questions, such as "Then?" are often sufficient. The word minimal refers both to how much the interviewer says, which can be very little, and to the amount of direction or intervention he imposes on the content and flow of the interview.

This technique presupposes that the interviewer has tuned in to what the client is discussing. Minimal encourages to talk should follow directly from what the interviewee has just said. When used correctly, the interviewee, although maintaining control of the interview in that he is talking about what he wants to discuss, is forced to elaborate, explain, and to take a more indepth look at his problem.

Often the interviewer will want and need to talk more and to more actively direct or focus the content of what the client is saying.

However, this is an extremely useful technique whether it is used as an adjunct to other techniques or relied on primarily by itself.

More examples of the type of comments described by the title "minimal encourages to talk" are the following:

1. "Oh?" "So?" "Then?" "And?"
2. The repetition of one or two key words.
3. "Tell me more."
4. "How did you feel about that?"
5. "Give me an example."
6. "What does that mean to you?"
7. "Umm-hummm."

Too many counselors are unaware of the power and importance of minimal encourages. As such, they are unaware of how they may unconsciously influence the direction of interviewing sessions. An understanding of minimal encourages should lead to more self-awareness on the part of the interviewee.

REFLECTION OF FEELING

How can you help another person to express the central concerns that he is experiencing? One excellent way is to listen for and respond to the feelings of the client. Try communicating "I can accurately sense the world as you are feeling and perceiving it," and you can facilitate the client's movement toward more complete self-awareness and self-understanding.

Being alert to and responding to the feeling being expressed, rather than attending solely to the content of what the person says is the skill with which we are presently concerned. What the client is saying is the content portion of the message being communicated. One must also listen to how the client says what he does. For example, the client may speak more quickly when communicating enthusiasm, more slowly when communicating discouragement, etc. It is this feeling portion of the communication to which you are to pay particular attention.

Being alert to and responding to the feeling being expressed is a skill which is appropriate at any time, regardless of the nature of the feeling (positive, negative, or ambivalent) and regardless of the direction of expression (toward self, others, the counselor and counseling situation, etc.)

In the examples below, you will have an opportunity to select the alternative which indicates that you understand the client's attitude, the situation as it appears to the client--the alternative which if spoken to the client would most likely evoke a response of, "That's right!"

Example 1

"So I'm wondering if you can help me to find a new major" . . . (pause). "I suppose if I did find one, I'd just bungle things again. . . ."

a. Are you sure that it is necessary to leave the major you are now in?
b. You feel that it's pretty futile to try again.
c. What majors have you been considering?

In the first example, responses a and c seek additional information from the client, without giving adequate recognition to client feelings. Response b accurately reflects the feeling being expressed.

Example 2

"What do you think I ought to do--jump off a bridge or look for another college to flunk out of?"

a. There just doesn't seem to be any way out!
b. Have you applied to other schools?
c. Have you thought about trying a junior college when there would be a little less competition?

In this example, response a accurately reflects the client's feeling, whereas responses b and c provide suggestions as to what the client might do, without giving adequate recognition to the feeling of discouragement which the client is experiencing.

Example 3

"You know, it's a funny thing, but when I go in for an oral quiz, I just feel shaky all over! It's the silliest thing! Why should I do that?"

a. Are you an anxious person in many situations?
b. How shaky do you become?
c. This reaction puzzles and concerns you!

Here, responses a and b seek additional information, whereas in response c, the gist of the client's expression is caught and rephrased in fresh words.

Some behaviors you may want to try are the following:

1. Listening for feeling. Remember that what the client is saying is only part of the message being communicated to you. How he says what he says is extremely important. A change in breathing or in the speed of talk, a sigh, a blush, a stammer, an extra emphasis upon a particular word--any of these can be important cues as to feelings of the client. Words which communicate emotions and feelings should be noted.

2. Timing your comments. Do not try to respond to every comment by the client. You may simply want to smile, nod, say "Mm-hmm," etc., until there is an occasional opportunity to reflect feelings of the client.

3. Reflecting feeling. As you listen for and find instances of client expression of feeling, reflect this feeling by restating what the client should say, "I wish I could talk to my dad about things like this, but I never seem to get up the nerve," you might respond, "You are a little bit afraid of your dad?"

Your goal is to understand what the client is experiencing, and to communicate to the client that "I am with you--I can accurately sense the world as you are feeling and perceiving it."

PARAPHRASING

Paraphrasing achieves three purposes. These are (a) to convey to the client that you are with him, that you are trying to understand what he is saying, (b) to crystallize a client's comments by repeating what he has said in a more concise manner, and (c) to check the interviewer's own perceptions to make sure he really does understand what the client is describing.

Just as the reflection of feeling involves some reiteration on content, paraphrasing entails some recognition of the client's feeling. The primary difference is one of emphasis. The first concentrates on the emotional aspect of the client's communication, while the latter emphasizes the cognitive or content aspect of the message.

When utilizing this technique, the interviewer attempts to feed back to the client the essence of what the client has just said. Used in this manner, this skill is extremely functional in clarifying, confusing content, tying a number of recent comments together, highlighting issues by stating them more concisely, and checking one's perceptions.

The following are some good examples of accurate paraphrasing:

Client: I don't know about him. One moment he's nice as can be, and the next he is a real bastard.

Interviewer: He's pretty consistent then.

Client: Every day there is something to do. There must be ten different activities going on at any one time around here.

Interviewer: So there are lots of activities for you to choose from.

Client: He's really crumby. His degree is from a non-accredited school, he's had very little training, and he has a very poor relationship with his wife.

Interviewer: You don't think he is very competent.

Client: He is supposed to be an authority, yet he's mixed up all the time. He talks as if everything he says is true, but he's quite uncertain a lot of the time.

Interviewer: You feel that if a man gives you the impression that he knows everything, then he should know everything.

With your supervisor, go back through the list above and develop inappropriate paraphrases which might tend to lead the client off on a new, perhaps irrelevant path. Then change your inappropriate paraphrases back into a suitable form.

SUMMARIZATION OF FEELING

When an interviewer uses summarization, he attempts to recapitulate, to condense, and then clarify what the client has said. As such, a summarization of feeling is very similar to a reflection of feeling with one major exception--a summary of feeling covers a longer time period and involves a broad range of feelings which the client has expressed.

Thus, instead of noting only one or two immediate feelings, the interviewer notes the overarching emotional dimensions expressed by the client and then summarizes them in a meaninfgul form for him. A summary which integrates the emotional aspects of what the client has been discussing serves at least three functions. These are as follows:

1. It may crystallize what the interviewee has been talking about. By noting emotional undertones expressed throughout the interview, you help the client focus on the issues which concern him most.

2. It may serve as a stimulus for further talk on the issue. This conversation itself may be deeper and more meaningful to the client if you have "tuned in" to his emotions.

3. Simply summarizing what you think you have heard often helps you find out whether or not you are perceiving the client correctly.

A summarization of feeling expressed well and fitting the client's needs is one of your most powerful tools to convey to the client that you are with him, have empathy, and can understand how it feels to be in his shoes. As such, it may help you to think deeply about what the client is feeling, attend to his diverse emotions, and attempt to experience them yourself. Then pull back, sort out what you see, separate yourself from what seems objectively true and summarize for the client what you sense. This is an important way to communicate to another human being that you understand him and are with him.

Specific behaviors you may wish to encourage in are as follows:

1. Use reflections of feeling to indicate to the client that you are with him. Selective attention to feelings will assist him in exploring his emotional states.

2. Note consistent patterns of emotion as he progresses through the interview. Also note his inconsistencies of polarities of feelings. Most clients have mixed feelings toward important love objects or situations, and showing the client how he has expressed his mixed feelings may be especially valuable to him.

3. At two or three points during the session and at the close of the session restate in your own words, the feelings and perceptions that the client has been communicating.

SUMMARIZATION OF CONTENT

When an interviewer uses summarization, he attempts to recapitulate, to condense, and to crystallize the essense of what the interviewee has said. While a summary thus resembles a paraphrase, it differs in one fundamental respect--the temporal period covered by a summary is substantially longer than that of a paraphrase. The latter deals with the client's last few sentences or a short paragraph. A summary puts together a number of client paragraphs, or an entire phase of a session, or may cover even an entire interview.

A summary integrates cognitive elements of what the client has been discussing and serves at least these three major functions:

1. It may crystallize in a more coherent and integrated manner what the interviewee has been talking about. It may help him put facts together.
2. It may serve as a stimulus for further exploration of a particular topic or area.
3. Because it pulls together materials discussed over a substantial period of time, it frequently serves as a necessary perception check for the interviewer.

Summarizations are frequently used in any of the following situations (this is not an inclusive list):

1. When the interviewer wishes to structure the beginning of a session by recalling the high points of a previous interview.
2. When the interviewee's presentation of a topic has been either very confusing or just plain lengthy and rambling.
3. When an interviewee has seemingly expressed everything of importance to him on a particular topic.
4. When plans for the next steps to be taken require mutual assessment and agreement on what has been learned so far.
5. When, at the end of session, the interviewer wishes to emphasize what has been learned within it, perhaps in order to give an assignment to the client for the interval until the next session.

Behaviors you may want to engage in include the following:

1. Using paraphrases and open questions to help the client keep talking.
2. Giving special attention to central threads of information throughout the session. For example, when the client talks about a decision he is to make, note the main issues he is considering so you can give them back to him later.
3. At several points during the session, timing your comments appropriately and summarizing for the client what you have heard him say. Your selective summary is effective if it prompts him to talk in a deeper fashion or helps him to clarify his own thinking.

EXPRESSION OF FEELING

Unless one understands one's own self, it is extremely difficult to understand others. One important dimension of self-understanding is the ability to attend and to express one's own emotions or feelings. This training skill is focused on helping you express your emotions more clearly and sharing them with others.

Those who enter counseling training may find that the ability to express their own emotions facilitates their progress in counseling. Individuals unable to express emotions often cannot recognize them in others. While theorists differ on whether the counselor would express his feelings in the interview, all agree that awareness of one's own feelings is crucial in the counseling process.

The skill training you will receive will focus on helping you express your feelings to another individual. We would like to help you learn two things. First, you should learn the difference between

expressing content (what you're saying to the other) and second, the expression of feelings (the emotional experiences you have about what you are saying). Many, perhaps most, people attend solely to the content of their words and are not aware of their underlying emotions.

The following examples illustrate the difference between expression of content and expression of feeling.

1. I went to John Jay High School and took mathematics, English, and Art. (Expression of content).
   When I went to high school, I hated it. Mathematics was a drag; the English teacher bugged me; and Art was the only good thing during the day. (Expression of feeling).
2. How do I feel? Well, I feel I am an interesting person. I have traveled a lot. I have seen the world. I feel I know a lot about what is going on. (Expression of content).
   How do I feel? I feel pretty good about myself. I've been around a lot and from what I've seen, I am happy to be me. Whenever I look around me I feel that I'm lucky, that I have been able to enjoy myself. On the other hand, maybe I am a little arrogant, and that makes me wonder about myself sometimes. (Expression of feeling).
3. I feel like things haven't been going right lately. The cat died, my therapist raised his rates, and my wife just got a job. (Expression of content).
   I really feel depressed. The first thing that got me down was when my cat died. I felt so sad I sat down and cried. Then my damn therapist raised his rates and didn't even care enough to tell me; that really made me angry and then when I told him about the cat he didn't react and I felt really crumby. Then my wife up and gets a job without telling me; somehow I feel she just doesn't care about me at all and it makes me sad, sad, sad. (Expression of feeling).

When one talks about any situation, he can talk about his feelings or the content of what happens. Your task today is to talk about your emotions rather than about facts.

You may wish to take the following topics and discuss them briefly with your supervisor, first demonstrating an expression on content, then demonstrating an expression of feeling: School, family, sports, an accident, a childhood experience.

In summary, move inside yourself, look at your emotions. While words provide basic clues in this skill, also think about your non-verbal communication. If you talk about sad things, do you look sad? If you talk about happy things, do you look happy? As you learn to express feelings, put your body and words together and really attend to your emotions. In this way, you can best understand yourself.

SHARING BEHAVIOR

How can one communicate one's ideas and feelings to another person, a small group, or a classroom of children? One important skill of communication is sharing behavior, a set of specific behaviors which will result in your developing better means of communicating yourself and your ideas to others.

Sharing behavior is structured in a similar fashion to attending behavior. First, if one is to share himself with others, he must be physically relaxed and in tune with his own body. Second, eye contact with the other individual is important, but psychological eye contact should be with the self. This may sound a bit bizarre, but we are suggesting that you look at others but focus your attention within yourself. Finally, verbally follow yourself. Simply let yourself take the lead, ideally talk about something that interests you. If you follow these three simple directions, you can find yourself "turning on" and getting more enthused about what you are talking about.

An example occurred when I was to make a presentation to an important audience and felt myself awkward, tense, and stumbling over my words. I thought to myself of the concepts of sharing behavior. I realized I was paying so much attention to the audience that I was forgetting myself as a person. I believed in what I had to say. How could I put it across? I deliberately relaxed to put myself together (it could be observed easily by anyone in the audience) and took a deep breath. I deliberately put my thoughts in myself and started talking about what I cared about. For a short time it was awkward, but soon I forgot that I had engaged in deliberate behaviors and was "turned on" and "tuning on" the audience.

Observe the better speakers and most interesting people in your surroundings. You will find that they use some variation of this simple theme. Turn on a television set and observe the individuals you see; it is sometimes helpful to view the set with the sound turned off.

However, sharing behavior in extreme forms can result in an individual talking so incessantly that he is unable to see the reactions he is obtaining from others. Sharing behavior does not necessarily represent a perfect way to express oneself. Sharing behavior is only a part of effective self-expression but essential before communication at higher levels of expression can occur.

Sharing behavior has been found most helpful in working with individuals who claim they have "nothing to talk about" or who have difficulty in expressing their ideas. It is considered a beginning skill which may give some individuals their first success in self-expression in a considerable period of time. It has proven useful to the individual who finds it difficult to stay on the topic.

One example where this skill was used successfully was with a depressed patient who only talked about himself; through use of this skill he learned to stay on other topics and talk about issues beyond himself. Similarly, this skill can be used to help salesmen express themselves more clearly, a boy express himself more clearly to his teacher, and in a variety of other situations. It is especially useful to those who have difficulty in expressing themselves before groups.

In summary, when engaging in sharing behavior, do the following:

1. Relax physically, put your feet on the floor. Assume a position of decisiveness. Do not sit back in a retiring position. You are to express yourself.
2. Use eye contact, but keep your primary attention within yourself. Look at your audience physically, but keep your main focus on your own thoughts and ideas.
3. Talk on one topic and stay on that topic. Do not let your thoughts wander. It helps if you talk about something you like to talk about. If you care and express yourself well, others will soon listen. Paint a picture with words.

DIRECT, MUTUAL COMMUNICATION

1.1 This is a program in interpersonal relations designed to help you communicate with your partner. It's purpose is two-fold--to teach basic material concerning human relations and to provide an opportunity for actually experiencing a new kind of interaction with others, rather than just talking about it.

1.2 The conversation you just had fits into one of the three following patterns. Read the patterns below one at a time and decide which most accurately fits the conversation you just had. The answer will tell you which conversational pattern usually occurs under these circumstances. Refer to the answer after you together have decided which description fits your conversation best.

a. There was a tendency to talk about topics such as politics, religion, etc., which do not directly concern your personal feelings about each other.
b. You both talked about things that were quite important to your feelings about and relationship with each other. You could see clearly some of your partner's real feelings about you and your relationship.
c. Either one or both of you talked about things that were important to your relationship, but you found it difficult to understand one another about these issues.

1.3 The most effective type of interpersonal communication is "b." You have probably discovered from this experience that there are certain things which can be predicted about most conversations between people. Most people tend to talk during conversations whenever they can. They tend to show agreement for the sake of good will.

When people know one another thoroughly, they often attempt to discuss things of more importance, but they are frequently unable to understand one another's feelings about the issues discussed as in example "c."

1.4 You can help your partner get the most from this program if you keep in mind that he is a person with feelings. It is important to become aware of just what his _____ are.
1.5 feelings
1.6 People begin to relate at a more meaningful level when they are able to share their inner feelings and experiences with the other. As a person begins to allow another to enter his world of feelings and experiences, he becomes more real and genuine. Generally, he gets more meaningful and intimate responses from the other person, and the relationship deepens.

WATCH THE TAPE as the two girls talk.

What is the result of Pat's (the girl on your left) sharing her feelings with Karen?
1.7 Karen is moved by Pat's sharing and comments on her specific reactions to the experience. Pat is then able to respond to this feedback from Karen, letting Karen know how she receives this. As the tape ends, Karen is just about to share something of herself. She has attended to Pat's feelings before responding with her own. In short, Karen has said to Pat:

a. I hear what you have said.
b. It makes me feel this about you.
c. I want to add this to what you have said.

This simple procedure is what we would like you to attempt today.

1.8 WATCH THE TAPE again as two men, Max and Bill, interact. Note especially what happens when Bill shares an inner experience with Max.
1.9 Bill's sharing of his experience with statistics prompts Max to respond to him, letting Bill know how Max has received this new information about Bill, and then Max gives Bill important feedback. Max says that he would like to be able to "tell you something like that." Bill now knows that when with Max, it's OK to share deep feelings and that this sharing makes Max feel closer to him.

Again, the following pattern is used:

a. I hear you saying.
b. It makes me feel this way.
c. I want to add this.

It is exactly the same as it was for Pat and Karen.

When you and your partner interact, try to share your inner experiences.

1.10 An even more significant sharing that a person can have with another is the feelings they have toward one another, both in the past and right now in the present. The focus in such cases is on the interaction between the two people and their sharing of feelings about each other.

In the tapes which follow, the partners attempt to discuss their relationships with each other. The first tape shows two girls discussing their problems of relating to each other at the present moment.

WATCH THE TAPE

1.11 Note that J., the girl on your right, discussed F.'s reaction to an earlier statement ("I like you."). She then attempts to share her reactions to other situations when she is faced with praise from another. The pair discuss the immediate problems of talking meaningfully in the room. J. now understands more about F.'s difficulties in relating to her.

When you interact, try to discuss the feelings you have about each other.

1.12. The next tape that you will see will focus on interactions which occur in the immediate present, IN THE ROOM. Max and Bill are communicating their immediate responses and reactions to each other. We feel that this is a deep and meaningful way of interacting. As the tape begins, they are discussing a past interaction, a situation in which Max had asked Bill whether Bill found him to be sickening.

WATCH THE TAPE as Max and Bill respond to their immediate feelings about each other.

1.13. Max has asked Bill for feedback. Bill gives his reactions to Max, and lets Max know exactly how he was feeling about him. Max then lets Bill know that such feedback is welcome and has reduced the tension in Max. From Max's reactions, Bill can also conclude that it is safe to respond to Max in an open way, i.e., sharing immediate feelings.

When you interact, share your reaction to your partner.

1.14. You will soon interact with your partner in another five-minute session. As you interact in this next session, try to focus on your immediate feelings and impressions of your partner and share them with him.

Remember the following points:

a. Hear what he says.
b. Tell him how it makes you feel about him (or it).
c. Add what you wish to add in the way of feedback.

It will be about ten minutes before your second videotaped session. You may talk informally with your partner about whatever you wish until that time.

* * *

2.1 You have just completed your second interaction. Take time now to review with your partner what has taken place between you. Let the following sections guide this discussion.

2.2. Which of the three patterns discussed in section 1.2 of the first training section most clearly marked your interaction this session?

a. There was a tendency to talk about topics such as politics, religion, etc., which do not directly concern your personal feelings about each other.
b. You both talked about things that were quite important to your feelings about and relationship with each other. You could see clearly some of your partner's real feelings about you and your relationship.
c. Either one or both of you talked about things that were important to your relationship, but you found it difficult to understand one another's feelings about these issues.

2.3. Hopefully, your interaction was more marked by interactions like those in "b." You should be sharing personal feelings with your partner and responding to him with your reactions to and feelings about him.

If your interaction was not marked by "b," then discuss with your partner what you were doing in the past session. Perhaps you were still afraid to share these feelings with him. If this is so, perhaps you could discuss with him some of the uncomfortable feelings you had about sharing feelings with him.

2.4. Did you feel that your partner was hearing what you had to say? Discuss this with him.

2.5. Did you let your partner know how you felt about what he had to say? Discuss this with him.

2.6. Were you able to do the following:

a. maintain eye contact?
b. maintain physical attention?
c. listen to the feelings of your partner?

2.7. At this point, we would like you to review two of the models that you have already seen. Section 2.7 refers to the first model and section 2.8 to the second model which you will see.

Tell the operator when you are ready to review the models. As you watch the tape, compare your past interaction to the ones on the tape.

2.8. Bill's sharing of his experience with statistics prompts Max to respond to him, letting Bill know how Max has received this new information about Bill, and then Max gives Bill important feedback. Max says that he'd like to be able to "tell you something like that." Bill now knows that when with Max, it's OK to share deep feelings and that this sharing makes Max feel closer to him.

Again note the following pattern:

a. I hear you saying.
b. It makes me feel this way.
c. I want to add this.

2.9. The next tape that you will see will focus on interactions which occur in the immediate present, IN THE ROOM. Max and Bill are communicating their immediate responses and reactions to each other. We feel that this is a deep and meaningful way of interacting. As the tape begins, they are discussing a past interaction, a situation in which Max had asked Bill whether he (Max) was too nice. (Max had asked whether Bill found him to be "sickening.")

WATCH THE TAPE as Max and Bill respond to their immediate feelings about each other.

2.10. Discuss areas in which you and your partner need to improve in order to attain the communication level shared by Max and Bill.

2.11. As you interact with your partner in this next session, try to share your feelings with him and respond with your reactions (feelings) to him.

Remember the following:

a. Hear him and let him know that you hear him.
b. Share your inner responses and feelings with him.
c. Share or add something of yourself with him.

2.12. You will have a few minutes before your next videotaped session. Talk about whatever you wish until you are told to begin your next videotaped session.

APPENDIX C

AVAILABILITY OF PEER COUNSELORS Week of _____

COUNSELOR A TIMES:

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COUNSELOR B TIMES:

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COUNSELOR C TIMES:

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COUNSELOR D TIMES:

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COUNSELOR E TIMES:

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COUNSELOR F TIMES:

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COUNSELOR G TIMES:

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COUNSELOR H TIMES:

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COUNSELOR J TIMES:

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COUNSELOR K TIMES:

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COUNSELOR L TIMES:

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APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW DATA FORM

Counselor Name_____ Date_____

Client_____ Interview Number_____

I. Interview Data (Problem Area, Client's Feelings, etc.):

II. Projected plans for working with client:

VITA

Donald Lee Bratcher was born on September 7, 1947, in Lake City, Tennessee, the sixth child born to Mr. and Mrs. James Thomas Bratcher. He attended elementary and secondary schools in Anderson County, and was graduated from Lake City High School in 1965. In June of 1967 he received the Associate of Arts degree from Hiwassee Junior College in Madisonville, Tennessee, and in June of 1969 he received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Tennessee Wesleyan College in Athens, Tennessee. In August of 1971 he received the Master of Science degree in Educational Psychology from the University of Tennessee at Knoxville. He received the Specialist in Education degree from the University of Tennessee in June of 1974. He was the recipient of a General Electric Foundation Summer Guidance Fellowship at the University of South Carolina in 1974. He is currently employed as counselor at Norris High School, Norris, Tennessee.