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From the Co-editors

This issue marks the beginning of two undertakings. The first is a new two-year term for the co-editors of Human Service Education, who continue their commitment to publishing manuscripts that reflect the diversity of human services. The second is a new editorial board that will serve through 2000. This issue is the product of their work. Previous members who have agreed to a new three-year term are Miriam Clubok, Mark Homan, Lynn McKinney, Ed Neukrug, Donna Petrie, and Fred Sweitzer. We welcome new members Sandra Haynes, Carol Leiseron, and Patrick Morrisette.

Others who have made significant contributions to this issue are copy editors Charlotte Duncan and Betsy Johnson at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and Betsy Johnson at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Bill Roe at Western Washington University deserves special recognition for the professional look of the journal.

As always, your comments and suggestions are welcome.

Tricia McClam
Manuscript Review and Editing

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Promotion and Production

The Integrative Processing Model: A Framework for Learning in the Field Experience

Pamela M. Kiser

Abstract

Field experience holds a central position in human service education as it challenges students to integrate previous learning and apply it to their work. Given the breadth of the human services curriculum, the objective of integrating previous learning is difficult. The Integrative Processing Model, presented in the article, guides students in thinking about their field experiences in such a manner that they systematically draw upon various components of their education (such as knowledge, skills, self-awareness, and professional values) to inform their work. In so doing, the model assists students in maintaining an integrative focus in the field experience.

One of the most important components of the curriculum in human service programs is the field experience. The significance of the field experience lies both in its quantity and its quality. The National Standards for Human Service Worker Education and Training Programs (Council for Standards in Human Service Education, 1995) requires that students complete 250-575 clock hours of field experience, depending upon the level of their program (technical, associate, or baccalaureate). The standards suggest that these experiences be distributed over time, starting early in the student’s course work and culminating with the internship at the end of the educational program. In terms of quality, the standards assert that programs “shall provide each student field experience that is integrated with the rest of the training and education” (p. 18). Weekly field seminars concurrent with the field experience are recommended “to assure that qualitative experience involving knowledge, skills, and values are appropriately integrated by the students” (p.19). The internship perhaps carries the highest expectations.
as it is defined as "the advanced or culminating agency-based experience which occurs toward the end of a student...experience" (p.21). In their various field experiences, students are expected to integrate, synthesize, and mobilize their previous learning, applying it in the form of effective practice. The content of the human service curriculum is broad, including such concrete components as knowledge of populations, intervention skills, and administrative processes as well as less tangible components such as values, ethics, and self-awareness. Clearly the objectives of the field experience, as it seeks to integrate and apply this broad knowledge, are challenging and complex.

Due to the inherent difficulty of this task, the field experience might, at times, risk falling short of its important objectives. In such instances, field work loses its centrality as a unifying, integrative component in the student's learning and becomes instead "just another requirement," a place to pick up some additional information and skills while learning about "the real world." As the standards suggest, a field experience that loses its integrative focus is not sufficient to develop a professional whose practice is guided and informed by knowledge; skills; self-awareness; and professional ethics, values, and attitudes.

The significance of the field component requires that educators develop methods to ensure that its integrative focus is maintained for each and every student. Indeed, a number of mechanisms already exist toward this end, including field seminars, faculty site visits, agency-based supervision, written learning plans, and student journal writing as well as other written assignments. The Integrative Processing Model presented in this article offers an additional tool to enhance student learning in the field. This model is a step-by-step method of learning from experience that guides students to think through their experiences carefully and systematically, integrating major components from "the rest of [their] training and education" (Council for Standards in Human Service Education, 1995, p.18).

Theories About Learning From Experience

A number of authors have put forth ideas regarding how human beings learn from experience. Among the most notable and frequently cited of these are Dewey (1916), Argyris and Schon (1974), and Kolb (1984). Having researched these and other theories about experiential learning, Hutchings and Wutzdorff (1988) conclude that there are four common elements that exist within these theories.

While a comprehensive review of the literature on this topic falls outside the scope of this article, it is useful to examine these four common elements of learning from experience as they provide a theoretical foundation for the Integrative Processing Model. According to Hutchings and Wutzdorff these elements are:

1. **Concreteness** – Learning begins with experience. Specific events, interactions, and processes that occurred at some particular point in time form the basis of learning.

2. **Involvement** – Learning from experience involves the total immersion of the self in the experience. Cognitive, emotional, behavioral, physical, and even spiritual avenues of learning are activated by various experiences. Learning seems to be most effective when it occurs through several of these avenues.

3. **Dissonance** – Learning from experience involves discomfort as the learner is challenged and confronted with conflicting information. Disagreement exists between theory and practice, between thoughts and feelings, between previous experiences and new experiences, and among potential courses of action.

4. **Reflection** – Thinking about experience is necessary for learning to occur. The most productive reflection requires gaining some distance from the experience. The learner gains this distance by thinking about the experience at a time and place removed from the experience itself. Writing is frequently cited as a helpful method of ensuring that learners gain this distance and think about their experiences.

The Integrative Processing Model

Building upon the four elements above, the Integrative Processing Model is a 6-step, cyclic process designed to assist students, faculty supervisors, and field supervisors as they work as a team to achieve the complex objectives for the field experience. The model consists of the following steps: (a) Gathering objective data from the concrete experience, (b) Identifying relevant knowledge, (c) Reflection, (d) Examining dissonance, (e) Articulating learning, and (f) Developing a Plan. (See Figure 1) While the model can be used somewhat independently by students, it is assumed that it will be used under the supervision of a field supervisor, a faculty supervisor, or both. The concurrent field seminar provides an ideal opportunity to teach the model and practice it in a safe environment. Students then might practice using the model as a structure for their journal entries, receiving feedback and comments from supervising faculty or site supervisors who review their journals. Through such repeated practice and feedback, students develop the ability to use the model with greater autonomy and ease, applying it to everyday professional practice. As they use the model routinely, students tend to internalize it as an on-going method for thinking about and learning from practice experiences. Thus, use of the model not only enhances student learning during the field experience, it also develops habits of mind within the student that foster continued professional growth.

The Integrative Processing Model is equally useful to those students working in direct services to clients and to those working in administration and other indirect services. Students may use the model as a structure for written reflection and analysis of experience or as a purely cognitive process. It is recommended that students write their responses in the early stages of learning the model, processing several experiences each week in their journals.
learning forms the foundation for this process, students might also need to engage in more extensive reading and research to expand their knowledge. For example, a student in an administrative role during the field experience might draw upon his or her existing knowledge of organizational theory and leadership theory but need to do additional reading about models of supervision and organizational psychology. Similarly, a student involved in direct service to clients might draw upon his or her knowledge of theories regarding human behavior, the dynamics of the helping relationship, and the stages of the helping process but feel the need to do additional reading about a particular client's presenting problem or a particular issue in family dynamics.

Against the backdrop of relevant knowledge, certain information identified in Step 1 rises to the foreground of attention while other information becomes relatively less significant. Some facts may begin to cluster together and bear some relationship to one another, forming a more cohesive picture, pattern, or theme. The application of knowledge (whether theoretical, conceptual, or factual) provides an organizing focus, a lens through which the student views and makes sense of experience. To use another analogy, knowledge provides a road map of sorts that helps the student identify his or her current location and develop ideas about what route to take next. In this step, students begin to learn the real value and power of knowledge as it can inform and direct their work as well as lend them a growing sense of confidence and competence.

Step 3: Reflecting

In Step 3, Reflecting, students assess their own personal reaction to the experience. In doing so, students ask such questions as, "How does this situation touch upon my own values? How does it relate to my personal history? What emotions and thoughts does this experience trigger in me? What assumptions am I making about the people involved in this situation? about myself? about the situation itself? How do I evaluate my own effectiveness in this experience? What behaviors (verbal and non-verbal) enhanced or diminished my effectiveness?"

Human service education emphasizes that professionals must develop and maintain a high degree of self-awareness in order to function effectively in the field. The reflection required in Step 3 raises students' awareness of the attitudes, feelings, behaviors, values, and assumptions they are bringing to the particular experience.

Step 4: Examining Dissonance

Having examined the experience itself, relevant knowledge, and personal reactions, students are now in position to explore points of dissonance in the situation. Dissonance is defined as "the lack of harmony, consistency, agreement," (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1992, p. 539). Dissonance can exist on a number of levels. Intellectual dissonance might be present as competing theories offer divergent points of view (Step 2) or as conflicting data arise out of the concrete experience (Step 1). Students might experience dissonance between the espoused theories of the profession.
and their own personal views. In their field work, human service students sometimes feel discomfort as their thoughts and feelings clash (e.g., "I know I am supposed to be warm and empathic toward my clients, but I really don’t like this person"). Conflicts also occur between theory and practice (e.g., "I did what we discussed in class, but it didn’t work") and between cognition and behavior (e.g., "I know what I am supposed to do, but I just can’t make myself do it").

Students identify dissonance by asking themselves such questions as the following: What, if anything, do I feel uncomfortable about in this situation? What discord is there between what I should do and what I want to do? What mismatch is there between what I should do and what I must do? What conflict is there between competing "shoulds" in the situation? What disagreement is there between my personal views of the situation and the views offered within the knowledge base of the profession? What conflict is there between what I “know” and what I “do”?

Becoming clearly aware of dissonance is the first step toward its resolution. Once recognized, dissonance can often be resolved at the time it emerges. The values and ethical principles of the profession in many instances provide a useful framework for resolving dissonance. Values such as client self-determination, respect for the client’s culture, recognition of client dignity and worth, appreciation of individual uniqueness, confidentiality, and nonmanipulative intervention are examples of useful guiding principles in reconciling conflicting points of view. Given the complexity often inherent in resolving dissonance, students should be encouraged to discuss these issues with their field supervisor, in a field seminar, or both. Some points of dissonance may take longer to resolve than others. The more difficult issues tend to be those which intersect with the student’s strongest personal values or which demand change in deeply ingrained assumptions or habits. These more troublesome issues may need to be discussed and considered for some time and should continue to be addressed in supervision as needed.

Dissonance may not be involved in every experience, but it does occur frequently. Although the issues confronted in this step of the model are difficult and often uncomfortable, dissonance should be viewed as a necessary and desirable part of learning within the field experience. Through confronting and reconciling difficult issues, students experience some of their most significant and meaningful learning. During this stage, the student’s total “self” is brought to bear upon the learning experience as knowledge, skills, personal reactions, and values are wrestled with. Through this process, genuine learning occurs; and professional maturity develops.

Step 5: Articulating Learning

Students often report with excitement that they are learning “so much” from their field experience; but when asked specifically what they have learned, they all too often fall silent. This scenario perhaps reflects the fact that, although they might indeed have learned a great deal, they have not thought carefully enough about this learning to be able to put it into words. Step 5, Articulating Learning, requires students to put their learning into words. Using words to explain and describe their learning pushes students to conceptualize that learning. What had perhaps been a dim awareness becomes clarified into a coherent statement through the written word. Having constructed this statement, students more clearly “possess” the knowledge by having a greater command over it as a tangible, concrete, lasting entity that can be retrieved and used as needed.

The guiding question in this step of the model is straightforward: “What are the major lessons I can take from the experience?” The lessons learned may have to do with skills developed, knowledge gained, insights developed into self or others, or deeper understanding acquired of an ethical principle. Whatever the lessons, students should be encouraged to approach this step of the process with the appreciation that all knowledge is tentative. The articulated lessons are not fixed and immutable; rather, students take these lessons and test them in subsequent experience. The learning, once tested, may be reinforced, refined, revised, or refuted. It is through this process that students learn about the nature of learning itself. Moreover, students enhance their skills for life-long, active learning as they continually learn from experience by developing and testing new ideas.

Step 6: Developing a Plan

Students are now ready to make an informed choice as to how to proceed in their work. While in some situations, the work of Steps 1-5 may lead to a clear action path, in many situations there are a number of alternatives available. Step 6, Developing a Plan, consists largely of decision making through identifying, evaluating, and selecting from the various alternatives.

For the most part, alternative courses of action emerge from Steps 2 and 5 of the Integrative Processing Model. Application of knowledge in Step 2, Identifying Relevant Knowledge, yields implications for practice and generates ideas for potential courses of action. Lessons identified in Step 5, Articulating Learning, may also hold implications for what might be done in the next experience. While Step 2 and 5 are particularly helpful at this point, the work done in any or all of the steps of the Integrative Processing Model may offer ideas for additional options as well as support for or reservations about certain options. Additionally, common agency practices often suggest or reinforce certain options; while agency policy and protocol more clearly dictate the next step in some situations.

In Step 6, each alternative is identified and weighed with consideration of the following:

1. What are the likely consequences of this plan?
2. What factors and forces support the selection of this plan and the likelihood of its effective implementation?
3. What factors and forces argue against the selection of this plan or present obstacles to its effective implementation?

Out of these considerations, students (in conjunction with their field supervisor) select a plan for their next direct experience with the task or
sometimes being a symptom. Institutionalization can contribute to exploitation so they can conduct an investigation of abuse or neglect. Dementia is also not uncommon among the old-old (those over 85) with paranoia. Department of Social Services must be notified if there is evidence of exploitation are not uncommon, and children are frequent perpetrators. The optimal mental orientation as well as physical well-being. Elder abuse and neglect, as well as physical problems, I do believe there is legitimate reason to be concerned for her safety. I have an impulse to try to rush in and try to "fix" everything here (i.e., find her a nice comfortable place to live where she can have some company, confront her children with their poor treatment of her, and so forth). I guess this is what is called a "rescue fantasy."

My grandfather lived with my family for the last 12 years of his life because he couldn't function very well on his own. I simply cannot imagine that none of Mrs. S.'s four children can help her out by having her move in with them or vice versa. At the very least they should be able to spend more time with her and make things around there a little nicer. This whole situation make me angry and makes me feel very sorry for Mrs. S.

Step 3: Reflecting

I felt very sad for Mrs. S. She lives in a situation in which I would not want one of my family members living. I felt angry with her children for allowing her to live this way and not offering her more help. When I was talking with her, I bought into the story about her children taking her land because she was crying and so convincing. Thinking about it later, I realized this might not be true. Because of her heating and cooking methods, combined with her physical problems, I do believe there is legitimate reason to be concerned for her safety. I have an impulse to try to rush in and try to "fix" everything here (i.e., find her a nice comfortable place to live where she can have some company, confront her children with their poor treatment of her, and so forth). I guess this is what is called a "rescue fantasy."

There are a number of things in this situation that make me feel uncomfortable, confused, conflicted. Some of these are: Mrs. S.'s story is confusing because she says her children want her in a nursing home and then says they don't want her in nursing home. It is not clear whether the story about her property being stolen is true. I feel that it would be best for Mrs. S. to live with one of her children, but she never mentioned an interest in this. I am assuming that Mrs. S.'s children are unwilling to help her, but I have never met them and am concluding this based only on her report. Also, although I know nothing about her children, I am assuming that they could do more to help her. I perceive Mrs. S. to be in an unsafe living situation, but she reported no particular problems living alone except for feeling lonely. No "close calls" were reported in terms of her safety. Are my own middle-class lifestyle and values holding too much sway in my perceptions, or is her situation really unsafe? It is isn't clear to me where Mrs. S. wants to be. Does she want to stay where she is? Go to a nursing home? Live with someone? Some other option? My grandfather lived with my family for the last 12 years of his life because he couldn't function very well on his own. I simply cannot imagine that none of Mrs. S.'s four children can help her out by having her move in with them or vice versa. At the very least they should be able to spend more time with her and make things around there a little nicer. This whole situation make me angry and makes me feel very sorry for Mrs. S.

Step 4: Recognizing and Reconciling Dissonance

There are a number of things in this situation that make me feel uncomfortable, confused, conflicted. Some of these are: Mrs. S.'s story is confusing because she says her children want her in a nursing home and then says they don't want her in nursing home. It is not clear whether the story about her property being stolen is true. I feel that it would be best for Mrs. S. to live with one of her children, but she never mentioned an interest in this. I am assuming that Mrs. S.'s children are unwilling to help her, but I have never met them and am concluding this based only on her report. Also, although I know nothing about her children, I am assuming that they could do more to help her. I perceive Mrs. S. to be in an unsafe living situation, but she reported no particular problems living alone except for feeling lonely. No "close calls" were reported in terms of her safety. Are my own middle-class lifestyle and values holding too much sway in my perceptions, or is her situation really unsafe? It is isn't clear to me where Mrs. S. wants to be. Does she want to stay where she is? Go to a nursing home? Live with someone? Some other option? I am uncomfortable with the fact that I told her I would see if legal assistance could be provided for her. I perceive Mrs. S. to be in an unsafe living situation, but she reported no particular problems living alone except for feeling lonely. No "close calls" were reported in terms of her safety. Are my own middle-class lifestyle and values holding too much sway in my perceptions, or is her situation really unsafe? It is isn't clear to me where Mrs. S. wants to be. Does she want to stay where she is? Go to a nursing home? Live with someone? Some other option? I am uncomfortable with the fact that I told her I would see if legal assistance could be provided for her.

I recognize that much of the dissonance I feel in this situation is in the possible conflict between my values and lifestyle and those of Mrs. S. and possibly her family. Related to this is the conflict between my "rescue
fantasies" and the value of client self-determination. I also recognize that, despite my feelings and concerns, client self-determination must guide my work with Mrs. S. The question of competency to make decisions for herself also enters my mind as I try to think through all of this. I know this is a more complicated question than I could answer at my level of training and experience. This is something I will need to learn more about from my supervisor.

**Step 5: Articulating Learning**

As I look back at this experience, it is amazing to me how my emotions took the upperhand and how little I accomplished in this contact as a result. I think tears, especially from an older person, must have a powerful effect on me. Obviously the close relationships I have had with my own grandparents and the protectiveness I have felt for them as they have grown older come into play here. It is hard for me to see Mrs. S. as an adult. My impulse is to treat her more like a child. I will need to work on this as I go into my next contact with her as well as with other older adults. I do need to sort out, however, whether my protective impulses might be in response to some real limitations in Mrs. S.'s ability to take care of herself and make competent decisions for herself. One thing I have learned from this experience is how fuzzy this concept of mental competence is to me even though I have studied it in classes. Again, this is something about which I need to get help from someone more knowledgeable than myself.

**Step 6: Developing a Plan**

Mrs. S. may be, but is not necessarily, a victim of exploitation. This needs to be explored further. I need to secure permission from Mrs. S. to meet with her children, perhaps in a family meeting. (I am not sure I have the skills yet to carry this off. It could be volatile; and, in any case, will require some real skill and tact.)

Take a detailed history from Mrs. S. and look closely for any evidence that she has been in high-risk situations due to living independently. Also get the perspective of her children and neighbors on this, if possible. (I have the skills to do this and should have done so in the first meeting, but I think I got so wrapped up in her emotions—and mine!—that I didn’t think of it. The potential obstacles might be the inaccessibility of her children and neighbors or her possible unwillingness for me to speak with them.)

Mrs. S. definitely needs more social stimulation, and she acknowledges her loneliness. Talk with Mrs. S. about possible friends, family, and other supports in her community we might reactivate. Also, see if she is interested in attending a senior center or congregate meal site. (This should be easy. I can take some brochures from the senior center. She might be able to see the pictures, and I can read them to her. If this is something in which she is interested, she could probably get started very soon.)

Try to help Mrs. S. identify what she wants to do and where she wants to live. (I can help Mrs. S. explore her options and, again, probably should have done this in the first contact. I believe it will be challenging because of her crying and her tendency to focus on the past. I will need to support her feelings but continue to focus and structure the interview to look at her options at the present time.)

Finally, I plan to discuss this case with my supervisor to make sure these plans are on track and to find out more about the mental competence issue, even though it probably isn’t particularly relevant in Mrs. S.’s case.

**References**


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Reconceptualizing Perceived Client Resistance: Inroads for Counseling and Human Service Interns

Patrick J. Morrissette

Abstract

Jack Brehm’s (1966, 1976) theory of psychological reactance provides a useful theoretical framework with which to understand perceived client resistance. This theory posits that the magnitude of client reactance is related to the significance and proportion of free behaviors under threat of reduction or elimination. This paper elaborates on how the basic tenets of this theory can be helpful to human service interns, particularly in the areas of client socialization, client motivation, and therapeutic pacing. To illustrate the implications of Brehm’s theory in practice, a case example has been included.

Perceived client resistance is considered a major component of any form of counseling and has received substantial attention in the literature (Anderson & Stewart, 1983; Lewis & Evans, 1986; Marshall, 1982; Schoenewolf, 1996; Strean, 1990; Wachtel, 1982). Although various terms have been used to describe client resistance (e.g., defiant, oppositional, difficult), in essence, this concept refers to noncompliant client behavior. During internship seminar classes, interns sometimes voice their frustration with clients who fail to follow directives, complete prescribed tasks, or appear oppositional to their well-intended efforts. How interns conceptualize, define, and manage what they perceive as client resistance will largely depend upon their preferred theoretical framework.

From a solution-focused perspective (de Shazer, 1985, 1988, 1991), for example, resistance is considered merely a metaphor for describing certain client behaviors. While suggesting that other metaphors might be more useful, de Shazer (1985) states:

If a therapist chooses to see the clients’ behaviors as resistance, then their attempts to cooperate cannot be seen, since each...
view precludes the other; if the therapist is looking for cooperative behavior, then he will be unable to see resistance. (p. 73)

In contrast, resistance is a central element in psychoanalytic theory and is considered to be unconsciously determined and is a continuous manifestation of a client’s attempt to cope with intrapsychic conflicts and disturbances (Dewald, 1982). The way in which interns choose to conceptualize resistance will directly affect the manner in which they relate to their overall service plan. As proposed in this paper, psychological reactance theory can provide interns with a useful theoretical framework with which to better understand perceived client resistance and strengthen the helping relationship. From the outset, it should be noted that the ideas presented in this paper are not exclusive to a formal counseling relationship and can be utilized in a variety of human service contexts that involve interventions with clients. Although interns may not perceive themselves as counselors, they generally employ counseling skills and strategies to assist clients.

Brehm’s Theory of Psychological Reactance: An Overview

According to Dowd, Milne, and Wise (1991), “reactance is defined as a motivational state and, as such, is assumed to possess energizing and behavior-directing properties” (p. 541). Reactance theory postulates that people are motivationally aroused any time they think one of their freedoms has been threatened or eliminated. In essence, this theory asserts that individuals’ efforts to reestablish their freedom can be measured by behavioral manifestations such as oppositional behavior. Jack Brehm (1976) contends that threats to freedom can be personal, impersonal, or self-imposed. Research findings pertaining to reactance theory have been well documented (Dowd et al., 1991; Dowd, Wallbrown, Sanders, & Yesenosky, 1994; Hong & Faedda, 1996; Hunsley, 1997). Although a comprehensive review of the literature is beyond the scope of this paper, some of Brehm’s (1966, 1976) more salient findings that directly relate to human service are presented. The accompanying examples have been generated from an adolescent treatment center.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Value Freedom</td>
<td>The more significance attributed to a freedom, the greater level of reactance when this freedom is threatened or eliminated.</td>
<td>Imposing strict one to one supervision on clients who are accustomed to a highly independent lifestyle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Threat</td>
<td>A perceived threat to a freedom can arouse reactance.</td>
<td>Heightened client reactance to structure, rules, and behavioral expectations during intake conferences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observing a Threat</td>
<td>Witnessing another person’s freedom being threatened or eliminated can arouse reactance in the observer.</td>
<td>Heightened client reactance when observing a fellow resident being physically restrained and escorted to a time-out room.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranking Freedoms</td>
<td>There is a tendency to give a higher rank to unavailable freedoms and reject or give lower rank to alternative freedom.</td>
<td>Heightened client reactance when learning that smoking privileges are restricted, but recreational privileges are increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom Withdrawal</td>
<td>A freedom is more favorably evaluated after the freedom has been enjoyed and then withdrawn.</td>
<td>Informing clients that their curfew has been set back to an earlier time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Coercion</td>
<td>Positive influence will be rejected if there is perceived coercion.</td>
<td>Client declines an invitation to lunch after learning that he first has to agree to attend a psychiatric assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom Attractiveness</td>
<td>Options which are less available become increasingly attractive.</td>
<td>Clent’s increased desire to consume alcoholic beverages while residing in a restricted placement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Roadblocks</td>
<td>Enforced barriers increase reactance and heighten the desire to engage in the threatened established freedom.</td>
<td>An increase in client curfew violations in response to increased structure and limited maneuverability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Pressure</td>
<td>As decision time increases, reactance arousal decreases.</td>
<td>Providing clients with ample time to consider future placement options reduces a personal sense of pressure related to their decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Choice</td>
<td>Reactance arousal increases with additional freedoms (new freedoms threaten established freedoms).</td>
<td>Clients are given the options of attending a school dance, popular movie, or rock concert on the same night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom to Choose</td>
<td>The more competent individuals feel to select a position, the more reactive they will become as their freedom is increasingly threatened.</td>
<td>Efforts to dissuade client high-risk behavior (e.g., gang involvement) may paradoxically increase the appeal of gang association.</td>
</tr>
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Toward a Personal Conceptualization

In the process of developing a model of counseling, it is important that interns formulate a personal conceptualization of perceived client resistance. Of course, the implied assumption is that perceived resistance, or some semblance of this concept, is inevitable and will emerge in the counseling context. By formulating a conceptual map, interns can gain a better understanding of this concept and perhaps develop practical counseling strategies to deal with related counseling issues. When a personal conceptualization is absent, interns may find themselves in conflict with clients, thus jeopardizing the counseling relationship. When interns begin to feel that clients are not responding in a desired fashion, they may take action to correct the situation and restore their status and sense of competency. In doing so, they may project their personal discomfort onto clients and hold clients responsible for their personal despair. The resulting emotional discomfort experienced by interns and clients can eventuate in a vicious cycle wherein clients are perceived as oppositional, ungrateful, and resistant and interns are perceived to be ineffective. As a result of increased anxiety, the therapeutic system becomes mutually reactive and adversarial. Rather than working collaboratively toward a mutual goal, interns and clients begin to project blame onto one another. Interns who project blame onto clients for difficulties in the therapeutic relationship disregard the bidirectional nature of counseling. Kerr and Bowen (1988) elaborate:

The emotional functioning of the patient in therapy, in other words, cannot be separated from the emotional functioning of the therapist. It is a system of interaction. Major problems arise when the therapist loses sight of his part in the process and responds to the patient's transference by diagnosing it as the patient's problem. (p. 111)

If left unresolved, intern-client conflict can fester and corrode efforts to interrupt and replace pathologizing interpersonal patterns in the counseling relationship (Palmer, 1981). As the dysfunctional pattern becomes further entrenched, interns and clients feel emotionally wounded and resort to increased self-protectiveness. Since a positive intern-client relationship is essential for client progress, it is reasonable that interns conceptualize the counseling relationship as collaborative rather than conflictual due to client opposition and resistance. To enhance therapeutic collaboration, interns can be introduced to Brehm's theory of psychological reactance as an alternative way to view perceived client resistance.

Toward a Typology of Client Motivation

Prospective clients who seek counseling have different needs and possess different motivational levels to change their behaviors. Assuming otherwise can prove problematic for unsuspecting interns. Although the majority of clients who pursue counseling are genuinely interested in resolving a distressing life circumstance, there are clients who are not personally invested in making any change in the stated complaint (Fish, 1997; Fisch, Weakland, & Segal, 1983). Typically, such clients appear in counseling at the behest of another person and have been described as window shoppers (Fisch, et al., 1983). Their attendance in counseling is usually prompted by duress or coercion. A prime example includes adolescents who agree to participate in counseling for what their parents consider to be a behavioral problem. Upon further exploration, however, the intern discovers that the adolescent does not consider his or her behavior to be excessive or problematic and has only agreed to attend counseling to appease his or her parents who have threatened to withdraw privileges. Another common example pertains to clients who are mandated to counseling and arrive with the charge, "Here I am, I challenge you to help me!" This latter invitation can be quite unsettling for inexperienced interns who work from the assumption that all clients are genuinely invested in counseling and are prepared to actively participate in the process.

De Shazer's (1988) classification of clients (complainant, customer, and visitor) is an attempt to distinguish clients in terms of their motivation and preparedness for counseling. According to De Shazer, complainants have an expectation of change, customers want to do something about building a solution, and visitors are unable to develop even a minimal expectation of change. Based on this model, counseling tasks are dependent upon the specific client category. Prochaska, DiClemente, and Norcross (1992) also propose a classification system and identify five sequential stages of change: precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance.

Whether interns adhere to a specific client classification scheme is not important. What is important however, is that interns articulate their own conceptual framework and appreciate the significance of client motivation. In doing so, they become more sensitive to the assessment process and their therapeutic pacing with clients. Rather than assuming that clients are immediately prepared to tackle an identified problem, interns avoid becoming overly zealous and remain curious about client circumstances and their motivation to seek help.

Although interns might be eager to discuss and resolve problems, this does not always hold true for clients. Working diligently toward enlisting clients into treatment may have a paradoxical effect. To the bewilderment of interns, some clients with whom they have discussed the benefits of counseling begin to demonstrate disinterest in the counseling relationship, do not follow through on prescribed tasks, or fail to return for scheduled appointments. What is sometimes overlooked in this process is that any threat to a client's free behavior (e.g., the perceived infringement of appointments upon their free time) may result in oppositional behavior as an attempt to restore freedom.

Jones and Alcabes (1993) are of the opinion that social service organizations push helping professionals in the direction of treating help seekers explicitly as customers. They contend that help seekers should not automatically be
considered customers. In arguing against the *dash to treatment* model Jones and Alcabes assert:

An important consequence of failing to differentiate between individuals in a caseload who are being socialized and those in treatment are high rates of treatment failure. Those reports may frequently be misleading. A high rate of dropouts, for example, probably reflects socialization rather than treatment failure. (p. 39)

Opposed to the dash to treatment model, these authors propose that emphasis be placed on developing a *role relationship* between helping professionals and individuals seeking help. During this socialization process, the rules that will govern their relationship must be outlined and agreed upon. Consequently, it is essential that interns, "...be clear on the characteristics of a client, and how a help seeker is transformed into a client" (Jones & Alcabes, 1993, p. 35). The antithesis of the dash to treatment model is a more methodical approach to client socialization and relies heavily on client compliance to treatment; family and peer support; intern ability to help; and, finally, acknowledgment that intervention by the intern is warranted.

**Application to Counseling Practice**

The three determining factors that arouse reactance (the importance of the threatened freedom, the proportion of freedoms eliminated or threatened with elimination, and the magnitude of the threat) seem to mark counseling as a fertile ground for client reactance (J. Brehm, 1966, 1976). As noted by Tennen, Rohrbaugh, Press, and White (1981), "Unfortunately, clients don't always cooperate. Often they don't listen, don't follow directives, and in some cases they even defy our influence attempts by doing the opposite of what we suggest" (p. 14). As a result, intervention based on reactance theory can be of practical use to interns with clients who appear resistant (Dowd & Sanders, 1994; Gelatt, 1992; Morrissette, 1989; 1992; Morrissette & Bodard, 1991; Morrissette, 1992). From a counseling perspective, reactance theory serves the dual function of positively redefining perceived client defiance and provides a general map for potential intervention. In other words, rather than perceiving noncompliant behavior as negative, through the psychological reactance theory lens, clients are perceived as concerned about their freedom to behave as they wish and their desire to avoid being subjected to directives. With this theoretical framework, interns can begin to appreciate clients' inherent need for freedom and can work toward gaining a better understanding of their perceived threats. While exploring perceived threats, both parties can begin to collaborate in search of a better understanding of the presenting problem. This process involves interns avoiding their own reactance to clients and teasing out inroads to counseling from a general clinical map. A potential advantage of increased collaboration with clients is a stronger and mutually respectful relationship. This direction is advocated by Goolishian and Winderman (1988) who suggest that "...the therapeutic task is to create conversational space such that conversation amongst all members of the therapeutic system is maintained over time" (p. 140). Furthermore, the principles of reactance theory can assist interns in depersonalizing what might be considered client attempts to subvert counseling efforts (e.g., inconsistent counseling attendance, incomplete out-of-session tasks, inappropriate client remarks).

**Case Example**

During a weekly intern seminar, Jane, who was a fourth-year human service student, expressed frustration toward her adolescent clients who were participating in an after-school life-skills program. Group participants consisted of students from a store-front school who, for a variety of reasons, were unable to attend traditional schools. Jane was responsible for facilitating the after school program that involved the design and implementation of specific skills, including hygiene, appearance, manners, and so forth. Although initially appearing enthusiastic and committed to the program, several of the young people began to miss group discussions, were absent for guest presentations, and were not following through on individualized case plans.

As Jane discussed her situation, the frustration and disappointment she was experiencing became apparent. She discussed her devotion to the program and the necessity for youngsters to remain involved and committed. When some participants began to miss classes or employee interviews, which she had helped organize, Jane felt exploited and unappreciated. During the seminar discussion, she began to describe her clients in unfavorable terms (e.g., lazy, manipulative, immature) and alluded to the subtle interpersonal conflicts she was experiencing with them. At one point, Jane's supervisor informed her that one of the participants complained that Jane was beginning to "act like her mother."

To assist Jane, along with the support of her fellow students, I began to inquire about her dedication to the life-skills program and, more important, about her relationship with the program participants. As Jane described the preparation time she put into the program, she began to elaborate on how she worried about the current and future circumstances of her clients. From her perspective, without fundamental and necessary life skills, these young people would surely fall along the wayside and become unproductive citizens.

During the class discussion, I acknowledged Jane's views and slowly invited her to view participant behavior from another perspective. This alternate perspective did not focus on client laziness or manipulation but, rather, on their perceived loss of freedom, autonomy, and choice. I reminded Jane that several of her clients were accustomed to a lifestyle that did not include strict adherence to timelines, dress codes, or behavioral protocols. For these youngsters, the idea of conforming to alternate rules and expectations could very well threaten their sense of freedom (e.g., having to arrive at work...
Jane’s life-skills curriculum was sensible and well intended; and, consequently, she assumed that her clients would embrace the idea of change without reservation. When these results were not forthcoming, Jane was caught off guard.

To encourage Jane, it was pointed out that the majority of participants were continuing to attend her group (albeit sporadically), which was a very positive sign and perhaps a first step for these young people. Focus was placed on incremental client growth that can nurture the helping relationship. Emphasis was not on client change but, rather, the therapeutic process.

The challenge of transitioning from one lifestyle to another was also underscored during the class discussion. In support of Jane, a second student discussed the struggles of his client, a teenage father, who requested help and direction in acquiring increased visitation with his son. When more frequent visitation times were arranged for this father, however, he often failed to appear.

My focus with Jane, as well as with the other interns, was to assist her in remaining respectful of client choices. Rather than chastising clients for failing to follow through on prescribed tasks, the importance of processing client decisions was highlighted. I suggested that interns need to continually underscore the word service in their profession. Furthermore, I emphasized that client pacing, skills, and ability should be honored within the helping relationship. In my opinion, Jane needed to regain an objective position within the group and not personalize client decisions. Jane discussed her difficulty with this task since she wanted to demonstrate her competency and skills and to prove her effectiveness to her supervisor, peers, and instructors. The focus of the seminar class began to center on the group and not personalize client decisions. Jane discussed her difficulty with this task since she wanted to demonstrate her competency and skills and to prove her effectiveness to her supervisor.

To assist Jane in reestablishing her role within the group, I suggested that she openly discuss her worry and fears with her clients at their next meeting. Initially Jane expressed a reluctance to show this side of herself. She was concerned that in doing so, she would appear vulnerable and would lose the respect of the group and her supervisor. It was suggested that her willingness to share her personal apprehension might provide effective role modeling for group participants, who, in turn, would discuss their ambivalence about sharing personal fears. Jane appeared uneasy with the suggestion but agreed to consider it.

During the next seminar class, the other students and I were intrigued to hear about what Jane had decided to do. Jane informed us that she decided against openly discussing her worries with the group but did acknowledge that she was turning into a mother hen and was trying too hard to help them. Jane noted that following her disclosure, several participants discussed their decision to miss group meetings because they had failed to follow through on an assignment (e.g., due to fear of failure) and were afraid that Jane was going to reprimand them. For example, one youngster who had agreed to submit his resume to a restaurant in person left the restaurant prematurely after observing another young employee being disciplined for poor performance. According to her client, he began to feel intimidated and threatened by what he observed.

The participants’ response provided Jane with new information about her clients and her relationship with them. In discussing the young people’s feedback, Jane spoke of them in more favorable terms (e.g., unprepared, skeptical) and avoided describing them as indifferent or resistant. I complimented Jane for her courageous and creative response to her group. Rather than query Jane about why she didn’t follow through on the suggestion that was offered during the previous class, I perceived Jane’s decision as a valuable first step in increasing her self-awareness.

Realizing that client behaviors are related to a perceived threat and not necessarily their efforts can assist interns in remaining engaged with clients. Sharon Brehm (1976) discussed a number of ways professionals can minimize client resistance. It is not surprising that many of her principles and suggestions are in cadence with the fundamentals of strategic practice (Haley, 1990; Watzlawick, Weakland, & Fisch, 1974). Paradoxical intervention (Fish, 1997; McMillan & Johnson, 1995; Weeks, 1991), for example, can prove very helpful in such circumstances. Based largely on reactance theory, paradoxical intervention can provide interns with rich ideas to reframe perceived resistance and sustain therapeutic maneuverability. For example, in an effort to reduce anxiety and avoid jeopardizing the counseling relationship, interns can join and support clients in their ambivalence. As noted by Marshall (1982), joining clients does not directly attack their perceived resistance and abandons the adversarial elements of the concept. Consequently, the tendency to formulate negative assumptions about clients is circumvented; and valuable time can be devoted to nurturing therapeutic alliances and achieving counseling goals.

**Conclusion**

Ongoing investigation into reciprocal and interactive quality of the counseling process is considered necessary to enhance intern skills and increase treatment effectiveness (Derlega, Hendrick, Winstead, & Berg, 1992). This paper examined the concept of perceived client resistance through a psychological reactance theory lens and emphasized client socialization, client motivation, and therapeutic pacing. Familiarity with reactance theory might prove particularly beneficial for interns. A beginner’s lack of experience and vulnerability accentuates the need to work toward a conceptualization of resistance that will prove personally helpful and therapeutically beneficial. Rather than perceiving client resistance as disruptive to the counseling process, this paper suggests that interns utilize this dynamic as an opportunity to enhance the counseling relationship. It is further proposed that reactance theory provides a useful conceptual map to help interns better understand client motives pertaining to perceived resistance.
References


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The Practice of Case Management “As Lived”

Tricia McClam and Marianne Woodside

Abstract

The passage of federal legislation, the development and growth of the managed-care industry, and the evolution of the human service worker have contributed to the reemergence of case management as a service delivery method. Interviews with human service professionals in urban areas identified 8 themes that describe the case manager’s work. These themes affirm concepts in human service education, suggest areas of emphasis, and identify new skills.

A renewed emphasis on case management as a service delivery strategy has occurred over the past two decades. There are several reasons for its reemergence. One reason is a response to the shift in service delivery from large, state-operated institutions to community-based services. Coupled with this shift is the resulting dual nature of service delivery that requires both service provision and service coordination in order to meet client needs. And finally, the managed-care industry, in its efforts to control the quality and cost of health care, has had a significant impact on terminology. Its use of the terms “case management” and “case managers” has increased the visibility of these terms.

The evolution of case management as a service delivery strategy reflects these changes. Some aspects of case management that are different today from 20 years ago are the identity of the case manager, the necessary knowledge and skills of service delivery workers, the types of problems clients experience, and the nature of the bureaucracy. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the skills of human service professionals in urban areas across the nation who are employed as case managers or who describe their work as case
management. The study was qualitative in design to capture the voice of practitioners as they discussed human service delivery today and, in particular, case management. This article traces the evolution of case management, reports the results of the interviews with human service practitioners, and discusses the implications for human service education.

What is Case Management?

The term case management pervades human service delivery and may be defined in a number of ways. Sullivan, Wolk, and Hartmann (1992) define the term by identifying its component skills as "a creative and collaborative process, involving skills in assessment, consulting, teaching, modeling, and advocacy that aim to enhance the optimum social functioning of (the) client served" (p. 198). Case management has also been defined and mandated by federal legislation, identified as part of the services offered by insurance companies, and accepted by helping professionals as a way to serve long-term clients with multiple problems (Woodside & McClam, 1998). A review of its history illustrates the evolution of these defining perspectives.

The concept of case management has been used for more than a century as a method of human service delivery. While the term has not always been "case management," many of its components were present in service delivery in the past and evolved into a cohesive and comprehensive process that is known today as case management. During the 19th century, components of case management were present in institutional settings and usually included intake, assessment, and the assignment of living space. The Massachusetts School of Idiotic and Feebleminded Youth used observation and diagnosis of physical and mental behavior. Professionals at the school also traced client pupil progress, individualized treatment, and established outpatient clinics (Trustees of the Massachusetts School for the Feebleminded, 1919). Investigation, diagnosis, case recording, and treatment were among the services offered by Charity Organization Societies to provide service coordination and interagency cooperation (Trattner, 1994). At the turn of the century, the Settlement House Movement advanced case management techniques through the use of record keeping, case notes, information management, advocacy, assessment, coordinated services, and a variety of data gathering methods (Addams, 1910). Twentieth century contributions to case management by the Red Cross and other services during World Wars I and II included coordination of services, problem-focused help, and brokering (Dulles, 1950). By the mid-20th century, deinstitutionalization relied on case management strategies to support community-based services, such as halfway houses, group homes, and mental health centers. The development of case management continued especially with populations that required long-term comprehensive services (e.g., persons who were disabled or elderly).

Federal legislation also played a role in the development of case management. The Older Americans Act of 1965 emphasized the multiplicity of needs and promoted coordinated care and integration of services for the elderly. PL 94-142, now known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), guaranteed appropriate public education to all children who have educational, emotional, developmental, or physical disabilities. It also mandated client participation and case management in service delivery. Authorization of case management for JOBS (Job Opportunity and Basic Skills) clients and their children was an integral part of the Family Support Act of 1988 (Hagen, 1994). This act was passed with the expressed goal of increasing the economic self-sufficiency of families who received Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Today, welfare reform legislation includes case management as one strategy to move clients from public assistance to work (Weaver & Hasenfeld, 1997).

The renewed emphasis on case management as a service delivery strategy is also evident in the human service field. The 1992-1993 edition of the Occupational Outlook Handbook (OOH) included an entry on the human service worker that recognized case manager as a job title and service coordination or management as a job responsibility. The latest edition of the OOH (1996-1997) provides a description of the job functions or skills of a human service worker that is consistent with recent definitions of case management (Austin, 1993; Dunst & Trivette, 1989; McClam & Woodside, 1994; Sullivan et al., 1992; Woodside & McClam, 1998). The excerpt (OOH, 1996-1997) identifies skills in assessment, eligibility determination, service coordination, documentation, follow-up, and service provision (e.g., teaching, conflict resolution, crisis intervention, and counseling). Case management is also recognized as a responsibility of the community service broker as identified by the Community Support Skill Standards (Taylor, Bradley, & Warren, 1996): "This category includes a range of coordinating and organizing functions including service brokering/case management and family support" (p. 12).

It is apparent from this abbreviated historical perspective that a variety of skills are part of case management. The skills that have developed over time are diverse, depending on setting, client group, and job expectations. The present study is an attempt to add to the knowledge base of case management skills from the perspective of those who do case management today.

Methodology

The subjects for this study were 25 human service providers employed in 13 urban social service agencies across the United States who participated in an interview about their work. Inclusion in the sample was dependent on one of two factors: job title or job responsibility. Job titles that qualified for inclusion were "case manager" or "service coordinator." The following quotes illustrate how this occurred in the interviews: "I am a service coordinator, which we usually call case managers" (Seattle); "I am a Case Manager I" (Knoxville); "I am a case manager with the HIV Program" (Bronx); and "Within ten days of enrollment, a case manager has to do a face-to-face visit with the client" (Tucson).
Other interviewees indicated that they considered case management a job responsibility or activity in their present position. Their job titles were diverse and included administrator, family advisor, director, social worker, parole officer, case worker, and behavior specialist. They described their job responsibilities in the following ways: “We provide case management and shopping services to predominantly low-income clients as well as some older and younger disabled persons” (Tucson); “We both work in the Intensive Case Management Program” (Knoxville); “We are the only free-standing, independent case management organization” (Manhattan); “I actually do what I would call case management” (Atlanta); and “I consider what we do case management” (Bronx).

Interviews followed a semistructured format that allowed the questioning of participants as they described their experiences with human service delivery and, in particular, case management. Each interview began with a description of the project and a request that participants describe their jobs. The interviewers probed, clarified, and summarized to flesh out a complete job description. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed to identify common themes in interviewees’ perceptions of the skills necessary for case management today.

Results

Key phrases that appeared across interviews emerged from multiple readings of the interviews. Eight themes describe case management today. These themes respond to the complex and sometimes difficult situations interviewees encounter as they cope with large case loads, clients with multiple needs, and scarce resources. In addition, they often work with clients who are silent, reluctant, or resistant and in a bureaucracy that requires detailed documentation for each and every interaction. The eight themes are (a) the performance of multiple roles; (b) organizational abilities; (c) communication skills; (d) setting-specific knowledge; (e) ethical decision making; (f) boundaries; (g) critical thinking; and (h) personal qualities.

Performance of Multiple Roles (“Jack-or-Jill-of-all-trades”)

Each day as these professionals work with their clients, they perform multiple roles, such as advocate, broker, coordinator, educator, evaluator or assessor, gatekeeper, monitor, planner, and problem solver. Many helpers combine the evaluator/assessor, planner, broker, and coordinator/monitor roles into an intensive case management function and assume responsibility for determining the real issues, developing care plans, finding resources, and coordinating care among other professionals. Problem solving is often part of case management and occurs when everything is going smoothly as well as when there is a crisis. Problem solving requires “a plan A and a plan B . . . and a plan C, if necessary.” For many helpers, the final goal of managing cases is “self-sufficiency” or resolution of the issues for the client.

Advocacy is an example of the complexity of roles in case management. One participant suggested that “services begin with advocacy,” while another described the advocacy role as a means to “instill in clients what is best for them.” Advocacy occurs when human service practitioners are fighting for quality services for their clients, helping families treat their members fairly, working with agencies and other bureaucracies to better serve clients, and supporting clients “when they can no longer even support themselves.” One helper’s approach to advocacy was to “teach clients how to deal with their problems . . . how to deal with the system.” On another level, interviewees also discussed advocacy for the agency as fighting for resources, attracting clients, and representing the agency.

Organizational Abilities (“You have to be organized”)

Several participants mentioned the disasters that can occur when they are not organized.

Theoretically speaking, if you have a case load of 30 families and each one of those families has an average at any given moment of 10 things that they need you to work on, then that is 300 needs that you are juggling . . . any of which could explode. (Bronx)

They are also aware that if they are not organized, then it is their clients who will suffer. For them, being organized means managing time and completing paperwork.

The concept of time appeared throughout the interviews in a variety of ways: organizing, budgeting, scheduling, responding, balancing, and slowing down. Interviewees recognized the need for time to “let things percolate up,” “sit down and remember everything you have done during the week with that client,” and “take one step at a time.” Even though time management was consistently mentioned as a tool to alleviate stresses and pressures, many admitted that the workload is so “horrendous” that they never gain control over their work situations. They state that they are so busy they don’t have time to proactively seek a client’s problem. One participant said, “Clients have to come to me.” The difficulty with time management arises from the unpredictability of the work day, external deadlines, and the ever changing bureaucratic system.

Completing paperwork or documentation is another organizational skill that participants discussed. They understand the purpose of the paperwork that flows through their offices and its importance in building records, making requests, accounting for expenditures, documenting a client’s “whole life on paper,” jogging the memory, and providing an audit trail. The documentation they describe includes initial assessments, family histories, psychosocial assessments, contact notes, goals, service plans, and evaluations. The extensiveness of the paperwork is illustrated by the following quote:

We keep a copy of everyone’s birth certificate, Social Security card, Medicare card, Medicaid card . . . IHP plan from their
initial staff meeting... yearly and disciplinary plan... if person has achieved a goal... even to cutting their toenails, they have to have a medical form. (Bronx)

These professionals face the dual challenge of knowing "how to write reports" and how to find time to do their paperwork. In addition, they struggle to "set up a work space where you can find... 5,000 pieces of paper needed at any moment."

Communication Skills ("Communication is everything")

Participants claimed that "communication is more important than any other skill" and is tied directly to establishing a helping relationship, assessing needs and situations, and selling and persuading clients. Central to these results are the communication skills of listening, questioning, and persuading.

Many helpers talked about "really listening" to what is being said by the client in order to establish a helping relationship, identify problems, and move through the case management process. For them, bonding is an important part of the helping process because the case manager must get clients' "trust...so they will tell you what the real problems are." Without this relationship, clients are less likely to accept services or to continue to reach out over a long time period. Workers form strong attachments to their clients; several agencies support clients through death, and case managers can be involved in arranging and attending funerals and "sharing grief with the family."

Good listening helps these practitioners understand and evaluate what the client is saying; (i.e., "Is the client telling you about the real problem?"). Listening also makes a therapeutic contribution to the client's progress: "Oftentimes a client will start talking to you and... will ask their questions and answer the questions in one breath." Listening helps some clients let off steam. In other instances, clients have multiple problems that are jumbled together. "You can listen so you can see questions that will help them be more clear about what they mean."

Questioning is another communication skill that facilitates the assessment process. It involves "gathering information from lots of people," "assessing people's needs," and "figuring out what is important and what is not." Interviewees discussed the art of questioning, emphasizing asking "the right questions" to gather information for social and client histories, needs and situations, and selling and persuading clients. Central to these results are the communication skills of listening, questioning, and persuading.

Another form of persuasion refers to clients as "consumers." Many of today's clients, under the auspices of managed care and other funding models, are able to choose where they will receive the services to which they are entitled. In other words, "it goes back to client choices... it is the consumer's choice to participate." Therefore, many agencies spend time convincing clients to come to them to receive their services.

Communication with other professionals is also viewed as a valuable skill. Networking is important as helpers find resources for their clients. Having a good relationship with other professionals and knowing which person or agency to call for help ultimately benefits clients. A second part of communication with other professionals involves relating to other staff, especially other team members. For most of the helpers, work with their colleagues is "... pretty family oriented, everybody is real close." These professionals use each other for support so they don't feel "they are just hanging out there" alone. They are also working on problems that demand "getting a lot of heads together" to solve problems. For many workers, the following quote summarizes the feelings they have about the people with whom they work: "I have survived these past two and one-half years...[by] establishing a relationship with my team."

Setting-Specific Knowledge ("On-the-job training")

Participants also mentioned setting-specific knowledge as critical for their job performance. This included general skills such as typing and computer usage as well as more specialized knowledge (e.g., medical terminology, medications and their side effects, and drug regimens). For others, a thorough understanding of human behavior, psychosocial questions and issues, and different helping methods form a basis from which to work with clients, make assessments and recommendations, and develop plans. Also important is knowledge of the bureaucracy and how systems such as Medicaid eligibility, probation, the child welfare system, housing, and others help the professional support the client's interaction with other agencies and services. Finally, many helpers believe that "street smarts" are essential for case management. This street wisdom, in contrast to being "green" or naive, allows helpers to provide realistic assistance to clients very different from themselves.

Ethical Decision Making ("Respecting the rights of our clients")

Another case management skill discussed by participants was ethical decision making. The ability to identify ethical issues (e.g., self-determination, confidentiality, and role conflict), to ask the questions that surround the issues, and to make the appropriate professional responses is necessary. One practitioner summarized the issue of self-determination: "People have the right to poor judgment...we can educate them, but we can't take away their rights." Participants provided many examples of incidents where, in their opinion, clients made bad choices. Clients refused services, chose to retain independence rather than receive complete services, refused medications, ate poorly, returned to abusive situations, and violated parole agreements.
Human service professionals often described their frustrations when clients "refused services" or did not heed "sound advice," but they were equally as articulate about the rights that clients have to determine their own destinies.

One ethical dilemma concerns confidentiality. For many of the professionals interviewed there is always a question of what information goes into a report and what should be omitted. Another issue of confidentiality emerges as computers are more widely used. One worker expressed a hope that computer security is receiving the attention that confidentiality demands.

One of the most difficult dilemmas that case managers face is role conflict. They describe it as "working both sides of the fence" or "walking a thin line" or "protecting two sides." In situations where role conflict occurs, practitioners are asked to assume dual responsibilities that may be at variance with one another. One helper shared a role conflict she encountered as a parole officer. The parole officer's primary responsibility is to support the parolee's life outside the prison environment. If the parolee "messes up," then the parole officer becomes the prosecutor. This type of conflict makes it difficult to maintain a supportive, trusting relationship with a parolee after the prosecution.

**Boundaries ("Too attached to my clients")**

Surviving the intensity of helping was a concern to the participants. They felt it was essential for the case manager to establish boundaries between self and the client. One helper explained, "You have to watch yourself because you get too attached to clients." Another elaborated: "You have to have an idea of your own boundaries and what your issues are. You don't want to get yourself confused about what is going on. . . . Sometimes it's helpful to step back and ask whose problem is this." Even though helpers work hard to establish boundaries between themselves and their clients, they still agonize over their clients and the difficult situations they face. One interviewee described it as "close detachment." The experience of helping is "draining." One helper described her reactions to client problems thusly: "Sometimes I have had to go to the restroom to cry for a few minutes because it was a really hard case." Many workers even dream about their clients. These professionals are committed to handling these boundary issues and recommend "staying realistic" and "leaving work at work."

**Critical Thinking ("Being objective")**

The effective case manager is one who needs to think critically and "clearly." One of the critical-thinking skills needed is "seeing the whole in addition to individual, narrow parts." Because individual cases are so complex, there is a danger of getting stuck in the details and "not seeing the forest for the trees." For one professional, critical thinking is "being able to procure and digest a large body of information from all kinds of different people" and determining "what is the real issue here." The existence of "underlying issues" means that human service professionals are "detectives" who are able to "ask the right questions," "not take things exactly as they are presented," "conduct continual assessments," and "assess communication as it is happening." Helpers then "put it all together to get a better picture." Interviewees suggested that using their years of experience, tuning into their "intuition and insight," "going in with a clear mind," and "performing a reality check—my fantasy versus reality" all enhance their critical-thinking abilities.

**Personal Qualities ("Do all that you can do and more")**

Participants identified a number of personal qualities that enable a case manager to be effective. Realistic, patient, flexible, and self-confident are adjectives that described these qualities. Two interviewees likened the desirable personal qualities to those of a "fairy godmother" and a "chameleon."

Flexibility was a consistent recommendation of interviewees. Constant interruptions to the plans for the day, unpredictable and emergency client needs, interviews conducted under unusual circumstances, and interactions with different clients and professionals who demand different styles are examples that illustrate the need for flexibility. Case managers also need to be "firm" in communications and "soft" at other times. One participant explained, "I just kind of roll with the punches. Whatever needs to be done, I just do it."

The "ability to form good working relationships [with clients] is essential." For some workers this is carried to an extreme of "somehow being reasonable to the point where you can no longer be reasonable." Others describe it as being tactful and respectful of others, "going out of the way to communicate with others," and "taking time with people." The case manager is in a people-oriented field; and, whether working with clients or other professionals, it is important to "be able to talk with people and get along with them."

Another necessary quality for case managers is patience. One participant described her willingness to "take one step at a time" when working with her clients. According to participants, it is sometimes difficult to be patient. They reported that they remind themselves and their colleagues of the importance of "being able to let go and wait." Part of patience comes from "being realistic," which includes having realistic expectations for clients. Also, those interviewed realized that "when you are allowing clients to learn to help themselves, you cannot be in a hurry." A second factor in patience is persistence. For many professionals "you just keep plugging." They acknowledge the difficulties and the resistance encountered from both clients and bureaucracies during the helping process.

Self-esteem provides the foundation for many of the difficulties encountered in case management. According to participants, "you must have self-confidence." It helps one maintain a positive perspective when things do not go well: "You realize that you will get over it (failures) and things will move on." This confidence also fosters assertiveness when dealing with other professionals or resistant clients. One special challenge of working with other professionals is hierarchy. Many do not acknowledge that human service workers have important professional contributions to make. Self-esteem also
helps them assume a leadership role when it is required. These workers recognized the need to “assume authority” in order to accomplish their goals.

Finally, according to participants, case managers need to have both a “sense of adventure” and “excitement” about their work. Terms like “anthropologist,” “private eye,” and “detective” described the challenges of case management as human service providers accurately identify problems, develop service plans to meet client needs, provide and seek out services, and evaluate the process. For many, the challenges are stimulating, not depressing; they are thriving on working in a demanding, fast-paced environment.

Implications

Analysis of these results suggests three areas for consideration by human service educators. The first is the interviewees’ attention to the personal qualities of case managers that promote their performance of the case management function. This is consistent with previous research found the personal characteristics of helpers are ultimately responsible for the success or failure of helping (Brown & Srebalus, 1995; Okun, 1997). In this study, participants cite flexibility, the “ability to form good working relationships,” patience, self-confidence, and a sense of adventure. Moreover, having these attitudes and characteristics is not enough; in light of the difficulties they encounter, inordinate amounts of these qualities are required. In human service education, students may learn the desirable personal characteristics and begin to assess their own strengths and weaknesses in these areas. Extensive curriculum is already available for teaching self-confidence and “the ability to form good working relationships.”

Moreover, human service educators should consider emphasizing the development of flexibility, patience, and a sense of adventure in the human service curriculum.

Also relevant to human service education are the multiple roles that case managers perform. As participants in the study described their experiences with multiple roles, it became clear that case management is complicated and complex. The challenge to educators is teaching students about the realities of human service practice. If these interviewees are accurate in their perceptions of the realities of their work, then human service educators need not only to introduce the basic concepts but also to present the more complicated “realities” of the work. One method to accomplish this is using case studies that have no easy answers and pressing students to imagine complexities that go beyond the text. Reflecting on their field experiences is another way to encourage students to ask what happened as well as why. Finally, two new skills were identified as being important for human service practice. Critical thinking emerged as an essential ability in three components of case management: gathering information; analyzing and synthesizing information; and monitoring and problem solving. The Council for Standards in Human Service Education (1995) in its National Standards for Human Service Workers Education and Training Programs include Standard 15 (skill training in information management) and Standard 16 (human service intervention skills), both of which contain critical-thinking skills. The results of this study suggest an even greater emphasis on critical thinking. Beginning with the introductory course, students can encounter opportunities to learn and practice critical thinking. Moreover, students should understand what critical thinking is and why it is an important skill for the human service professional.

Another new skill for case managers is “selling” or persuading clients as consumers to “buy” services from particular agencies. This reflects a change in the funding environment as agencies compete for clients. Understanding this new way of doing business and learning how to “sell” services in an professional and ethical way will enhance the marketability of graduates.

In summary, human service professionals who perform the case management function provided insights that are useful to human service education. Clearly, case management is an integral part of human service delivery today. It is a complex function across agencies, client groups, and services. The results of these interviews provide information that has a number of implications for educators. Studies such as this one enhance the connection between education and practice by informing curriculum and faculty and reinforcing generally accepted knowledge and skills. Perhaps most important, this study introduces new areas of emphasis for human service education. The description they give us of human service practice “as lived” helps us bring that reality into the human service curriculum and classroom.

References


A Literature Review of Gender Issues in Supervision: Power Differentials and Dual Relationship

Louis Downs and Rita Downs

Abstract

A review of recent literature suggests gender-based problems in the supervision of counselor trainees, which may have applications for Human Services. Consideration of these areas of concern for both male and female supervisors might provide understanding, as supervision evolves, and aid in the development of supervisory skills and programs to provide an optimum and safe learning environment for counselor trainees.

Literature regarding gender issues is proliferating as American society moves toward equity-based workplaces. A review of the literature regarding human service supervision reveals a lack of discussion of these issues. Although Sweitzer and King (1994) made a major contribution by proposing a developmental model of trainee supervision, potential supervision problems were not addressed. Bernard and Goodyear (1992) stated that little information is available regarding gender and supervision in training counselors; but a body of empirical literature does exist across other counselor training fields, such as psychology, counselor education, and social work. This literature suggests that problems exist across disciplines in the areas of power differentials in the relationship between supervisor and supervisee (Davies, 1991; Lloyd, 1992; McCarthy, Kulakowski, & Kenfield, 1994; Nelson, 1989; Robyak, Goodyear, & Prange, 1987) and sexuality (Fitzgerald, Weitzman, Gold, & Unerod, 1988; Lloyd, 1992; Miller & Larrabee, 1995). Since these problems appear to be inherent across multiple disciplines, the authors have reviewed the available research. Their findings suggest an investigation should be conducted to open a dialogue and to motivate research specific to human services.
Gender, Relationships, and Power in Training and Supervision

Authors of supervision texts seem to assume that general studies of gender issues serve to illustrate roles in supervision. For instance, Nelson (1989) reported that when randomly chosen couples were observed in conversation, men made 75% of the interruptions. This study was cited as evidence that the same phenomenon occurs in supervision. Additionally, literature has relied on psychotherapy-based gender issues to define themes in supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992; Glaser & Thorpe, 1986; Pope, Levenson, & Schoner, 1979). When this thinking is applied to supervision and training, stereotypes begin to emerge. Although not all supervision literature makes stereotypical statements, some authors of gender-based supervision literature do. Bernard and Goodyear (1992) reflect this stereotypical view in their statement that gender supervision issues are based on “traditional sex roles” and “prevailing sex role standards” (p. 214). Ryder and Hepworth (1990) suggest that client-counselor gender issues are parallel to supervisor-supervisee issues because, they assert, counseling and supervision are essentially the same.

Some literature supports stereotypical assumptions. Recent surveys discovered that there are significantly more males who hold supervisory positions than females (Kurpius, Gibson, Lewis, & Corbert, 1991; McCarthy et al., 1992). Further, when counselors were polled, both genders considered male supervisors to be more competent than female supervisors (Kurpius et al., 1991). However, another study of the workplace indicated that both genders of supervisees preferred a gender match in supervision (Fishman, 1978).

When research specific to supervision is examined, however, a different picture emerges. Though the opinions of counselors appear to support stereotypes, actual measurements of supervisor behaviors suggest that these perspectives may not always be based on fact. A counseling psychology study has suggested that when power positions were measured, all supervisors in the study ascended to power positions with no significant difference between male and female supervisors (Davies, 1991). Another study in that discipline (Nelson & Holloway, 1990) produced evidence that both genders of supervisors also assumed more power with female supervisees than with males. However, these power roles changed as the supervisors matured and as the supervisees gained experience. A more recent study suggests that supervising males are asked opinions twice as often as supervising females, although the authors failed to substantiate experiences of supervisees (Granello, Beamish, & Davis, 1997).

One study in the training of graduate-level psychology students indicates that both genders of supervisors gave more autonomy to opposite-gender supervisees (Putney, Worthington, & McCullough, 1992). Another study found that as supervisees developed skills, supervisors used more “power-involvement” messages (Davies, 1991). In other words, supervisors established more autonomous relationships with skilled clinicians than with trainees (McCarthy et al., 1994).

Male and female styles of supervision appear to take different forms. Although Robyak et al. (1987) found no significant difference between male and female supervisor power positions, Nelson (1989) discovered that female supervisors used more power messages, such as directive or critical statements, than males and gave evidence that women supervises ascend to power and assume dominant positions with both male and female supervisees far more frequently than male supervisors. This finding, linked with differences from studies of supervisee reactions, could account for some of the opinions of supervisees toward competence of male supervisors (Kurpius et al., 1991). In the first place, McClam and Puckett (1991) reported that human service students, entering their first field experience, expected competence, listening skills, and empathic characteristics from their supervisors. Further, there is evidence that power struggles lead to impasse in supervision (Ellis & Douce, 1994).

The Robyak and associates study (1987) provided evidence that male supervisors showed a pattern of referent power (supervisor influence based on interpersonal attraction between supervisor and supervisee grounded in the assumption of common values, attitudes, opinions, and experiences) that supervises perceived as supportive, assuring, and nonthreatening. The authors suggested that male supervisors may, however, have difficulty allowing establishment of trainee independence. If replication of this study discovered consistent results, the ramifications could easily be inferred from a human service study of students who completed their first field work experience (McClam & Puckett, 1992). In the study students expressed a dependency on structure in the beginning of fieldwork, changing over time toward an expectation of flexible concern on the part of the supervisor.

One feminist psychology study (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986) suggests that gender-based representational systems are at work, defining female identity through relationships, responsibility, and interdependent care and male identity as individuation through logic, justice, and individual rights. Bernstein (1993) and Twohey and Volker (1993), referring to the Belenky and associates study, restated this concept as women being “emotion-focused” in supervision while defining men as “problem-focused.” Interestingly, a recent cross-discipline study of clinical supervisees (Romans, 1996) supported Belenky et al., Bernstein’s, and Twohey and Volker’s contentions.

Thus far, research has made a case for not only reconsideration of gender stereotypes in counseling supervision but for some concern about ascendant power positions taken by female supervisors. The parallel process phenomenon—that transference and countertransference pervades the supervision relationship as readily as the counseling relationship—(Bernard & Goodyear, 1992) may speak to this power differential. For many years, theorists of psychotherapy have addressed parallel process in training and supervision...
supervisor is held to task first because the power differential is in her or his supervisee behaviors or of supervisor status. Kadushin contends that the harassment was responsible for 96.9% of female student reports and 57.1% of history of supervision research of male sexual advances toward students (Noonan, 1993). The psychoanalytic perspective (Kadushin, 1968) is that feeling powerless, or important and admired, can override the objectivity of experienced sexual involvement (e.g., verbal expressions of sexual interest or appropriate response. Further, he believes that parallel process issues of resistance should be relatively easily identified and nonparticipation the appropriate response. Further, he believes that parallel process issues of feeling powerless, or important and admired, can override the objectivity of the supervisor and is the basis for initiating power-based interactions and decreasing mutuality.

**Sexuality and Supervision**

While the parallel process of female supervisors may be power differential, the parallel process of male supervisors appears to be in the personal relationship itself. A consistent pattern has been documented throughout the history of supervision research of male sexual advances toward students (Butler, 1975; Fitzgerald, Weitzman, Gold, & Unerod, 1988; Miller & Larrabee, 1995; Pope, Levenson, & Schoner, 1979). Male supervisors were far more likely to be sexually involved with supervisees than were female supervisors. One study (McNeece, DiNitro, DeWeaver, & Johnson, 1988) discovered that sexual harassment of undergraduate human service and social work and graduate social work students was reported in samples from all five institutions surveyed. Sexual harassment by faculty supervisors was reported by 31.7% of female students and by 18.7% of male students; male supervisor sexual harassment was responsible for 96.9% of female student reports and 57.1% of male student reports.

Pope et al. (1979) found that 17% of female psychologists reported having experienced sexual involvement (e.g., verbal expressions of sexual interest or actual physical involvement) with faculty during training. Seventy-five percent of those stated that they had experienced involvement with a professor, and 47% stated they had experienced sexual involvement with a clinical supervisor. Most of these contacts were with male supervisors. In this same study, 3% of male students reported having experienced sexual involvement during training; but no mention was made of the gender of the faculty member. Pope and colleagues also found that 13% of male educators reported sexual involvement with students and only 4% of male supervisors. Interestingly, the trend found in counselor-client sexual contact of older male counselor with a younger female client was reversed in supervisor-supervisee relationships. Supervisees of both genders involved in sexual contact with supervisors tended to be older.

Glaser and Thorpe (1986) reported that 17% of psychologist trainees had experienced sexual involvement with psychology educators. No differentiation was made between supervisors and other psychology faculty. The incidence of sexual involvement had apparently significantly dropped from the study by Pope et al. (1979) from 47% to 27%. Again, older students reported more frequent incidence of sexual involvement with faculty. Most students reported later feeling that they had been coerced and that the involvement had hindered their professional development.

A study by Fitzgerald et al. (1988) discovered that 26% of faculty in general reported sexual involvement with students. There was some evidence in this study that social science departments had less incidence of sexual involvement by professors with students, but not significantly so. There was also substantial evidence that both genders engaged in an almost equal amount of sexual harassment.

Pope et al. (1979) found that women who had sexual involvement with male supervisors while they were in training had a significant increase in sexual involvement with supervisees and clients when they became professionals. In fact, only 6% of women who had not had sexual contact during training had sexual involvement with clients; women who had experienced sexual contact during training had a significant increase in sexual involvement with clients. The authors discovered that only 6% of the female subjects had experienced a sexual relationship with professors and that only 2% had experienced a sexual relationship with a counseling supervisor. Males were not addressed. However, 19% of the female students polled had experienced what they considered sexual overtures. It remained unclear whether counselor training faculty are less likely to seduce, or whether counseling students are more sophisticated and simply don’t respond as often. Echoing Pope and colleagues (1979), Miller and Larrabee discovered that students who had sexual relations with faculty were likely to have had multiple faculty partners and that most incidents occurred with divorced students. So few men reported sexual encounters that the authors chose to limit the report to female students.

Since the historical record of male supervisor sexual involvement has been consistently significant throughout studies of supervisory relationships, it may be important to consider a dated but perhaps pertinent statement of human nature. A study of psychologists (Butler, 1975) suggested that 95% of those who had sexual contact with clients felt guilt, conflict, and fear; but less than one-half had sought consultation. It appears that prevention and intervention are appropriate.

**The Response From the Counseling Supervisory Community**

Ethics have been increasingly addressed by various professional institutions, including the National Organization of Human Service Education (NOHSE) (Ethical Standards, 1996), the American Psychological Association...
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(ACHA) (Holroyd, & Brodsky, 1977), the American Counseling Association (ACA) and the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) (Kurpius et al., 1991) and others. Ethical guidelines for supervisory relationships have also been developed by various organizations (Bernard, 1987; Dye, & Borders, 1990; Gilbert, 1987).

Kurpius et al. (1991) suggest a series of interventions designed to create a better ethical environment, including mandatory certification of supervisors, self-disclosure statements to potential supervisees, training for all supervisors, monitoring and support of supervision sessions, as well as personal counseling for the supervisors to aid objectivity. Special courses in cross-cultural sex and power roles stereotyping are also recommended.

Ellis and Douce (1994) suggest that the presence of the issue of sexuality is normal and so needs to be dealt with openly. The issue becomes, then, one of proper educational emphasis to learn appropriate response when situations are presented. Ryder and Hepworth (1990) assume equality in supervision to be unrealistic; they suggest the presentation of a philosophical stance in training: "One way to understand supervision ... [is] as a process of helping a neophyte therapist evolve, at least partly, into a colleague and perhaps a friend" (Ryder, & Hepworth, 1990, p.129). They reference Kafka thusly:

In a different context [Kafka] proposes that the original version of double-bind theory had it wrong. It is not contradiction and paradox that drives us crazy. Contradiction and paradox are inevitable. Rather, he says, is parental intolerance for these things, intolerance for inevitable ambiguity, that is most destructive of our sanity. (p.131).

Ryder and Hepworth (1990) have suggested that it is the ethical responsibility of faculty to address issues of sexuality and of dual relationships among themselves and directly with students. Yet, research by Glaser and Thorpe (1986) revealed that only 22% of psychology professors cover sexual issues thoroughly in the classroom, 45% cover sexual issues "somewhat," and 33% never cover any sexual issues. Although Fitzgerald and her associates (1988) did not offer power-related statistics, they did advance a supervisor rating scale that addressed both power differential and sexual harassment prevention. Since regulation has not worked by itself, consideration of the mandatory supervisor certification, supervisor self-disclosure statements, supervisory training, and the monitoring and support of supervision sessions seems like a sound investment.

Discussion

But what of the complexities and ambiguities: how do human service supervisors decrease power differentials and guarantee more ethical relationships with students? A body of empirical evidence needs to be gathered to define conditions present within human service education.

Meanwhile, since ethical issues exist across all other fields of counselor training, it is highly unlikely that human service education is exempt. Safeguards should exist to prevent the potential occurrence of counterproductive supervisor power differentials and sexual involvement within human services. Bernstein (1993) stated that androgyny does not work to decrease power differentials. Bernstein suggests both genders of supervisors need to continue to use their own reference systems (men's tendencies toward problem-focused and women's tendencies toward emotion-focused) and learn to integrate the other gender's reference system into each supervisory session.

The concept of evolution of the supervision relationship toward collegial status, learning to deal effectively with ambiguities of supervisory relationships, may require far more personal skills. Allen, Szollos, and Williams (1986) found that supervisors who had the most effective outcomes were open to feedback about their supervisory styles. They also modeled respect for differences of values, personal privacy, and taught skills, and encouraged novel approaches to therapy.

We suggest five areas of improvement in human service education to diffuse power differentials and increasingly prevent sexual relationships in human service training supervision:

1. NOHSE should begin to consider ethical standards for human service supervisors.
2. Human service instructors and supervisors should receive mandatory training in supervision; perhaps certification is in order.
3. Parallel process and sexuality in supervision should be addressed in practicum and internship curricula.
4. Student course evaluations should include questions inviting feedback about power relationships, gender, and sexual issues in supervision.
5. Research into the nature of supervisory relationships should be undertaken in human services. The nature of supervisory relationships should be described and issues raised in other counseling-related fields should be explored.

Little is known about the conditions that exist in human service practicum and fieldwork training, particularly in the area of gender and relationships. The literature cited suggests, however, these are critical issues. Additionally, intriguing questions have been raised by the psychodynamically-based arguments of Kadushin (1968) that suggest questions about both his descriptions of the resistance to change on the part of students and resistance to status change on the part of supervisors.

Furthermore, the possibilities of contributions, not only to the human service field but to the broader literature, is substantial. Much of the literature that does exist is dated and needs to be replicated to discover current conditions. For instance, student gender preferences in supervision not only conflicted with more recent evidence that counselors believe male supervisors superior and with evidence of differing gender reference systems but may
have significantly changed over time. Further, the conflicts between results of studies invites replication and expansions of the questions themselves.

Comparisons of power and sexuality issues with other fields are also in order. Another seemingly critical question to be asked in human services is the effect of any dual relationships that may exist during training or later practice, since two studies (Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; Pope et al., 1979) have established a link between sexual involvement with supervisors as a student of psychotherapy and later sexual involvement with clients as a professional therapist.

The question that this potential for research raises is that of methodology. Several attempts to study gender issues in other counseling-related fields have encountered validity problems. The use of role-plays to study the effects of role on relationship, empathy, and interpersonal sensitivity discovered nothing (Weisgerber, 1992). Another study (Schwartz, 1993) taped supervisory sessions, encoded responses, and attempted to measure gender-based supervisor/supervisee responses but discovered no differences, ostensibly because of the interference of social desirability in the experiment. An analog approach (Claridge, 1993) attempted to study gender differences in supervisory roles, but statistical analysis produced confounding factors on the most important questions and produced only nominal results for subhypotheses. Another analog study (Schiavone, 1987) again found no statistical difference between male and female supervisors.

Studies that have provided descriptive information about the condition of relationships in supervision used one of three methodologies. Studies that described differences of style, power positions, and student response in supervision utilized observational research, taping sessions over several weeks or months and then encoding and recording responses, which fell within predesignated categories. It appears that the subtlety of relationships and supervisory responses become more apparent over time. The second valid methodology utilized records obtained from educational institutions to look at employment patterns, enrollments, and reported incidents. The most productive measures of sexuality, effects of dual relationships on practice, preferences of students, and perceived responses of supervisors were achieved by utilizing questionnaires. The most effective questionnaires with students assessed graduates of programs. The effectiveness of these methods may provide valuable assistance to human service educators wishing to discover conditions inside the field and provide guidance toward growth of gender sensitivity and ethical supervision.

No matter how methods of supervisory ethical or relational growth are incorporated, it may be a matter of existential concern. The idea advanced by the ethicist Cardinal Desmond Tutu (Friedman, 1996) may be more elegant than any statement made inside of counselor training. Tutu posited that no one knows an individual has changed unless first the individual is willing to talk about the issue openly not with colleagues but with those he/she may harm or have harmed, and then only if he/she is both candid and honest.

References


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describe learning experiences external to the classroom and include field placement, practicum, internship, and externship (Tower, 1989). It appears that different professions prefer specific titles (e.g., internships are associated with psychology, field placements are associated with social work), and different titles are sometimes used within the same program (e.g., practica for sophomores and internships for upper division students). To avoid confusion, the term internship will be used in this paper to refer to a student’s placement.

While the internship can be a fruitful and rewarding experience, it can also be disappointing and devoid of stimulation. Rather than feeling enriched by the internship experience, students can find themselves disenchanted with the supervision process, collegial interactions, and placement focus. Baird (1996) asserts, “Considering the importance of field experiences, it is surprising how little has been written about how placements are selected and how interns should be matched to specific placement sites” (p. 3).

Based on the author’s experience, students can be proactive in avoiding negative internship experiences. In being proactive, students engage in a self-reflection process, review appropriate documentation, visit prospective internship sites, evaluate prospective colleagues and supervisor(s), and clarify internship responsibilities. Although this paper elaborates on specific preinternship issues and ideas that have been discussed by students in various academic settings, by no means does this paper imply an exhaustive list of recommendations.

**Student Self-Reflection**

Prior to committing to an internship, students need to reflect on what they hope to accomplish and what they think they can offer during this experience (King, 1989). According to Stanton and Ali (1994), “The first, and probably most important step to an internship is to analyze carefully your personal, academic and career interests and skills and set your objectives for participating in an internship” (p. 7). This self-reflection process begins with students considering their strengths, needs, and personal and professional goals. Human service programs may not emphasize the importance of self-reflection prior to internship selection. As noted by a reviewer of an earlier version of this manuscript, in his or her opinion, student preparation for the internship is more haphazard than organized. Bertera (1997), however, cites an exception to this, stating that different professions prefer specific titles (e.g., internships are associated with psychology, field placements are associated with social work), and different titles are sometimes used within the same program (e.g., practica for sophomores and internships for upper division students). To avoid confusion, the term internship will be used in this paper to refer to a student’s placement.

It might also be assumed that students naturally enter into a reflective mode and contemplate the importance of their placement decision. Although intern seminar classes are designed to support students while completing placement requirements, preparation strategies are needed prior to committing to a particular internship. To assist in the self-reflection process, several authors (e.g., Faiver, Eisengart, & Colonna, 1994; Imel, 1992; Stanton & Ali, 1994; Wilson, 1981) offer questions that students can ponder while deliberating placement options. Wilson, for example, provides several self-reflective questions, such as: Will I be able to meet my own expectations as well as those of others? Will the experience be worthwhile, and what can I do if it isn’t? How much of myself—my needs, anxieties, values, inadequacies—will I have to expose? How much risk is involved? How much do I dare expose? To enhance the self-reflection process, Imel suggests several strategies, including seeking alternatives, keeping an open mind, comparing and contrasting, viewing from various perspectives, asking what if...?, considering consequences, and hypothesizing.

**Student Contributions**

It is recommended that students think about what they hope to contribute as well as what they hope to gain during their internship. Although the primary purpose of the internship is to acquire experience, utilizing personal talents and skills can be beneficial to students, their colleagues, and clients at the internship site. Students may underestimate their potential contributions because they lack confidence and experience in the human service profession. For instance, one student who had extensive experience in the daily care of her elderly grandparents undervalued her skills and capability of working effectively within the field of gerontology. Upon reflection, she began to realize that her prior knowledge and experience could be invaluable in her academic studies and internship.

**Nontraditional Students**

Nontraditional students with extensive life and field experience may encounter unique circumstances. For example, these students may resist internship activities involving elementary tasks such as filing, collecting data, and shadowing staff. In these situations, student enthusiasm quickly wanes; and they become disgruntled and disinterested. Despite possessing advanced skills, their internship is designed to introduce them to basic skills and is perceived as restrictive. Exceptions may exist whereby some students successfully negotiate a more meaningful experience. Nontraditional students need to realize, however, that, although they may have more experience in one area of human service (e.g., direct counseling), the same skills may not be transferable to alternate settings (e.g., program evaluation). What needs to be underscored is the negotiation process between students and administrators of prospective internship sites. Identifying the unique needs and learning styles of nontraditional students is usually at the forefront of the negotiation process.

**Documentation Review**

Students can also acquaint themselves with literature (e.g., brochures) and policy and procedure manuals prepared by the prospective internship sites. This information provides a basis upon which students can make informed decisions. The process of reviewing placement literature should be completed prior to a formal internship visit and meeting with the supervisor(s).
Being aware of the placement's mandate can provide essential information and help streamline the formal interview process. Moreover, answers to common queries are typically provided in available literature.

Wilson (1981) asserts that many students are ill prepared for preplacement interviews. In reference to students, she further states, "Unless they have given thought to their educational and supervisory needs, most of them rely on the field instructor to initiate questions" (p. 34). Hersh and Poey (1988) concur and report that when interviewing for internship positions, "many interns appear unprepared to answer rather standard questions" (p. 58). To aid interns, these authors propose an interviewing guide consisting of a series of questions that prospective internship supervisors can be asked. Examples of potential questions include: How much opportunity is there for me to pursue special learning interests? What kinds of activities will I be involved in each week? What is the diversity of the client population? Hersh and Poey also caution interns against asking persistent or antagonistic questions (e.g., asking about opportunities in a work area that the internship program only minimally provides, queries that challenge the theoretical orientation of the internship program).

When internship manuals do not exist, students should proceed with caution. The lack of appropriate documentation may indicate that little thought has been devoted to internships, thus, jeopardizing the student's placement. Students should be especially wary when a laissez-faire attitude is prevalent during conversations with prospective supervisors. Conversely, internships that espouse excessive rigidity are less than ideal. To assist students during their internship deliberation process, Boylan, Malley, and Scott (1988) have designed a comprehensive Intern Site Preselection Data Sheet that can be very useful. This sheet can help guide students as they focus on important issues pertaining to internship sites. The specific areas of the Intern Site Preselection Data Sheet include (a) type of direct services rendered, (b) intern experiences provided, (c) administrative experience, (d) supervision provided, (e) education provided.

Site Visit

It is recommended that prospective interns arrange a visit to potential sites prior to a formal interview. An informal visit allows students to focus on program structure without contending with performance anxiety. Faiver, et al. (1994) refer to this process as informational interviewing and suggest that students consider submitting a current résumé during their visit. During this process, students can gain invaluable exposure to the unique environment of each site. Requesting a tour of the facility can also acquaint students with the physical appearance and ambiance of the site. To gain an accurate picture of the internship site, students should request a visit when interactions between clients and staff can be observed. Based on the author's experience, visits during daily rituals (e.g., meal times) can be revealing. Of course, matters regarding confidentiality need to be adequately addressed beforehand. Observing staff members on an informal basis can provide useful information about the attitude and behavior of the staff. For example, a student visiting a group home for emotionally and behaviorally disturbed adolescents became apprehensive when he noticed the disheveled appearance of the facility and the apathetic mood and snide remarks of the staff. First impressions are very important and can be instrumental in the decision-making process. An important question students need to ask themselves is whether they would be enthusiastic about working in the environment they are visiting. Some students can mistakenly undervalue the physical environment for the opportunity to work with a specific supervisor. To their dismay, however, they soon learn that their time with the supervisor is very limited and the vast majority of their time is spent with the front-line staff.

Prospective Supervisor(s) Evaluation

Supervision during the internship has been recognized as a critical factor in student learning (e.g., Cogan, 1989; McClam & Szczepanik, 1991). Moreover, the importance of student expectations and the student-supervisor relationship cannot be overemphasized. There exists a prevalent belief, however, that an effective human service worker is also an effective supervisor. Although this may sometimes be true, students should refrain from jumping to this conclusion. Since a distinction among practical, administrative, and supervisory skills is seldom made, students tend to gravitate to prospective supervisors who are respected for their direct service or administrative skills.

Students may be disappointed when they realize that effective practical skills do not always translate into effective supervisory skills. This situation is intensified when students feel privileged in having the opportunity to complete an internship with a professional who enjoys an outstanding reputation. One intern, for example, described her disillusionment with her supervisor who, despite having tremendous knowledge about community resources, struggled in the area of case management. Inflated student perceptions of supervisors may be replaced with a more realistic perception over time.

To avoid unnecessary disappointments and to gain a better understanding of the prospective supervisor, students can inquire about the supervisor's formal supervisory training and experience. More specifically, students can ask about the theoretical model of supervision practiced by the professional. In some settings, once issues of confidentiality have been discussed and the proper paper work completed, students are invited to observe the supervisor during a supervisory session with an intern. Within this format, students are able to observe how supervisors deal with students and process information that is presented. Based on these observations, students can consider whether or not there is a reasonable match of personal and human service philosophies (Wilson, 1981). If this issue is not clarified, there may be an eventual clash of personalities between students and supervisors, with clients and colleagues triangulated in the conflict.

Whether students will be supervised by more than one individual is another matter requiring clarification. This situation may be especially true
in placements that adhere to a rotational training format. Inherent in this format is the issue of evaluation and student-supervisor fit. Having to adjust to the expectations and style of more than one supervisor can be a daunting task for students.

**Clarification of Responsibilities**

It is important that students enter into discussion with their prospective supervisor(s) to clarify exactly what responsibilities they will assume during their internship. To avoid malcontent associated with having to complete menial tasks (e.g., filing, chauffeuring clients, fund-raising), students need to seek clarification and ensure that their responsibilities are documented. Students who are excited about internship opportunities may overlook this process and assume that their initial expectations will eventually be met.

Along the same lines, students need to clarify supervision times and evaluation formats. As demonstrated through research (e.g., McClam & Szczepanik, 1991), students report a need for support during their internship experience. To ensure that they remain aware of their progress, students might consider requesting the documentation of biweekly reports to support verbal evaluations. Once again, this practice might be particularly important for students who anticipate supervision by more than one professional.

**Deliberation Process**

Rather than committing to the first available internship opportunity, students should consider the advantages and disadvantages of a preferred site and determine whether there exists a correlation between their needs and the internship requirements. There may be students who select internships for scheduling convenience. In this case, the short-term vision of such students may eventually prove problematic. Furthermore, it remains debatable whether such students are truly invested in the internship and whether they can make a valuable contribution. There are also students who worry about adhering to an academic plan and simply perceive the internship as a core requirement that needs to be completed. Again, rather than considering personal needs and career goals, these students may be more concerned about meeting program requirements.

Internship site evaluations and peer reports from previous interns can be enlightening. Based on the experiences of former interns within a specific setting and with a specific supervisor(s), these individuals can elaborate on their perception of the internship. Though the internship experience will be different for each student, important information can be shared regarding constant factors, such as client population and the quality of supervision.

**Conclusion**

Undergraduate human service students need to assume a methodical approach when attempting to secure a meaningful internship. As discussed in this paper, the internship is a critical part of human service education and may be more complex than first realized. To assist students in avoiding negative field experiences, this paper recommended several steps that students can consider when exploring placement options.

**References**


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At long last, we have a book that addresses the core issues faced by interns about to embark on a very complex, experiential learning process. *The Successful Internship: Transformation and Empowerment* by Frederick Sweitzer and Mary King is a book of much value and integrity. This book is both very usable and highly readable and is specifically geared to students in human services. It is a guide for students as they grapple with crucial—and often daunting—moments in the internship, helping them to reach new levels of awareness. From the introduction to the end, the book nurtures the reader with information about the developmental stages of an internship and does so in a careful, caring way. The book consists of four major sections: “Laying the Groundwork,” “Beginning the Journey,” “Making it Better,” and “Going the Distance.”

In “Laying the Groundwork,” particular attention is paid to self-knowing as a person and self-understanding as an intern as well as to the stages of an internship. The self-knowing discussion employs applied psychological theory to look at such things as learning styles, family patterns, and cultural identity. The self-understanding as an intern discussion particularizes the self’s knowing further to look at motivation for placement, unresolved issues, authority, and the student’s life context and support systems, all as they relate to the internship experience. The reading then flows into an examination of the five stages of internship: anticipation, disillusionment, confrontation, competence, and culmination.

In “Beginning the Journey,” the authors take a thorough look at the pieces of an internship, listing specific tasks and assessing key working
relationships of both the internal and external works of an organization. This information is presented in such a way that it makes the experience of analyzing these relationships real and meaningful; it ensures that the student does not “have the experience but misses the meaning.”

The section entitled “Making it Better” was, for me, the most compelling part of this work. It not only takes a hard look at the problems an intern might encounter, it also gives a very concrete, step-by-step approach to making the necessary changes to fix it and then make the internship workable. This problem-solving I have found is the most challenging part of an internship for those who get stuck. The authors suggest eight very doable steps: say it out loud, name the problem, expand your thinking, consider the causes, focus your attention, determine your goals, identify strategies, and create the change. We, as practitioners, have a very approachable model from which to work. This process is transferable to other problematic situations, and the student can become broadly empowered by using this strategy.

Lastly, “Going the Distance” is a wonderful overview of competency and closure as experienced by the intern. There are specific suggestions for how to do it all the right way. These suggestions exemplify the entire book—it presents a relevant mix of theory and practice to students who seek a trustworthy guide.

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Hot, Sexy and Safer
by Suzie Landolphi
Berkley Publishing, 1994, 160 pages
New York, NY

and

Sex for Dummies
by Dr. Ruth K. Westheimer
IDG Books, 1995, 406 pages
Indianapolis, IN

reviewed by Anne S. Hatcher

Several years ago, while attending a meeting of human service professionals, two of us began talking about sex (both of us were HIV educators and accustomed to discussing this topic openly). Being thoroughly involved in our banter, I was unaware of the reactions of those around us. When I glanced at our fellow professionals, I noted to my amazement that they were figuratively sliding down in their chairs (I had the sense they wanted to be under their chairs) and were obviously embarrassed. This experience led to a presentation at the 1997 conference of the National Organization for Human Service Education—during which time many in the room, although they had chosen to attend our session, showed the same level of embarrassment. Because of this reaction, I was asked to review books that I thought would be good for my colleagues to know about and use.

There are many sex manuals in bookstores. Most of these publications focus on increasing pleasure, sexual conquests, and techniques for every possible position. Despite this, sex is a topic that Americans do not discuss. They just do it. The idea is that each person figures it out on his or her own, so there is no need to talk about it. As a result, many people have questions that go unanswered; they get answers from peers who know less than they do; or they explore porno sites on the Internet, hoping for answers. There are better ways to get answers, and we suggest two of them: Hot, Sexy and Safer by Suzie Landolphi and Sex for Dummies by Dr. Ruth.

Landolphi’s book and the video, which can be ordered by using a form found in the book, are specifically for teens. The author answers questions posed by young persons who have not yet had sex. Her focus is on safer sex.
and also on sex as an expression of caring for another person. Her position is that this is not an activity occurring only because of raging hormones or because everyone else does it or because it is recreational fun. Lovemaking (touching and kissing) and sexual intercourse are means of sharing yourself with another in the most intimate of ways and of knowing the other person in a similar manner. Communication with the other person about what does and does not give pleasure as well as listening to the same information from the other person is essential to good sex. If you cannot talk about it frankly, you should not be doing it. The video focuses on learning about one's body and understanding the feelings of a partner during the sex act.

Dr. Ruth’s book answers questions about relationships, human anatomy, and sex—in 30 chapters! Under each topic, specific information is given, with graphics, so that the reader can easily identify myths, facts, and suggestions for making sex better. The first three chapters of the book focus on anatomy and medical issues. Chapters 4 through 10 describe developmental stages from adolescence to old age, hints for family relationships, and having sex the first time. The chapter on AIDS discusses risks and protecting oneself in a very straightforward manner.

Having laid the groundwork, the rest of the chapters in the book address topics covering most of the questions adults would like to ask. Same-gender sex as well as heterosexual intercourse is discussed in a very matter-of-fact manner. Sexually transmitted diseases, maintaining healthy sexuality, sex and the law, and children and sex are topics covered in separate chapters. The last four chapters discuss superstitions, misinformation about sex, and tips on how to be a great lover. This book fulfills the promise on the cover, “Answers to common sex questions explained in plain English.”

For human service professionals these two publications provide accurate information and ideas for talking frankly to students and/or clients about sex. Maybe we can all become more comfortable with the discussion.

Anne S. Hatcher is associate professor and codirector of the Center for Addiction Studies at Metropolitan State College of Denver.
services course. "Her [Fran's] old world was lethal to her, but the new one was proving so empty and desolate, and her journey into it would be a solitary one." How will recent changes in welfare programs impact the Frans of this world? What about the life of Tyreeka, Dre's 14-year-old girl friend, now old enough for pregnancy? "... These children have concluded that bringing about life—any life whatsoever—is a legitimate, plausible ambition in a world where plausible ambitions are hard to come by. This they can do."

The book's language is powerful and vivid: "His fattened, needle-scarred hands will never again see the deep bottom of a trouser pocket; his forearms are swollen leather; his bloated legs mass up from the concrete." The problems confronting the residents of the corner and, thus, confronting all of us, are vividly described. Simon and Burns spent four years hanging out on the corner, eventually gaining the trust of the people living and working there. They were present for much of what they describe. And then, just when you want to learn some outcomes, the authors segue into reflections about what they have seen. "From the moment that the children down here have any awareness at all, they are shaped by a process that demands that they shed all hope, that they cast off all but street-level ambition, learning to think and feel and breathe in ways that allow only for day-to-day survival."

I can't imagine a book that would be a more enlivening supplemental reading in a range of human service courses: introduction, policy, welfare reform, and certainly drug and alcohol studies. It is long and detailed; yet, it is very difficult to put down because you want these people to succeed; and you finish the book wanting society to do a better job in providing opportunity for all of us.

Wm. Lynn McKinney is professor of education and director of the human services major at the University of Rhode Island and Materials Review Editor of Human Service Education.
Human Service Education (HSE) is a refereed journal. Manuscripts which are judged by the editors to fall within the range of interest of the journal will be submitted without the names and identifying information of the authors to reviewers.

The principal audiences of HSE are faculty members and administrators in institutions of higher education and practitioners interested in human service education. Sample areas of interest include teaching methods, curricular design, internships and experiential learning, faculty development, career paths of graduates, issues of program quality, relationships with human service agencies, articulation between two- and four-year programs, and models of graduate study in human services.

HSE publishes three types of submissions: a) articles, b) brief notes, and c) critical reviews of instructional materials and scholarly books of interest to human service educators.

The following instructions apply to all three types of submission:

1. Manuscripts should be well organized and present the idea in a clear and concise manner. Use headings and subheadings to guide the reader. Avoid the use of jargon and sexist terminology.
2. Manuscripts should be typed in 12-point type with margins of at least one inch on all four sides. All material should be double spaced, including references, all lines of tables, and extensive quotations.
3. All materials should conform to the style of the fourth edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Tables should be kept to a minimum. Include only essential data and combine tables wherever possible. Each table should be on a separate sheet of paper following the reference section of the article. Final placement of tables is at the discretion of the editors.
6. Figures (graphs, illustrations) must be supplied as camera-ready art. Figure titles should be attached to the art.
7. On a separate page, place the title of the article, the names of the authors, their professional titles, and their institutional affiliations. Article titles and headings should be as short as possible.
8. Check all references for completeness; make sure all references mentioned in the text are listed in the reference section and vice versa.
9. Manuscripts are edited for consistency of grammar, spelling, and punctuation. In some cases, portions of manuscripts may be reworded for conciseness or clarity of expression.
10. Manuscripts are accepted for review with the understanding that they represent original work and are not under review by another publication.
11. All manuscripts must meet the specifications detailed above, or they will be returned to the authors before review for publication.

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1. Articles. Ordinarily, manuscripts for articles should not exceed ten (10) typed pages. Following the title page, include an abstract of not more than 100 words. This statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should appear on a page separate from the text.
2. Brief Notes. Submissions appropriate for this format include brief reports of research projects or program innovations. Manuscripts should not exceed four double-spaced typed pages; it is recommended that the results and implications occupy at least half of the brief note. A 50-word capsule statement should accompany the note.
3. Learning Materials Reviews. HSE accepts reviews of textbooks, other instructional materials, and scholarly books of interest to human service educators. Manuscripts should not exceed three typed pages unless two or more related books are included in one review – in which case manuscripts should not exceed five typed pages. Inquiries about reviews may be directed to Wm. Lynn McKinney, 107 Quinn Hall, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, RI 02881-0809. Telephone: 401/792-2244, fax 401/874-2581, or e-mail lynnm@uriacc.uri.edu.

Send an original and three clean copies of all materials to: Tricia McClam, 115 Claxton Addition, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37996-3400. Telephone: 615/974-3864.

Telephone or e-mail inquiries are welcome and may be made to McClam at 423/974-8864 (e-mail: mcclam@utk.edu) or Rob Lawson at 360/650-3886 (e-mail: robl@wce.wwu.edu).
National Organization for Human Service Education

The National Organization for Human Service Education (NOHSE) was founded in 1975 as an outgrowth of a perceived need by professional care providers and legislators for improved methods of human service delivery. With the support of the National Institute of Mental Health and the Southern Regional Education Board, NOHSE focused its energies on developing and strengthening human service education programs at the associate, bachelor’s, master’s, and doctoral levels.

The current purposes of the organization are: (a) to provide a medium for cooperation and communication among human service organizations and individual practitioners; (b) to foster excellence in teaching, research, and curriculum development for improving the education of human service delivery personnel; (c) to encourage, support, and assist the development of local, state, and national organizations of human services; and (d) to sponsor conferences, institutes, and symposia that foster creative approaches to meeting human service needs.

Members of NOHSE are drawn from diverse educational and professional backgrounds that include corrections, mental health, child care, social services, human resource management, gerontology, developmental disabilities, addictions, recreation, and education. Membership is open to human service educators, students, fieldwork supervisors, direct care professionals, and administrators. Benefits of membership include a subscription to Human Service Education and to The Link (the bimonthly newsletter) and the availability of professional development workshops, professional development and research grants, and an annual conference.

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