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Implementing Service Learning Into Human Service Education

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Abstract
This article describes the complementary nature of service learning and human service education. The incorporation of a service learning component can be beneficial to students, universities, and communities (Singleton, 2007). Service learning can benefit students by making classroom learning more relevant to their career goals and aspirations (Prentice & Robinson, 2010). The relationship between the university and community can be strengthened by working in partnership to maximize student learning (Cipolle, 2004). Communities may benefit by receiving assistance at little cost and grooming professionals for future work opportunities within the organization. Even given the many benefits, service learning should still be approached with caution as there is a potential to reinforce existing power differentials between those in need in the community and those in a more privileged position at the university. Garnering information about various aspects of service learning within human service education is essential to maximizing desired outcomes for all parties involved (Dunlap, Scoggin, Green, & Davi, 2007).

Introduction
The incorporation of service learning in higher education is on the rise (Butin, 2006). It is imperative for instructors in academia to critically examine the components of service learning so that maximum benefits can be obtained for all parties involved. If the service learning experience is properly aligned with course content, it can enhance student understanding by effectively connecting community action to course concepts (Dunlap et al., 2007). If it is not properly aligned, service learning has the potential to reinforce negative stereotypes regarding power inequalities between students and community members in need (d’Arlack, Sanchez, & Feurer, 2009). This article examines the rationale for including a service learning component in the human service curriculum as well as recommendations and cautions for including such an approach.

Definition of Service Learning
For the purpose of this article, service learning is defined as a course-based educational experience in which students participate in organized community service to gain a deeper understanding of course content, civic responsibility, and a broader appreciation of the discipline (Bringle, Hatcher, & Games, 1997). Many universities across the country are incorporating service learning courses and assignments into the curriculum (Butin, 2006). The intent, quite simply, is to combine the needs of the community into the classroom content, thus becoming a win-win for all parties involved (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Tryon et al. (2008) explained
one of the most popular ways of adding in an experiential component for students is by including a service learning assignment into an existing course.

**Rationale for Service Learning within Human Services**

Human service programs are representative of a trend in higher education that emphasizes university/community partnerships (Eyler & Giles, 2001; Fair, 2007; Slavkin, 2007). Human service programs and other service oriented disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, and counseling, are well qualified to incorporate community needs into the curriculum due to their emphasis on human welfare and well-being (Fair, 2007). As a part of their education and training, students in human services are being prepared to understand human problems and to intervene effectively in them by offering an interdisciplinary approach to helping, grounded in the social sciences (Woodside, Curruth, Clapp, & Robertson, 2006.). Therefore, combining service learning and human services creates a compatible dynamic by which the results are mutually beneficial. Communities benefit by having aspiring professionals investing time and energy into neighborhood improvements (Sperling, 2007), and students have opportunities to connect classroom learning to the realities of an actual human service setting (McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss, & Fudge, 2007).

It is important to note that the service learning activities do not need to be linearly connected to career interests because the same core skills can be applied across human service job settings (McClam et al., 2007). Another consideration for the inclusion of service learning in human service education is the decrease in federal funding to support community programs. It behooves communities to form relationships with universities to help meet the needs of the area. Nontraditional efforts, such as university/community partnerships are needed now more than ever (Brown & Kinsella, 2006). It is important to examine these partnerships and the factors that contribute to their success (Brown & Kinsella, 2006; Eyler & Giles, 2001; Slavkin, 2007).

**Benefits to Service Learning in Human Service Education**

Successful service learning projects are an influential medium that can fundamentally result in numerous benefits for students (Slavkin, 2007). Traditional lecture-style classrooms reach students at the cognitive level, but when combined with a service learning component, students are able to engage in course content cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally (Sperling, 2007). Students join in classroom assignments that link theory to practice while concurrently gaining rich emotional experiences through hands-on action (Brown & Kinsella, 2006; Woodside, et al., 2006). Because of this multidimensional approach to learning, students acquire a deeper understanding of course material (Diambra, McClam, Woodside, & Kronick, 2006). Classroom instruction comes to life through interaction with real world situations. For example, Mcguire and Doty (2010)
implemented a service learning component into an advanced adolescent development course where students had the opportunity to develop and lead a mentoring and prevention program for at-risk youth. Incorporating service learning into human service education can positively influence the students’ experience in the classroom (Eyler & Giles, 2001; Prentice & Robinson, 2010; Boyle-Baise, 2002). Students reported greater engagement, understanding, and curiosity of course content and putting forth greater effort into a class accompanied by service learning rather than one without it (McGuire & Doty, 2010; Stelljes, 2007). As a result, students who engage in service learning are more likely to have higher achievement levels than students with classroom instruction only (Mpofu, 2005), thus making a strong argument in favor of service learning activities.

Not only do students increase their knowledge base, but they also increase and strengthen their repertoire of skills. Combining human service education with an experiential component that takes place in the community complements classroom learning by making the community a place where students can practice the skills they are learning in the classroom. Woodside, et al. (2006) were teaching a class regarding personality theory and mental health. The human service and counseling students applied their coursework to children at a local urban Title I school. There, students met with at least three children within and outside the classroom for a total of three hours per week for ten weeks. Before service learning assignments, students reported anticipating the opportunity to instruct community members with some anxiety. However, during and after the assignment, that objective became less salient as students became more absorbed in building relationships with community members rather than just providing services (McGuire & Doty, 2010). Students recognized the importance of the helping relationship thereby critiquing their rapport building skills and honing their communication skills (Woodside et al., 2006). Furthermore, students learned how to apply reflective thinking skills to real life situations, thus practicing the transfer of knowledge (Mpofu, 2005). Moreover, Woodside et al. (2006) noticed in students’ reflection assignments the progression over the semester to an increased confidence in their helping ability, which led to students feeling comfortable in the helper role. By the end of the assignment, students also had a raised awareness of the teamwork and planning, management, and leadership skills they would need in order to pursue careers working with differing populations (McGuire & Doty, 2010). Importantly, students are enabled to recognize their own skill deficits and cite what they hope to improve in the future (Woodside et al., 2006).

As students become emerging professionals by gaining an increased understanding of the field of human services, they turn their attention inward to their values. Through service learning, students are exposed to challenge, hardship, and injustice in ways that signal a deep affective reaction. In responding to the plight of another, students begin to develop a sense of social responsibility and personal agency, which spurs
them toward continued civic engagement (Boyle-Baise et al., 2007; Stelljes, 2007). When students affirm value to the service learning experience, there is a reinforcement of commitment to working in the human service field (Woodside et al., 2006). Students change from being self-focused to demonstrating a duty to others (Diambra et al., 2006), from reluctance to commitment (Woodside et al., 2006), and from being extrinsically motivated to being intrinsically motivated in pursuing their career in the human service field (Diambra et al., 2006).

Because service learning is an insight-oriented process, inaccurate beliefs (e.g., stereotypes, hierarchies, etc.) can be discarded, and new perspectives can be created. By being out in the community, often in places students would not typically frequent, they find out if their personal beliefs are supported by what they are experiencing. With the help of self-reflection activities, professors challenge students to take a critical look at their values, perspectives, and assumptions held of diverse populations on societal and individual levels as their world view evolves (McGuire & Doty, 2010; Stelljes, 2007).

Concurrently, the service learning experience helps students to form a more solid professional identity (Diambra et al., 2006). Contextually meaningful and experientially grounded learning activities create opportunities for students to foster professional growth (Boyle-Baise & Langford, 2004). For example, in one service learning project, students from an intercultural communication course worked directly and indirectly with refugee, immigrant, and ethnic/cultural populations by working one-on-one with refugees, developing a communication program, and campaigning to raise awareness of diversity within the local community (Endres & Gould, 2009). Having the opportunity to partner with other professionals in the field creates a model for students to follow. Furthermore, in another service learning experience, human service and social work students were engaged in a local agency that supports the Latino/a community. Students collaborated with the director of the community organization to help Latino/a individuals and their families have a positive transition to a new country and culture, meet their basic needs, find employment, develop a support network, and support healthy parent/child relationships (Brown & Kinsella, 2006). Students were put in a role that required professionalism as others’ welfare took precedence.

By serving directly in community organizations, students learn about the human service arena and are enabled to critically evaluate and reflect on their pre-service training (Singleton, 2007). According to a study done by McGuire and Doty (2010), students reported a greater understanding of their own professional development needs and were able to reflect more thoughtfully about the types of professional experiences they would like to pursue, thereby supporting the development of professional goals. For instance, the experience could help students to determine what population of people they would like to work with and help them to consider the complexities that are involved in the profession as they deliberate over a future career. Students have the potential to
garner many professional and personal benefits as a direct result of service learning assignments. In order to optimize the benefits, educators must consider the cautions to service learning so as to effectively implement it into their courses.

Cautions of Service Learning

In light of the benefits previously discussed, it is important to approach service learning with a critical lens so that program coordinators and instructors can safeguard against potential barriers that can detract from the experience. Service learning yields positive results when proper classroom supports are in place and an equitable partnership exists between the university and community; when both are equally benefitting from the partnership. If students are not properly prepared in the classroom to engage in a service learning opportunity, the project has the potential to elicit anxiety (Woodside, et al., 2006), perpetuate inaccurate beliefs (Endres & Gould, 2009), and harm the community they are trying to help (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Furthermore, if an unequal partnership exists between the university and community, it reinforces and replicates existing patterns of power (d’Arlack, et al., 2009), thus becoming opportunistic for one group over the other. The emphasis in service learning is often on the student and their potential for growth, rather than placing equal importance on the needs of both the student and the community (d’Arlack et al., 2009). Rather than fostering reciprocity, the lack thereof is detrimental to both the community and university on an individual and systemic level. Awareness of these factors is necessary to the success of service learning programs.

A service learning assignment may be the first time students are able to work with “real” clients and experience first-hand what it is like to directly influence the life of another through the helping professions. Before students leave the classroom and enter the community, they may experience anxiety and fear about the experience due to a lack of confidence in their knowledge and skills, fear of being unable to relate to clients, and not wanting to make mistakes (Diambra, McClaim, Fuss, Burton, & Fudge, 2009; Woodside et al., 2006). These feelings are then compounded by the emotional content of the service learning experience itself (Woodside et al., 2006). Direct learning is embedded with emotions and can cause students to be upset, taken aback, or uncomfortable, which can cause students to retreat into less vulnerable contexts and ways of viewing the world (Bell, Horn, & Roxas, 2007). Students may avoid challenging situations and therefore remain static in their inaccurate perceptions of the world.

Service learning experiences may also influence students’ cognitively by perpetuating students’ inaccurate beliefs about stereotypes (Cipolle, 2004), white privilege (Endres & Gould, 2009), and charity (d’Arlleck, et al., 2009). McGuire and Doty (2010) explored students’ expectations prior to their service learning experience. Students revealed stereotypes and described opportunities to teach their community
counterparts about preferred ways of being, which suggested their intent to assimilate people into the dominant worldview. In practice, this paternalistic attitude reinforces preconceived stereotypes, prevents change from occurring, and allows the stereotype to continue (Cipolle, 2004). Likewise, service learning in human service education may provide students with the opportunity to rehearse and affirm the attitudes and advantages associated with economically privileged students (Endres & Gould, 2009). This then lends itself to viewing service learning interactions as charity, which is problematic because the notion of “helping the other” creates a hierarchy between the students and the communities in which they work (Blouin & Perry, 2009). Moreover, students can become absorbed in providing help for “the other” rather than examining their own learning process (Bell, Horn, & Roxas, 2007). The misconception of providing volunteerism and charity is particularly relevant to students within human services because they will be meeting specific community needs while ultimately trying to improve their educational experience.

At times, the students’ inaccurate and somewhat oppressive beliefs are apparent to the community members. Though the students’ patronizing demeanor may be unintentional, community participants may feel stigmatized, oppressed, and resentful of the students’ involvement. Consequently, community participants may disengage from the program (d’Arlack, et al., 2009). Moreover, students who are ill-equipped with the proper knowledge and basic skills to work in human service settings require extra time, training, and attention from organizational staff, which can be taxing on the already limited resources of the organization (Blouin & Perry, 2009). A lack of professionalism and preparation can seriously harm the image of and partnership with the organization. If programs are not successful, providing partners are less likely to commit to future service learning programs (Brown & Kinsella, 2006). Thus, the university and community must have an equal, collaborative relationship so as to optimize the potential of a service learning opportunity.

If an unequal partnership exists between the university and community, service learning loses its potential to become transformative and counter-hegemonic (Cipolle, 2004). It is easy for the university, financially dependent and behaviorally entrenched in its expert role, to see the community as deficit-based and impose expert solutions (d’Arleck et al., 2009). There is hesitation on the part of the university to place the community in an expert role. Unfortunately, the concept of having privileged people helping underprivileged people is historically and institutionally embedded in power (Endres & Gould, 2009). Thus, universities may be disproportionately benefiting when compared to the advantages gained for the community counterpart.

Although service learning assignments may seem like the panacea to simultaneously meet the needs of students in the field of human services and community members, there are also legitimate concerns that must be remedied throughout the implementation of the service learning program.
Because service learning has been used for decades (Slavkin, 2007), the
cautions of service learning have been explored while effective,
empirically-based solutions have been recommended.

**Characteristics of Effective Programming**

In order to maximize the benefits and minimize the concerns of
service learning within human service education, effective programming is
essential. Based on the cautions of service learning, two themes emerged
that professors, program coordinators, and researchers have used to
safeguard the drawbacks associated with this pedagogical practice: proper
classroom support and reciprocity.

**Classroom Support**

One challenge experienced by service learning coordinators
involves designing courses to support students as they learn how to apply
course content to professional practice. First and foremost, the service
learning assignment should align with the content of the academic course.
A connection should be made so that students can attach meaning to the
experience (Brown & Kinsella, 2006; Slavkin, 2007). Secondly,
instructors should facilitate knowledge and skill acquisition on the subject
matter. Doing so contributes to the transition from the classroom to the
real world (McClam, et al., 2007). Course requirements can be designed to
allow students to practice professional skills in the classroom before
fulfilling similar duties in the community setting (e.g. writing case notes,
developing a plan of services, etc.) (McClam et al., 2007). Furthermore,
within students’ assignments, they would reference required reading
material, which highlights the importance of instructors making deliberate
choices when selecting textbooks and other supplemental materials
(Diambra et al., 2009). Providing adequate preparation prior to the service
learning assignment helps to reduce the anxieties and fears students have
about working in a professional setting (Brown & Kinsella, 2006).
Another way to reduce heightened apprehension is to provide structure to
the service learning project. By providing students with clear guidelines
and a projection of course assignments, by elucidating their role as both a
student and community partner, and by framing the service learning
project within the agency setting helps students to know what to expect
thereby alleviating some of their anxieties and fears (McClam et al.,
2007). In addition, by incorporating structured classroom assignments
such as exams, reflection essays, and progress notes, students will bear in
mind their responsibility to their own learning instead of being solely
absorbed into their immersion experience (Bell, Horn, & Roxas, 2007). In
a study done by McClam et al. (2007), students reported that classroom
assignments made them “feel accountable” and put them in a “professional
role” (p. 21).

After the students are primed for their service learning experience,
they begin the experiential component of the assignment. At this point, it
is important to incorporate reflection into the coursework because it is a
key component in order to bridge the transfer of learning and skills (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Morris, Pomery, & Murray, 2001). It is not enough for students to simply participate in the experience. Students need to process their thoughts and feelings either through writing or classroom discussion (McClam et al., 2007). Diambra et al. (2006) reported that human service students who engaged in a service learning experience change both cognitively and affectively. Thus, engaging students in thoughtful reflection allows students to process their emotions, experiences, and cognitive dissonance, while also providing an opportunity for the instructor to provide feedback and monitor students’ reactions, growth, and learning (Slavkin, 2007). Likewise, if the service learning experience occurs in a context in which they are unfamiliar, students may develop a new worldview. Because their old worldview is inadequate to accommodate new information, students begin the process of questioning, challenging their current thinking, and looking for explanations (Woodside et al., 2006). Guided reflection helps students to critically process their changing worldviews. As a result, inaccurate beliefs are also challenged.

Students have the opportunity to identify their biases regarding such things as stereotypes, culture, diversity, and privilege, which then allows educators to help students replace their biases with accurate information (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Eyler & Giles, 2001; Prentice & Robinson, 2010; Taylor & Trepanier-Street, 2007). Furthermore, advanced cognitive thought is practiced when students examine complex issues in a real world context. Reflections nurture higher-order cognitive skills, which are important as a student and professional (McGuire & Doty, 2010; Woodside et al., 2006). Lastly, the reflection assignments help professors to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the program, so they may make future improvements in order to better meet the needs of students and the community (Slavkin, 2007).

**Reciprocity**

Service learning assignments are different than other field experiences because they emphasize reciprocity, which means that the relationship between the university (i.e., instructors, students, etc.) and the community is collaborative, equal, and mutually beneficial (McClam et al., 2007). Unlike counseling practica and internships that focus primarily on the student’s acquisition of knowledge and skills (Woodside et al., 2006), service learning lends itself to equal opportunities. Accordingly, Brown and Kinsella (2006) asserted that partnerships build on each other’s strengths to address each other’s needs. Service learning is at its best when it is tailored to meet the unique characteristics of participants and community members (Slavkin, 2007). Thus, the assignment takes on greater value as students meet real community needs and the community nurtures students’ understanding and skill sets that began in the classroom (Woodside et al., 2006). Coordination between the educational institution and the agency should be a priority in all phases of the service learning
assignment so as to foster and maintain a reciprocal relationship. Moreover, coordinating with each other from the outset helps to make the project clear and consistent with everybody, eliminating any confusion or conflicting information (McClam et al., 2007).

Because of the substantial commitment that is required on both sides of the partnership, it is important to have an equal distribution of responsibility (Singleton, 2007). Agency staff and course instructors need to communicate with each other about the amount of time they will need to invest in order to make a service learning venture successful (Brown & Kinsella, 2006). Importantly, they should maintain contact throughout the experience to ensure each group is appropriately meeting expectations. Furthermore, proper supervision of students from both parties positively correlates with a decrease in student anxiety and an increase in student growth and professional development (McClam et al., 2007). Also, it safeguards community agencies and members from potential student limitations.

Service learning is a joint venture. Successful partnerships require much more than good intentions; they require true collaboration. When the spirit of reciprocity is central to the service learning course, community members feel encouraged to teach the knowledge they possess. Reciprocity is key because community members are often so powerless in our society’s hierarchies that it takes time for them to value their own voice, and it also takes time for students and faculty to admit they sometimes know a lot less than their community counterparts (Endres & Gould, 2009). A unique facet of service learning is the ability for students, instructors, and citizens to be involved as equal participants in resolving pressing needs faced by a community by co-creating programs. By incorporating proper classroom supports and fostering an equal partnership between the university and community, an effective program can ameliorate community concerns and promote students’ learning.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, the incorporation of service learning in human service education has the potential to help students broaden their knowledge and skill base. Instructors need to ensure that the service learning activities are carefully integrated into the curriculum and are aligned with the goals of the course. This alignment is imperative to a successful service learning component as this is what enables students to take classroom learning and apply it to the “real world.” The incorporation of classroom support and reciprocity are two essential components to effective service learning.

Service learning has the potential to reduce stereotypical thinking among students (Blouin & Perry, 2009). It should, however, be approached with caution, as it also has the potential to reinforce power inequalities between the community and university (Endres & Gould, 2009). More research is needed to clarify the components of a successful service learning experience for students. It is critical for human service
programs of study to examine how service learning can be part of the curriculum that helps students gain the necessary skills to be effective in their discipline.

References


Educating Human Services Students about Careers with People Who Have Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities

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Abstract
This article addresses career opportunities for human services professionals at organizations serving people with intellectual and developmental disabilities (ID/DD). Human services roles, goals, and values are connected with the needs of people with ID/DD to show the many ways that human services professionals can make a difference in the lives of people with ID/DD. We describe relevant job openings for human services professionals in residential, vocational, in-home, and early intervention services. Educational challenges to interest human services students in working with this client population are discussed. Strategies for human service faculty to overcome educational challenges are provided.

Introduction
Population growth, increasing life expectancy of people with ID/DD, aging of family caregivers, and national policies expanding community and in-home services are creating an increasing demand for jobs for direct service professionals (DSP's) that assist people with intellectual and developmental disabilities (ID/DD) (National Council on Disability [NCD], 2010; United States Department of Health and Human Services [USDHHS], 2006). DSP’s provide support and assistance to people with ID/DD with independent living skills such as: bathing, dressing, laundry, cooking, shopping, personal care/hygiene/grooming, health/medication/safety, employment, budgeting/bill paying, recreation, housekeeping, and transportation. Approximately 1 million people with ID/DD currently receive services and supports provided by DSP’s, however, that number is expected to rise to 1.4 million by 2020 (USDHHS, 2006).

While the larger occupational category of social and human service assistants is expected to have job growth of 23% (United States Department of Labor [USDL], 2010-2011, DSP jobs in ID/DD are expected to grow by 37% or 323,000 jobs (USDHHS, 2006). Occupational titles for DSP's vary by employer, work setting, and geographic area, and there is no single job title (Hewitt, Larson, Seavey, Edelsten, Hoge, & Morris, 2008; USDHHS, 2006). The current shortage of DSP's limits opportunities for people with DD to receive supports necessary to live and work in the community (NCD, 2011).
The Americans with Disabilities Act (2008) defines a disability as "...a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more of a person’s major life activities (walking, speaking, seeing, hearing, breathing, learning, working, self-care); or a record of such an impairment; or being regarded as having such an impairment..." (Definition of Disability, para. 4). People with ID/DD would be considered to have a disability under the ADA. There are approximately 4.3 million Americans of all ages who have an ID/DD (USDHHS, 2006).

Human services educators are in a key position to make an impact on the contemporary ID/DD staffing needs. Educators have the opportunity to interest students in ID/DD, prepare/train them, and thereby increase potential recruitment to the ID/DD field. Working with people with ID/DD is an ideal opportunity for human services students to assist people with unmet needs. People with ID/DD face societal barriers in healthcare, housing, and employment (NCD, 2011). However, human services educators face several challenges in getting students to consider a job in the ID/DD field.

First, research indicates that students lack interest in working with people who have ID/DD (Barr & Bracchitta, 2008; Krumner-Nevo & Weiss, 2006; Salih & Al-Kandari, 2007). The absence of career information about the field of ID/DD is found to be a contributing factor in the lack of interest in working in the field of ID/DD (Bennett, 2009). Second, despite changes in legislation and societal attitudes towards people with ID/DD, college students hold negative stereotypes and erroneous beliefs about the character and abilities of people with ID/DD (Bennett, 2009; Gordon, Tantillo, Feldman, & Perrone, 2004). This is also reflected in derogatory language used by American youths (Siperstein, Pociask, & Collins, 2010). This is also due to high levels of societal stigma associated with ID/DD and working with such individuals (Hewitt, 2008). Third, staffing issues in the ID/DD field are well-documented regarding low wages, few or no benefits, and inadequate staff training (American Network of Community Options and Resources, 2009; Hewitt, et al., 2008; NCD, 2010; NCD, 2011).

The purpose of this article is to describe contemporary career opportunities in the ID/DD field and how to overcome educational challenges to interesting human services students in working with this client population. First, we will connect human services roles, goals, and values with the needs of people who have an ID/DD to show the many ways that human services professionals can make a difference in lives of people with ID/DD. Next, we describe agency settings with a staffing shortage, and the relevant job openings for human services professionals. Finally, we discuss educational challenges and provide human services faculty with suggestions for overcoming these educational challenges. This article was inspired by the authors’ work experiences in the ID/DD field, research, gaps in the literature, and teaching human services students.
Human Services Roles, Goals, and Values

Human services professionals adhere to a Code of Ethics that describes their roles, goals, and values when working in all types of organizations (NOHS, 1996), while the Developmental Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act of 2000 (ADD, 2000) describes important roles, goals, and values for people specifically working in the ID/DD field. Similarly, both documents identify the importance of client strengths, clients’ rights to self-determination or making choices, independence, being productive, and being included in community/society. Inclusion is when people with DD have contact with people who don't have disabilities, in home, work, school, or community settings, and this leads to acceptance and friendships. Person-centered planning is an individualized process that helps people with ID/DD to achieve what they need and want in life (Claes, Hove, Vandevelde, Loon, & Shalock, 2010; Holburn, Gordon, & Vietze, 2007).

In addition, human services professionals work with client populations who have unmet needs and/or experience discrimination (NOHS, 2009). People with ID/DD currently face barriers to integration, independence, and self-determination, due to waiting lists and shortages of supports, particularly in the areas of health care, housing, employment, transition from school age to adulthood, assistive technology, and children with disabilities in foster care (NCD, 2011). People with ID/DD are also frequently victims of abuse (Barger, Macy, Parish, & Walker, 2009; Hickson, Khemka, Golden, & Chatzistyli, 2008; Ward, Bosek, & Trimble, 2010), discrimination (Mary, 2007; Siperstein, Pociask, & Collins, 2010; United States Department of Justice, 2010), and lack of mental health care (Ailey, 2003; Lynch, 2004). These issues can be addressed through the human services roles of caregiver, case manager, broker, counselor, teacher or educator, behavior changer, consultant, outreach professional, mobilizer, advocate, community planner, community change organizer, evaluator, and administrator. Therefore, people with ID/DD are a population of interest to human services professionals.

Moreover, the skill of empathy, the ability to put oneself in the shoes of others, is an important skill for human services professionals (NOHS, 2009). It involves close listening to understand a situation, being able to feel what it might be like to be in a person's situation, and giving feedback to the client or family. When working with people with ID/DD, human services professionals can develop preliminary empathy from reading the history about people with ID/DD, such as institutionalization, abuse, poverty, and discrimination. Empathy also develops from making home visits to clients in their natural environment, and accompanying individuals to appointments and places in the community.

Furthermore, collaboration between human services professionals and other staff is necessary. Collaboration brings together key people with different areas of expertise to the same table to talk about an issue (Mary, 2007). Teams are particularly useful when working with people with
ID/DD who have a co-occurring psychiatric disorder (Davis, Barnhill, & Atezaz, 2008). The Developmental Disabilities Act of 2000 requires multidisciplinary staff (ADD, 2010). Often, there are multiple social service agencies or service providers involved in the lives of people with ID/DD. Therefore, teams are frequently used in ID/DD settings (Azzi-Lessing, 2010; Gallagher, Malone, & Ladner, 2009; Kropf & Malone, 2004).

**Agency Settings with Job Openings**

The staffing crisis in the ID/DD field is greatest in residential, vocational, and in-home services (USDHHS, 2006). Staffing needs have also been identified in the area of early intervention services for children (National Early Childhood Technical Assistance Center [NECTAC], 2011). Moreover, staffing needs have been identified in the larger field of disability services as well (NCD, 2010). We use information from jobs advertised online, the newspapers, the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* (United States Department of Labor, 2008–2009), and our work experiences in the ID/DD field. We will focus on job titles for human services professionals in the ID/DD field within residential, vocational, in-home, and early intervention work settings, rather than describing all of the possible work settings and job titles in the ID/DD field. Information about other ID/DD work settings, master's level professional positions, related careers, professional organizations, and job search websites are beyond the scope of this article, however, this information is available by contacting the authors.

**Residential Services**

Residential services include intermediate care facilities, group homes, and supervised apartments operated by an organization. Paid staff provide support according to the needs of the individuals. Human services professionals use case management roles to help people with ID/DD obtain suitable housing and related supports. Human services professionals use caregiver, teacher/educator, and behavior changer roles to help individuals become independent in activities of daily living such as cooking, cleaning, personal care, laundry, traveling, and shopping.

Human services students with a high school diploma or GED can obtain jobs in an ID/DD residential setting as: residential counselors, overnight counselors, per diem or substitute counselors, and part-time counselors. With a two year degree and paid work experience or a four year college degree, graduates could obtain jobs in a residential setting as assistant house managers or supervisors, supervising staff and residents, handling problems, planning activities, training staff, overseeing client records, maintaining staff attendance, budgeting, and staff payroll. A bachelor's degree in human services, psychology, or social work is usually required for a service coordinator/case manager, who links families with formal resources (e.g., housing, entitlements, recreation) and informal resources (e.g. neighbors, pets, self-help groups.) Service coordinators are
particularly useful with collaboration because there are multiple social service agencies, voluntary and government, involved in the lives of people with ID/DD.

**Vocational Services**

Vocational programs include a variety of prevocational and vocational settings leading to employment such as sheltered workshops, day treatment, day habilitation, supported employment, and job training programs for adults with ID/DD. In these settings, human services professionals use the role of counselor, educator/teacher, or behavior changer to help individuals with ID/DD to explore career or educational goals, learn a skill, prepare for job interviews, obtain employment, and maintain employment. Human services professionals advocate for employers to hire people with ID/DD. Human services professionals can educate potential employers about the strengths of people with ID/DD and provide information about tax credits for hiring people with disabilities.

Job titles for human services professionals with a high school diploma would be day treatment aide in a classroom setting, day habilitation aide to clients working in volunteer experience, or a supported employment counselor or a job coach to clients working in the community. With a college degree, there are jobs available as human service assistants or social work assistants, assisting social workers with entitlements and eligibility. The job developer does suitable client-job matches, works to locate or create jobs, and prepares resumes. The vocational counselor focuses on career exploration, appropriate work behaviors, and interview practice, with individuals and groups. Groups are particularly effective with improving social skills issues of people with ID/DD (Court & Givon, 2003; Stephens, Jain, & Kim, 2010). The positions of service coordinators, job developers, and vocational counselors usually require a bachelor's degree.

**In-home Services**

In-home services include supports like respite, home health aides, and personal care attendants that help people with ID/DD who live alone, with friends, or with family with activities of daily living such as cooking, cleaning, shopping, personal care, laundry, and traveling. Respite is short-term temporary care provided at home or in a residence, so the caregiver can take a break for a few hours, overnight, or a few days. Human services professionals act as caregiver, teacher/educator, or behavior changer to provide training and resources to the individual and/or primary caregiver to become more independent, maintain his/her independence, and prevent residential placement.

In the area of in-home services, there are high school level jobs for human services professionals as: residential habilitation specialist, in-home family specialists, home attendants, community training specialists, and respite workers. With a college degree and experience, one could
work in a supervisory position. With a bachelor's degree, one can work as a service coordinator/case manager, as described earlier.

**Early Intervention Services**

Early intervention services are for eligible children with developmental delays from birth to age two, and their families. Individualized services, usually provided at home, include special instruction, speech therapy, audiology, occupational therapy, physical therapy, psychology, social work, assistive technology, transportation, and nutrition. With a bachelor's degree in human services, psychology, or social work the main job in early intervention services would be working as a service coordinator/case manager to develop an individualized service plan and help families locate therapists. The therapists have either a bachelor's degree or master's degree, a state license, and experience working with children.

**Educational Challenges**

Educational challenges for human services educators need to educate students about career opportunities and career paths in the ID/DD field to meet the current staffing demands. Human services educators have to be honest with students about the low entry-level salaries in the ID/DD field, while informing them how to advance their skills and thus earn higher salaries. Human services educators also need to counteract existing stereotypes about people with ID/DD and replace them with accurate information.

Research indicates that increased contact with people with ID/DD develops positive attitudes (Barr & Bracchitta, 2008; Hunt & Hunt, 2004; Salih & Al-Kandari, 2007), as well as a career interest (Kobe & Hammer, 1993). Daily interaction between human services professionals and people with disabilities fosters caring, accepting, and meaningful relationships. As initial encounters focus on differences, daily positive contact increases comfort, and stereotypes decrease (Bogdan & Taylor, 1987). Thus, the authors have several suggestions for countering stereotypes and conveying the rewards of practice to human services students:

- Present media and case study profiles illustrating people with ID/DD fulfilling nonstereotypical roles to reduce exaggerated notions of limitations.
- Provide internships, as these are an excellent opportunity for direct interaction with individuals with ID/DD, as well as observations of individuals with ID/DD engaging in positive, nonstereotypical activities. Paid internships would be especially helpful to attract students to working with this client population.
- Use classroom activities in which students reveal the stereotypes and beliefs they hold about people with ID/DD and explore the source of these beliefs and stereotypes. The instructor needs to counteract the stereotypes with facts.
- Invite guest speakers to provide firsthand information to counteract
stereotypes and erroneous beliefs, directly answer any questions posed by students, and tell "stories" from working in the field. Students need to hear from people working in the field how good it feels to make a difference in the life of a client and/or family, see a client make small steps of progress, and see the results of their advocacy work. For example, someone could tell the story of a long-term sheltered workshop client being placed into supported employment.

- Provide internships because they help students make a connection between concepts learned in class and how it applies when working with people with ID/DD.
- Give homework assignments to students to research websites for professional organizations in the ID/DD field and learn about salaries. A comprehensive list of professional organizations and job search websites are available by e-mail by contacting the authors.
- Reassure students that there are many entry level jobs that have a low salary, but with experience and education, they can move up into other jobs in the field. For example, with a master's degree in a mental health field, there is the opportunity to do psychotherapy, which is beneficial to people who have an ID/DD (Beail, 2003; Lynch, 2004).

Conclusion
This article filled a gap in the literature by identifying career opportunities in the ID/DD field for human services professionals. Human services educators are in a key position to increase staff recruitment to the ID/DD field. First, human services roles, goals, and values were connected to the needs of people with ID/DD to show the many ways that human services professionals can make a difference in the lives of people with ID/DD. Next, we discussed the contemporary staffing need in ID/DD field in residential, vocational, in-home, and early intervention services. Finally, we identified educational challenges and discussed several ways that human services educators could address student stereotypes about people with ID/DD. Overall, we aimed to interest human services students to working with people who have ID/DD. Future research should focus on the non-monetary "rewards" of working with people with ID/DD as well as methods of breaking down existing barriers to pursuing careers in the field.

References


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Predicting Organizational Development in Israel’s Nonprofit Human Services: The Effects of Organizational Context, Structure and Geographic Location

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Abstract
This study examines the determinants of organizational development in Israel’s nonprofit human services. Using a sample of 135 organizations in Israel, the study examines the link between variations in organizational development in human services and three basic elements of organizational development: context, structure and location. It is suggested that despite the importance placed on social goals, there is similarity between nonprofit human services and for-profit settings regarding the way that organizational features enhance or hinder the degree of organizational development. More specifically, (a) organizational age and size, (b) ratio of volunteer/salaried employees and (c) geographic location are examined to show how they relate to higher odds of organizational development. The findings indicate that (a) a metropolitan location and (b) a flexible organizational structure – a higher number of volunteers – increase the odds for organizational development whereas (c) organizational size hinders development. This suggests that organizational development in nonprofit human services development is better attained when organizations (a) are small (b) develop flexible structures based on volunteers and (c) ensure proximity to source of resources.

Introduction
Organizational development (hereafter OD) is a set of tools, behaviors, attitudes, and an action plan with which to monitor its own state of health and to take corrective steps toward its own renewal and development. As such, OD reflects the way an organization prepares itself following environmental threats. OD, as a response to environmental threats (Mordaunt & Otto, 2004; Walshe, Harvey, Hyde & Pandit, 2004) in nonprofit human services (hereafter NPHS), includes the way an organization “structures” itself so it can better adapt to new technologies, marketing and economic challenges. In that sense, OD is a change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result (Davis & Marquis, 2005). Yet, contrary to studies in the for-profit sector, the context of OD in nonprofit human services is not clear (Golden, Longhofer, & Winchester, 2009; Herman & Renz, 2008; Shoichet, 1998). The case of NPHS is related to openness and initiating change, and to flexibility in response to the changing needs of its environment while considering the effects of multiple stakeholders, including government funding, private contributions and social legitimacy (Pajunen, 2006). The case of NPHS in Israel is of special interest because the increase in privatization processes in the last decade has brought a larger number of human services being
provided by the nonprofit sector (Gidron & Katz, 2001; Gidron & Katz, 2005; Schmid et al., 2008). Despite the expected advantages in effectiveness and economic outcomes, organizational structure in NPHS does not necessarily “fit” the demands that increased competition and cuts in funding have imposed on nonprofit settings that provide human services (Balser & McKlusky, 2005; Ramanath, 2009; Seth, Maher, & Forster, 2006). A high degree of “fit” between environmental pressures and internal processes (Jaesub, Woeste, & Heath, 2007) increases the odds of best-result oriented practices (Herman & Renz, 2008) and higher leverage for organizational competitiveness (Birkinshaw, Hamel, & Mol, 2008) even when acting towards the achievement of social goals (McCabe, 2002). The study examines what essential features affect the level of OD in Israel’s NPHS. To do so, the study integrates knowledge from organizational development and contingency theories to explain how successful OD is related to the variations in the context, processes and structure in NPHS (Luscher & Lewis, 2008; Mano, 2010).

Being aware that OD in NPHS becomes crucial to their survival in an era of reduced funding, the present study undertakes a diagnostic approach to decipher the organizational level factors associated with a higher potential for OD. In doing so, the study acknowledges that infrastructural problems and structural constraints often help to overcome situations related to increased environmental threats. Specific problems can be handled and solved effectively and efficiently during OD when the impact of such factors is recognized. This integrated approach has proved to be an important strategy, mainly in the area of welfare services such as employment seeking, training enhancement and health care. Managers and consultants have introduced changes such as the downsizing of salaried employees and their replacement by volunteers, and the transferring of main functions such as marketing to the metropolitan level, thus helping to increase amounts of funding and receiving more donations.

**Theoretical Background**

“Organization development is a system-wide application of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organization’s effectiveness” (Cummings & Worley, 1997, p. 2). According to this definition, **organizational development** theories examine how organizations can best develop systems that enable quick responses to environmental whims. Success in NPHS is related to access to scarce resources and adopting “rational” adjustments reminiscent of for-profit strategies (Spillan & Crandall, 2002). Part of this rational process is the organizational capability to develop itself on the basis of appropriate organizational features and management capabilities. This involves studying to what extent organizational features increase the potential for OD in the face of increasing environmental turbulence in funding. Studies in the for-profit and public sector have consistently pointed out that there are some basic features that enhance OD in organizations. Assessing OD
in NPHS pinpoints the need to consider the best way to overcome threats and constraints imposed by institutions – government, local authorities, and large philanthropic organizations – and stakeholders. These threats necessitate the assessment of organizational assets – structures and processes – (Mano, 2009; 2010) and the way they affect development. Not surprisingly, contingency theories, adhering to the importance of “fits,” stress that unless NPHS “fit” their structures to match environmental conditions, environmental changes and threats will outgrow the potential for development (Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, & Turner, 1969; Sine, Mitsuhashi, & Kirsch, 2006). Both organizational development and contingency theories, traditionally related to development and survival, provide ample evidence of how organizations must address various aspects of their activities to provide the right conditions for OD to take place (Pugh et al., 1969). These aspects, which are considered to be critical to performance in all organizational settings (Sine et al., 2006) without being examined empirically in NPHS, can be divided into three areas of concern.

First, it is important to consider variations in organizational context. As NPHS become concerned with survival, their “not for-profit” ideology is changing into “business” thinking (Mano, 2010; Sine et al., 2006). The recruitment of volunteers is part of their way of making services less expensive and more effective. By adopting “business”-like methods, openness and development are possible because operations are first examined by their economic merits. This, however, may stifle creativity and innovation among volunteers and give rise to dysfunctional systems eventually impeding OD. According to Schmid, Bar, and Nirel (2008), for example, examining NPHS in Israel, adherence to government regulations stifles the potential for increasing activities, thus decreasing the opportunities to provide mode-adequate answers in the provision of services.

Early studies showed a high correlation between effectiveness and size in NPHS explaining that size indicates the degree of legitimacy that an organization obtains from its environment. Larger NPHS are likely to operate with large-scale budgets that enable better marketing, attract more donations and enhance the odds for OD (Golensky & Mulder, 2006) because they have successfully addressed social expectations (Balser & McClusky, 2005; Herman & Renz, 2008). Similarly, age is a key factor in organizational potential. Older organizations have records of successful activities, but they are also renewal-reluctant and less able to adopt new methods of survival. Aging organizations are likely to have more tasks requiring coordination, necessitating sharper task differentiation, a greater need for specialized functions, and a more ramified administration (Bauer & Richardson, 2009). Finally, larger older firms tend to be resistant to change and become “tighter” and less adaptable to variation and flexibility (Jaesub, Woeste, & Heath, 2007). These effects are pronounced in larger NPHS as well because the tendency here is to develop more complex systems of operations. In that case, NPHS often become dysfunctional...
because information processing becomes inadequate and the potential for organizational development low (Mano, 2010; Schmid et al., 2008). Both age and size contribute to the overall structure of the organizational settings (Sine et al., 2006).

Second, organizational structure is the “shape” of the organizations that reflects the division of organizational tasks into functional and authority positions. The structure of the organization is central to understanding the decision making process, which is crucial to successfully cope with OD. More specifically, the structure of an organization is defined by the interface between organizational activities and task environment: When different conditions emerge, different structures develop (Sine et al., 2006). Structure may affect current organizational circumstances and alter the evolution of future events. Structural characteristics reflect a definition of work-role specifications, flexible and shared decision making, free lateral and horizontal flow of information and an abundance of resources (Pugh et al., 1969). They indicate that firms are better capable of avoiding failures and are more attuned to exogenous tribulations. This has much to do with the way the structural features are “weak” or “strong” or, even better, “loosely coupled” so that they can be reactive soon enough to prevent failure (Sine et al., 2006). In contrast to the strong structures, which have well defined dimensions of hierarchical and functional positions, loosely coupled systems provide a basically strong structure but also develop ways of having a certain degree of freedom in mobilizing and allocating people according to ad hoc circumstances. Indeed, a “peculiar” structural feature in NPHS is the actual involvement of volunteers in the organizational process (Wisner et al., 2005). The involvement of a larger voluntary workforce enables easier handling of operations in times of decreased activity or reduced support and funding even though NPHS often appear to be less professional and less reliable organizations (Barnett & Pratt, 2000; Mano, 2010). Effective modern NPHS can afford to use strong (and inflexible) organizational structures composed of a high number of salaried employees relative to the number of volunteers and recruit professionals to ensure consistency in the provision and quality of services and a firm leadership and management. Yet, NPHS recruit members on a part-time basis, especially in smaller organizations; this, in turn, gives rise to an increase in volunteers (Moxham & Boaden, 2007; O’Regan & Oster, 2005). As a result, employment conditions in NPHS are either contractual, temporary, or voluntary, leading to a high level of flexibility in hiring and firing according to ad hoc constraints, thus reducing costs associated with insurance, travel and pension funds (Camarero & Garrido, 2009).

The third factor, associated with both age and size, is location. Successful NPHS are more likely to be centrally located in cities, thereby enhancing social legitimacy from potential stakeholders (Pajunen, 2006). Their impact on social and political frameworks capable of affecting public opinion and policy is also further intensified (Alexander, 2003; Medley & Akan, 2008). Because remote areas are less likely to attract
institutional attention, geographic location is a resource that can be developed into an organizational capability either through direct access to sources of resources and/or indirectly through its reputation and political power. Organizations in central locations can therefore achieve an extended normative impact on policy and decision makers (Gidron & Katz, 2005). For example, some studies show that due to the centralized allocation of resources, local government organizations, which are the main providers of funding to nonprofit services, enable a close networking between the welfare states and an intergovernmental infrastructure. This infrastructure empowers advocacy groups and organizations and enhances electoral power and, therefore, more organizational resources (Birkinshaw, Hamel, & Mol, 2008; Camarero & Garrido, 2009).

**Method**

**Data Source**

The present study is based on a field study among 164 NPHS listed in Shatil’s (2001) list of social organizations that were still operating in 2007. Managers from 135 organizations (67% of the listed organizations) returned the questionnaires they were requested to complete. They averaged 6 years of organizational experience, and 50% of them had had professional managerial training. Sixty-six percent had more than 15 years of education, and their mean age was 29 years.

**Questionnaire**

A closed-ended based questionnaire was employed, including an extended list of items addressing various issues of organizational performance and processes considered to be key issues in nonprofit management such as organizational age, size, levels of accountability on resources and expenditures, composition of employees and volunteers, organizational context and learning processes. A pretest among 25 organizations was given. The questionnaires were administered in two stages. First, managers in these organizations were contacted by interviewers, and requested to provide a date to be interviewed. At the agreed upon time, an interview based on the questionnaire took place. Some managers preferred a face-to-face meeting (25%) and some responded by fax (15%). No significant differences in responses were detected.

**Measures**

Organizational development (OD) is the dependent variable. The occurrence of environmental threats has: (a) increased government surveillance of organizational activities, (b) increased communication and attention to organizational activities, (c) harmed organization profits, (d) changed organizational decision making processes, (e) changed the composition of the board of directors, (f) changed the employee/organization structure, (g) decreased manpower, (h) increased managerial involvement in organizational activities, (i) increased employee
involvement in organizational activities, and (j) decreased activity in certain areas (Alpha Cronbach = .778). Independent variables include (1) Context effects: (a) Type of organization, (b) age: years of operation, and (c) size: number of employees (Sine et al. 2006); (2) Structure effects: employee/volunteer ratio: lower ratio = higher flexibility (Pugh et al., 1969; Shoichet, 1998) and; (3) Geographic location. All evaluations are based on Likert-type scales (1 = low to 10 = high).

Procedure
First, the means and correlations (Pearson’s r) between examined variables are presented to describe them and their interrelations (see Table 1). Then a model is developed, using a multivariate regression analysis to identify the direct effect of the examined independent variable on the dependent variable OD.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and Pearson Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational age</td>
<td>16.96</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size (Number of Branches)</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>-.130</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic location (1=metropolitan)</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.231**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure (volunteer/employee)</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.180**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>38.24</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Results
The table findings show that OD is highly related to all predicting variables. It is obvious that metropolitan location (r = .231) and a flexible structure (r = .180) are related to higher OD. It is also possible that lower levels of organizational development are associated with larger size (r = -.130). These effects will be clearer with the results from the ordinary least squares regression, which predicts the degree of the direct effects of the independent, context, structure and geographic location on OD (see Table 2).

The results show that all variables assumed to have an impact on development are significant except for organizational age. Organizational location has a positive impact on development suggesting how periphery vs. metropolitan models are valid in predicting both the access and potential of NPHS to successfully cope with environmental threats (B = .146; p = .004). By contrast, a negative effect of organizational size on organizational development is revealed: It is less probable that larger NPHS will be able to adapt (B = −3.829; p = .002). This is further accented by the positive and
significant effect of the structure (volunteer/employee ratio) effect on development ($B = .235; p = .007$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size (Number of Branches)</td>
<td>-3.829</td>
<td>1.185</td>
<td>-.347</td>
<td>-3.230</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic location (1=metropolitan)</td>
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<td>.024</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure (volunteer/employee)</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>2.792</td>
<td>.007</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>62.597</td>
<td>6.182</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.126</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Summary and Discussion

Literature supporting the notion that NPHS need to adapt to external threats is not new. Many possible sources of these threats have been explored. Some studies showed how environmental constraints restrict nonprofit organizations (cf. Golensky & Mulder, 2006) while concurrently taking notice of the way stakeholders influence organizational processes (Golden, Longhofer, & Winchester, 2009). It is difficult to dismiss any source of threat as irrelevant. This is why the present study examined the notion that one possible source of these threats is a lack of appropriate organizational features – context, structure and location.

The rationale behind the study reflects a wide phenomenon where NPHS are often confronted with criticism for not being able to adapt quickly enough to changing circumstances in funding and donations. Some claim that this is due to the fact that NPHS do not necessarily adopt the structures necessary to overcome threats (Mano, 2010). Other studies contend that even though NPHS have social goals rather than financial objectives, their organic nature helps to sort out the structural and configurational restrictions because such “restrictive conditions” are more probable in older and larger organizations (Schmid, 2002). This is related to the specific composition of the labor force in NPHS because the number of volunteers has a great advantage in enabling flexible structures. The study aimed to show that we need, as recent theoretical approaches suggest (Davis & Marquis, 2005), to be able to identify the appropriate diagnostic criteria necessary for non-profit human services to attain organizational development.

The results show that age and size are important to organizational development but not in the same direction. While age increases the potential for development, organizational size undermines it: the results assessed the importance of context variables. Organizational age, but not organizational size, shapes organizational development. As age is related to organizational legitimacy, the contradicting results point out that an
organizational legitimacy increases organizational development, but increased organizational size in human services is detrimental to effective operations. The findings are in line with theories of organization, which provide answers to how, over time, large settings may develop rigid hierarchies and inflexible structures that make decision making long and ineffective (Herman & Renz, 2008). The findings also suggest that indeed, the higher the flexibility of the structure, the more probable it is that development is sustained. As NPHS are capable of recruiting volunteers to provide steady support to ongoing social programs, this means that more volunteers in the structure will be a solid support basis to ensure that such programs are not disturbed when organizational adjustments are introduced. Indeed, the results assess how important it is for NPHS to keep a flexible structure that involves many volunteers. Finally, the study also assesses the effect of geographic location and reflects the importance of organizational legitimacy because more established human services will most likely operate from metropolitan locations where the access to resources is higher (Davis & Marquis, 2005).

Summarizing these results, it is possible to state that adopting flexible structures among NPHS enhances organizational potential for development, as it does for organizations in the for-profit sector, generating sustainable systems that are able to resist environmental turbulence resulting from changes in funding and donations. These results are in accordance with previous studies linking threats with the potential for future development (Casciaro & Piskorski, 2005; Shoichet, 1998; Sine, et al., 2006).

**Limitations and Recommendations for Future Studies**

The present study focuses on how organizational context and structure are linked to organizational development in NPHS. The study includes only a small sample of organizations. Future studies should include a questionnaire as well as qualitative data analysis to ensure an in-depth analysis of the organizational processes that promote organizational development. These processes may include team decision making practices as well as communication modes and learning mechanisms. As nonprofit human services may differ in several aspects – affiliation, area of services, and type of funding – it is important to consider how various organizational processes generate differences in the scope and degree of organizational development in the short and long run. As a result, future studies should also involve longitudinal analysis to control for organizational development practices, which, over time, reflect the changes in funding and characteristics of the population served.

**References**


Seth, F.S., Maher, J., & Forster, J. (2006). Indicators of information and communication technology adoption in the nonprofit sector:
Abstract

This article examines themes that emerged as a group of 18 students enrolled in a pre-professional human services B.A. program participated in community development projects with residents of urban, rural, and transitional agricultural communities. In all three settings students reported learning about community issues in addition to acquiring personal and professional knowledge. Additionally, students reported learning about the process of community development, the value of experiential learning, and the opportunity to acquire and practice specific skills necessary for success working with clients in human service settings.

Introduction

Linking theory to practice through contextualized learning experiences is the essence of community-based learning (Burant & Kirby, 2002; Cooper, 2007; Sleeter, 2001; Zlotkowski & Duffy, 2010). According to Gamble and Bates (2011) community-based learning provides students with opportunities to learn about local organizations and how to work collaboratively to solve local problems. Yet engaging human services students in community-based learning experiences in addition to their professional internship experiences is rarely discussed in human services literature. In this article we present a community-based learning experience where human services students engage with three different community-based education projects. We explore learning themes that emerge as students participate in community-based projects with neighborhood members in urban, rural, and transitional agricultural community settings.

Community-based learning (CBL) is one of the many types of experiential learning methods used in higher education to provide students with hands-on learning experiences and a maturing understanding of concepts associated with diversity and social justice. CBL affords faculty a unique arena to explore specific academic content, while also having the potential to meet the needs of communities and nonprofit organizations (Dallimore, Rochfort, & Simonelli, 2010). Community-based learning is a form of service learning that is based on community organizing principles and involves learning and/or research projects designed collaboratively between community members and students. The emphasis, however, is not on service. Rather, projects emerge from community needs and community member’s knowledge (Farnsworth, 2010). The goal is to stimulate critical inquiry between students, community members,
faculty, and agencies that lead to reflection, analysis, and social change. At its best, CBL creates community partnerships founded on the concepts and practices of social justice. Methods of engagement are consistent with the values of the human services profession that promote working alongside clients and community members.

Zlotkowski and Duffy (2010) examined two decades of literature focusing on how CBL impacts students. They propose that when learning takes place in a variety of conditions it may be challenging for the students but the end result is better learning. Similarly, Owens and Wang (1996) suggest that community-based learning “engages both head and hand and requires both knowing and doing…[and]…decontextualized learning fails to enable students to examine the idea they bring to the learning situation, to learn from their errors, or to look for patterns” (p. 6). Including community-based learning experiences in human services classes provides numerous opportunities for students to think and act with a dexterity that cannot be simulated in the classroom setting (Zlotkowski & Duffy, 2010).

For human services pre-professionals understanding clients’ lives outside of agency work can provide valuable insights. Beyond the internship experience, relatively few pre-professional programs describe intentional opportunities they provide for future human services professionals to situate learning within communities and to learn about the role that human services professionals play in the work of communities. Knowledge about clients’ lives and their neighborhoods outside of the formal client/professional relationship receives little mention in the professional literature. Yet, it is argued that students become more effective professionals if they graduate with an understanding of the social, economic, and cultural strengths and challenges experienced by their clients (Ishisaka, Sohng, Farwell, & Uehara, 2004).

While human services students often work directly with clients during extensive internship placements, they may benefit from engaging directly with the communities where their clients live. They may also benefit from understanding and engaging in community development efforts. The Council for Standards in Human Service Education (CSHSE) supports this claim by stating that human service students should have an understanding of how “to effect social change through advocacy work at all levels of society including community development, community and grassroots organizing, and local and global activism” (CSHSE, 2005, Advanced Specifications for Standard 12, para 2). The primary purpose of this research was to explore the learning outcomes associated with community-based learning projects. We examined the types of learning that emerged as a group of 18 students enrolled in a pre-professional human services BA degree program worked with three different community groups over the course of an academic quarter.

The approach to the collection of data and the analysis of that data draws from grounded theory design and qualitative research methods. Grounded theory design which allows researchers to generate theories based on themes that emerge from the data was developed by Glaser and
Strauss in the mid-1960s (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory design allowed us to examine the complexity of the students’ thoughts and feelings as they engaged in the community-based learning projects (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The qualitative methodology called constant comparative analysis which is often utilized in textual data analysis and is frequently paired with the grounded theory design was used to analyze the data (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008). The three main stages of this type of analysis as outlined by Leech and Onwuegbuzie which include ‘open coding,’ ‘axial coding,’ and ‘selective coding’ were used by the authors. While qualitative methodologies do not allow researchers to generalize their findings, this type of methodology tends to be more useful when attempting to understand complex human behaviors (Gal & Ograjenske, 2010).

Method

Participants
Participants included 18 students enrolled in a community systems course in the human services major, university faculty, the executive director of a local nonprofit organization (Whatcom Family and Community Network), and community members/leaders from three local communities.

Project Partners
The Human Service Program (HSP) is located in the College of Education at Western Washington University, a northwest regional comprehensive institution. The Human Services major is an upper-division undergraduate program that is grounded in systems theories and integrates experiential learning opportunities throughout a two-year plan of study. Graduates work in a wide variety of nonprofit, educational, and government organizations. Human Services students who participated in this study were enrolled in a community systems course in which students examine community systems with an emphasis on analyzing theories of community change and examining the roles of human service professionals in communities.

The Whatcom Family and Community Network (WFCN) is a local nonprofit organization that partnered with us for this project. WFCN “focuses on community organizing at both the neighborhood and county-wide level…. [They] bring together residents and key leaders to solve problems and build on existing community strengths using the principles of asset-based community development” (Whatcom Family & Community Network, Home, Our Focus, para 1).

The Research Team
The faculty members involved in this project included an associate and assistant professor in the Human Services program and an associate and full professor in the Secondary Education program. Experience with and knowledge of community systems, service-learning, community-based
learning and contextual learning are all represented in this group of faculty. In addition to their academic training and teaching experience, all four members of the research team have many years of professional experience in their respective fields.

The partnership between university faculty and staff from the WFCN began during the summer months that preceded student involvement. During a series of meetings the university faculty outlined the goals and objectives to be met by each group of students and the WFCN executive director, who worked closely with each of the community’s leaders, outlined the goals and objectives of the three different communities where the students would be working. Based on the goals and objectives of all involved, three separate projects were developed.

As part of a class assignment students participated in community development work in one of three community-based projects:

“Ryson” Neighborhood Association- Business Engagement Plan. Students worked in conjunction with residents from Ryson, a densely populated, primarily low-income neighborhood just a few miles from the University. In collaboration with community members, leaders, and staff from WFCN, students developed and implemented a plan to build stronger relationship between the Ryson Neighborhood Association and businesses that operate within the boundaries of the neighborhood.

“Freeville” Community Center Survey. Freeville, located approximately 10 miles from the university, is a small community that is in the process of transitioning from an agricultural base to a suburban bedroom community. Students collaborated with residents from Freeville in the design, administration, and analysis of the results of a survey that ascertained community member's interest in developing a local community center.

“Kandale” Community Center Discussions. A third group of students collaborated with residents of Kandale, a rural and isolated geographical area in the foothills of the Cascade mountain range and home to a large percentage of recent immigrants from Eastern Europe. The goal of this project was to assess the community's process as they engaged in discussions that focused on building a community center.

Procedure

Students were informed by the course instructor that they would be learning about theories of community development in the classroom while simultaneously experiencing these theories in action by working on a project with one of the three community groups described above. During the second week of the quarter students met with community members/leaders to learn detailed information about the projects. The following week students prepared a presentation that provided an overview of community development concepts that they presented to community members/leaders. At the end of the presentation each student chose one of the three projects to work on for the remainder of the quarter.
Throughout the quarter students were required to keep a “learning log” that documented their activities, amount of time spent engaging in these activities, and the learning that occurred while participating in the projects. At the end of the quarter they completed an instructor-designed post-project survey developed to gather information on student experiences and learning that occurred. The survey was comprised of sixteen questions, with the first question gathering demographic information (Which community did you work with?). Next, the respondents were asked to list the activities they engaged in during the project and then to indicate the amount of time they spent engaging in a specific list of activities (e.g. meeting with community members, developing data collection instruments, conducting library research). The next set of questions, which required short narrative responses, asked respondents to reflect on what they learned about the community they worked with, what they learned about themselves, how this work contributed to their development as a human service professional, and how their work contributed to the community they worked with. A series of questions using a Likert-type scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) was included in the survey to gain an understanding of the respondent’s perception of the importance of human service professionals’ involvement in the communities in which they live and work. The final optional question was of the “additional comments” type.

In addition, the Executive Director of the WFCN developed and administered a survey in an effort to gather information on how to improve the project and how to relate the experience to professional work. Respondents were asked to provide short answers to the following questions: “How does this project apply to your present or future professional work?” “Which elements of this process do you think worked the best and why?” and “Which elements of this process could be revised for a better result?”

Finally, at the beginning of the following quarter, students were asked to write a reflection essay that was guided by these two prompts: “Please describe briefly the aspects of the community-inquiry project that most interested you” and “What aspects of community development concern you at this point in your career as a human service professional?”

**Data Coding and Analysis**

Data were triangulated by examining results from instructor-generated surveys and student reflection essays. This enabled the research team to cross-check the accuracy of the data and to correct biases that might emerge from a single data collection method (Denzin, 1989; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Janesick, 1994). To add validity to the data analysis process all analytical conclusions drawn from the qualitative data were cross-checked between coders to counteract analytic blindness (Ahem, 1999).

To analyze the qualitative (written reflection) component of the study, sample passages were initially coded individually by each member...
of the research team. Next, all four members of the research team gathered to engage in extensive discussion and recording of emerging patterns. Once the coding schema was established, passages were coded twice, once individually and once collectively, by consensus. Final coding was determined through consensus. The data were then arrayed according to coding categories.

Results
A total of 335 data points were coded. Results are summarized in Table 1. Analysis of data indicated that participation in community development projects helped to facilitate learning in five main categories: 1) learning about community development; 2) learning about the community; 3) professional skills learning; 4) personal learning and 5) learning about the value of experiential learning.

Table 1: Student Self-Reported Learning (Data points, N = 335)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coded Themes</th>
<th>Sources of Evidence</th>
<th>Post Project Course Survey</th>
<th>Post Course Follow-up Essay</th>
<th>Post Project Agency Survey</th>
<th>Student Learning Log</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Process</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2. Learning about Communities</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>93</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>Interpersonal Skills</td>
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Learning about Community Development

The largest category of learning was coded as “learning about community development” (n = 100). This category focused on students’ increased understanding of the actual processes associated with community development, their growing awareness of the importance of collaboration as it relates to community development, and increased awareness of their personal and professional contributions and limitations when engaged in the community development process.

In post project surveys and written reflections students consistently pointed to the slow and laborious process associated with community development, with one student noting that “there are peak periods of productivity and change and many periods of inactivity.” One student stated:

One of my most major pieces of learning concerns the concept that community development is a continuing and slow process. I learned this through the experience of sitting through several meetings where (the group) kept talking about the same issues without quite getting any action or movement on these issues. The slow pace of the community development process was attributed to the fact that community development is a collaborative process. “I know that community development is what the community makes it, and that progress is just as unique as the community. It’s a long and involved process that requires a level of devotion that is consistent over time.” While many academic courses point to the end products associated with community development initiatives, a number of students emphasized that this activity helped them understand that “there was a greater sense of understanding of the process, not just the destination.”

The theme of community development as a collaborative process was paramount in post project survey responses and written reflections. A number of students recognized that positive changes come from productive collaborations. One student emphasized, “I cannot change anything by myself. Healthy change is a team effort.” Prior to this learning experience most students indicated they had little knowledge about the important role that collaborations between neighborhoods, human service professionals, schools, businesses, and committed citizens can play in the community development process:

I learned through this process that community development only works when there is a committed group of people within the community wanting change. I saw this in the Ryerson neighborhood, and I realize that the association will do great things because of these committed people, although it will take a long time for them to reach their goals… I know that community development is what the community makes it, and that the progress is just as unique as the community.

Finally, students considered their personal contributions to the community development process. Many students were frustrated that their time within each community was so brief. “I feel that the work I did was
small in comparison to the larger picture, but that it was indeed a contribution.” Another student had a similar perspective, stating “I feel like I needed more time, and I needed the community leaders to have faith in the group and spend more time with us. I walked away from the experience a little disappointed and frustrated.” While some students pointed to tangible personal contributions to the community development process that included creating surveys, facilitating meetings, and analyzing data to be presented to community members, other students pointed to less tangible personal contributions:

I feel I made a difference in the “Kandale” community by touching the hearts of a few community members. The people I spoke with did not work with any agency or organization. They were simply community members living and surviving in this community. By talking with them and listening to their feelings, opinions, and suggestions without judgment made them feel as though someone cared. They felt more empowered to go to a community meeting and had more faith that change can happen.

Learning about Community

Another significant theme that emerged during the course of the project was students reports of learning about community (n=93). As noted in Table 1, the largest sub-category under “learning about community” entailed learning about community “assets and needs.” One student stated “I used to observe certain areas and label them for what they looked like or their reputation. I am now able to take what I see and identify both the needs and the assets of a community.” Another student commented, “The project opened my eyes of what community needs may look like as well as assessing community assets. I have never noticed a community in these ways.”

The second largest sub-category of learning was about “community issues.” An awareness of the community context in which future clients may be living was the primary focus of students’ comments. One student noted, “I also learned about the huge Ukrainian population and language barriers between the people of [Kandale]” and “the level of isolation and overcrowding of schools.” Even though students spend significant time interning in organizations that provide services to people from [Kandale], it seems that being in their neighborhood provided a clearer context from which to understand community members’ strengths and needs.

Personal and Professional Skills Learning

The broad categories of “personal learning” (n=34) and “professional skills learning” (n=75) also emerged as significant themes in this research and included an understanding of students’ personal and professional roles in communities and the specific professional skills they acquired and/or practiced over the course of the quarter. For example, some students discussed learning about their role in communities. These
comments tended to focus on their personal role in the communities in which they will live. One student noted, “I learned how much I enjoy being a part of a community and how I can be an asset by supporting my own community,” while another stated, “I learned just how important it is to work with your own community. How much it is needed.” Taking this theme one step further a student stated, “I believe we are all now more invested community members as well.” There were, however, some students who commented on their professional role in communities. For example, one student stated “As a human services professional, I have a deeper sense of how to work in a community.”

All of the comments related to “professional skill learning” were obtained from students’ learning logs. It is interesting to note that students did not comment on these skills in the survey, essay reflection, or during the agency reflection. In their learning logs, however, a number of students mentioned that participating in this community-based learning project helped them acquire and practice professional skills such as “increasing my observation skills,” and research skills (n = 22) including learning “how to plan a survey,” and “survey design [and] revision.” Students also described other professional skills that were enhanced through involvement in the project such as improving their “communication skills (via distance when people aren’t on the same page),” “presentation skills,” and learning about “spreadsheet needs [and] defining objectives.”

Learning About the Value of Experiential Learning

Human Services students pointed to the value of learning experientially within the context of community (n=33). As one student emphasized, “I felt that going into the communities and analyzing their conditions and assets provided a great deal of knowledge in comparison to that of learning from a text.” A second student echoed these thoughts, “I don’t think anything about being a human services professional can be learned without experiencing the role in the community and with the community- neither learning nor action takes place in isolation.” A third student added, “Although this process was frustrating at points, I believe it was experiential learning at its best. I have a good perspective of what community development is like that there is no way could have been gleaned from simply reading a book.”

In addition to students’ perceptions that they were able to make meaning of course concepts when learning was situated within a community-based setting, students reported that they were generalizing this learning beyond the text and beyond these classroom activities. Students reported generalizing learning to their own and other communities. One student mentioned that she considered community development issues while on a trip to Los Angeles, while another student reflected on a recent jog through her own neighborhood and reported applying concepts from this project to her own community. Overall, students indicated that learning gained through this project will be
generalized to support future work as human services professionals. “I felt fortunate to experience organizing and development from a different perspective which will support my work in the future.”

Discussion

Human services educators emphasize the importance of internship experiences in the acquisition of foundational professional skills. In fact, The Council for Standards in Human Services Education (CSHSE) requires 250 hours of field work at the AA level and a total of 350 hours of supervised internship at the BA level (CSHSE, 2005). Yet, there is little discussion in the professional literature about the value of community-based learning outside the context of a formal internship. Human service students often work with clients during extensive internship placements. Given that CSHSE requires that programs integrate field experience with the curriculum (CSHSE Standard 20), it is important to consider additional ways that classroom-based learning can be enhanced through a diverse array of pedagogies. Through community-based projects, such as the one described here, we have been able to situate student learning within real world contexts and provide targeted learning experiences in the area of community development.

Results presented here reinforce ideas previously explored in the literature on community-based learning and provide interesting new findings worthy of further exploration. Students’ remarks about the value of the experiential process underscore Owens and Wang’s (1996) conclusions about the efficacy of community-based learning. Students noted the importance of situating learning in a real world context, in many cases specifically contrasting it with learning through traditional modes of classroom instruction and course texts.

In addition, results suggest that community-based experiences do support students as they develop knowledge and skills outlined in human services professional standards. Human services students engaged in advocacy work that enabled them to better understand the dynamics of community development, which directly addresses CSHSE standards. Further, community-based experiences resulted in students exploring personal and professional roles within community settings. It appears that students may have developed a more holistic way of looking at both communities and their various roles within these communities as a result of this learning experience.

The project described here also speaks to the value of community-based learning experiences. By engaging human services students, agency representatives, and community stakeholders in an authentic learning experience that models methods of inclusivity and opportunities for all participants to learn from one another, the project provided human services students with the opportunity to work with a diverse group of community partners while engaging in learning unique to the human services profession and our undergraduate program of study. Findings presented here indicate that students developed a wide range of
professional skills, including the ability to work collaboratively with others.

One limitation of this study is that the project was only conducted across a one quarter time frame. Thus, students did not have the opportunity to follow the progress of the projects after the end of the quarter, and community partners could not benefit from ongoing contributions from this particular group of students. Additionally, we did not have the opportunity to examine the long-term benefits of this type of community-based learning experience. As professionals, will the participants in this project be better prepared to engage with community members and professionals? This research raises a number of questions for future consideration. An avenue for future research involves examining community-based learning with multiple cohorts over a more extended period of time, such as a year-long process. It would also be valuable to consider ways that human services students collaborate with other pre-professionals, such as teachers, in community-based interprofessional educational experiences (Barr, 2005; Clark, 2004; 2006; Hammick Freeth, Koppel, Reeves, & Barr, 2007). We are currently pursuing this line of inquiry with our colleagues in teacher education.

In sum, the findings presented here have implications for ways that relationships can be built between communities, community-based agencies and pre-professional education programs. Community-based educational experiences provide opportunities for students to connect across a variety of professions that have traditionally focused on the well-being of children, families, and communities. Students commented on their increased awareness of who works within communities and how people from a variety of vantage points can collaborate to support clients. Building relationships within community-based settings during the period when professional identity is formed and/or transformed has the potential of producing effective human services professionals. The findings also speak to the important role that higher education can play in creating meaningful learning experiences with community-based partners that are relevant to professional practice and impact the well-being of children, families, and communities.

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laws. *Journal of Interprofessional Care, 18*(3), 251-261. doi:10.1080/13561820410001731296


Abstract
Researchers surveyed graduate students in counselor education, psychology, social work, and criminal justice, and undergraduate students in human services regarding their views of gay and lesbian individuals using the Modern Homonegativity Scale ($N = 157$). Research questions were designed to determine whether completion of coursework in diversity education influences students’ perceptions of gays and lesbians. Also, the research sought to determine whether students’ demographic characteristics would affect the findings of the study. The findings showed that although for the most part students possess favorable attitudes towards gays and lesbians, higher levels of homonegativity are differentiated by gender, religion, and the type of degree a person is seeking. The authors discuss classroom teaching strategies based in Moral Exclusion Theory (MET), a psychosocial orientation framed by the principles of justice and fairness. Guided by MET, the implications of the study provide cultural diversity training suggestions that prompt students to examine their thoughts and actions.

Introduction
The current emphasis on cultural diversity in helping profession programs suggests that academic disciplines such as counselor education, social work, psychology, human services, and criminal justice are training their students to be effective not only with a wide range of ethnically and racially diverse groups, but also with cultural groups, such as those with diverse sexual orientations (Haslam & Levy, 2006; Jenkins, Lambert, & Baker, 2009; Sue, 2003). Each of these disciplines has published professional standards, codes of ethics, professional values statements, and/or curriculum requirements related to training students in issues of diversity and cultural competence. Several helping profession education programs offer course material designed to mitigate their students’ prejudices against racial groups and individuals with diverse sexual orientations.

Research has demonstrated that some helping professionals hold unfavorable views toward gay and lesbian (hereafter referred to as GL) individuals. For example, studies of the attitudes of professional social workers or social work students suggest the presence of belief systems associated with negative views toward lesbians and gays (Dongvillo & Ligon, 2001; Hyun & Johnson, 2001; Swank & Raiz, 2007). Additionally, research among criminal justice professionals, such as police officers, suggests a tendency of these professionals to minimize the seriousness of the incidents reported by lesbian and gay victims (Olivero & Murataya,
Israel and Hackett (2004) found that counselors in training often report negative attitudes toward gay and lesbian clients. Furthermore, gay and lesbian clients often report dissatisfaction with their treatment as a result of ignorance or prejudice when working with counselors (Perez, Debora, & Bieschke, 2000). Psychologists with negative views of gays and lesbians are less likely to accept gay and lesbian clients in their caseload (Crawford, McCleod, Zamboni, & Jordan, 1999). Graduate students in psychology who endorse heterosexist gender roles tend to hold negative attitudes towards gays and lesbians (Barrett & McWhirter, 2002; Korfhage, 2006). Taken together, these findings suggest that some individuals in the professional disciplines may be wielding some prejudiced views concerning perceptions of human sexuality.

GL individuals are more visible than ever before, and it is thus likely that helping professionals in all disciplines will find themselves providing services to them in greater numbers. The attitudes and views that helping professionals hold toward gay and lesbian individuals will either positively or negatively affect their personal and professional effectiveness with this cultural group. GL individuals often look for affirming qualities in individuals with whom they work (Croteau, Anderson, & VanderWal, 2008).

The primary purpose of this study was to examine heterosexual undergraduate and graduate students’ perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs towards gays and lesbians in order to understand the extent to which they possess feelings of homonegativity. Additionally, the authors assessed students’ sociodemographic characteristics to determine the existence of correlations between those attributes and attitudes of inclusiveness. Finally, the authors’ were interested in learning more about how completion of multicultural and diversity coursework influenced positive or negative behaviors towards gays and lesbians, especially when considering that the sample studied represents those professions whose job it is to mitigate the effects of discrimination and bias as they relate to diversity issues like sexual orientation.

Background

General Attitudes, Beliefs, and Behaviors towards Gays and Lesbians

Although they are generally more accepted in today’s society, three quarters of gays and lesbians report being the victim of prejudice based upon their sexual orientation in areas such as education, employment, housing, health insurance, and the military (Kaiser Family Foundation [KFF], 2001). GL individuals frequently report being the victim of hate crimes, with such detrimental outcomes as depression, anger, and posttraumatic stress disorder (Herek, Gillis, Cogan, & Glunt, 2006), and 40% of GL individuals believe that levels of violence against gays and lesbians in the United States has increased (KFF, 2001).

There are a number of ways to describe individuals who are nonsupportive of GL individuals. It is believed that intolerant individuals are typically high in authoritarianism. That is, they are traditional in their
attitudes toward gender roles. Generally, intolerant individuals have relatively low levels of education, are negative toward other minority groups, and are male (Kite & Whitley, 1996). Individuals displaying the opposite profile are typically more accepting of lesbians and gay men (Kite & Whitley, 1996) (for a more expansive review, see Herek, 1984, 1991; Kite, 1994; Whitley & Kite, 1995).

Recently, societal views about GL individuals suggest more inclusive viewpoints (Herek, 2002; Herek & Capitanio, 1999; Loftus, 2001; Overby & Barth, 2002). In Texas, a survey of residents discovered that a majority (76%) favored legislation that would establish more safeguards to protect gays and lesbians from hate crimes (Hoppe, 1999). Similarly, in California more than one third of those polled believed the government was not doing enough to protect the rights of gays and lesbians (Coile, 1999). In short, although some research (Yang, 2000) would suggest that there is a gradual trend toward more positive attitudes about gays and lesbians, others (Worthington, Dillon, & Becker-Schutte, 2005) still maintain that societal attitudes about these individuals contain elements of bias.

**Continuum of Acceptance and Tolerance**

Until recently, lesbians and gays traditionally turned to friendship networks, rather than family, with personal concerns (Weston, 1992). Although there appears to be increased acceptance of diverse sexual orientations in the general society, there are also reported differences between levels of acceptance for gay men and lesbians. Gay men are slightly more likely than lesbians to report feeling accepted in society and lesbians are more likely than gay men to report not being accepted by family members. Similarly, lesbians are more likely to report being discriminated against based on their sexual orientation and report being worried more so than gay men that they may be physically assaulted (KFF, 2001).

**Gays and Lesbians Seeking Help**

Given that today more people are willing to acknowledge their sexual orientation status than previously, the probability increases for a higher number of GL individuals to avail themselves of the many services that are offered by helping professionals. Services may include but are certainly not limited to counseling or psychological services, law enforcement services, and government-supported social service programs that affect individuals and families.

Elliott (1993) reported that the percentage of gay men and lesbians who seek counseling is estimated to be two to four times higher than that for heterosexual clients. Additionally, social service agencies have seen an increase in same-sex domestic violence (SSDV) among their gay and lesbian clients (McClennen, Summers, & Vaughan, 2002; Potoczniak, Mourot, Crosbie-Burnett, & Potoczniak, 2003), leading to the use of such agencies by GL individuals. If not services for themselves, some may have
the occasion to access mental health services for their children who may be subjected to homonegativity from their peers (Gartrell, Deck, Rodas, Peyser & Banks, 2005).

Although GL individuals have generally turned to their own social networks—family and friends—when dealing with personal concerns, the trend is for more individuals to be willing to risk the social stigma that may come with seeking professional help with personal and professional issues. If the trend continues, basic social services and mental health care of the GL population will continue to increase in many human services settings. As the social stigma associated with GL continues to subside, and professionals become more knowledgeable about issues pertaining to working with GL individuals, the potential for more of them to seek the services of helping professionals will continue to increase.

Professional Values and Ethical Responsibility in Current Education Models

Helping-profession disciplines use various conceptual approaches to train their students to understand individuals who manifest diverse sexual orientations. One such theoretical approach that is commonly known in many disciplines is social constructionism. Schnoor (2005) records the manner in which constructionist approaches are used in social science research by highlighting the examples of religion, ethnicity, and sexuality. A major focus of social constructionists (those who practice social constructionism) is to examine the ways in which individuals and groups develop views and beliefs about social phenomena, such as sexual orientation, and further understand how those views and beliefs often become manifested in the everyday reality of human interactions. Thus, social constructionism provides a context in which individuals can become more cognizant of how their views and interpretations of GL individuals often result in transformative views of them, or result in a significantly distorted worldview about their potential interactions with them. In essence, social constructionism examines how worldviews of individuals toward gays and lesbians are created, institutionalized, and incorporated into traditions (Gergen, 1985).

Social constructionism is a key theory used in many disciplines for identifying the worldviews that students hold toward gay and lesbian individuals. It provides a context for how educators can train students to work more effectively with the GL population. Studies in the disciplines nonetheless reveal that students need additional information for more effective work with these clients, as counseling students have reported limited training in preparing them to work with the GL population (Bidell, 2005; Dillon et al., 2004; McClennen et al., 2002). Studies about social workers’ and/or social work students’ attitudes towards lesbians and gays provide divergent viewpoints ranging from tolerance (Berkman & Zinberg, 1997; Sun, 2002) to homonegativity (Bassett & Day, 2003; Newman, Dannenfelser, & Benishek, 2002). Students in criminal justice education, particularly those interested in law enforcement careers, have
negative views of the gay and lesbian community (Cannon, 2005; Olivero & Murataya, 2001; Ventura, Lambert, Bryant, & Pasupuleti, 2004). Similarly to other fields, psychology students have been found to be, at worst, homonegative and, at best, unprepared to serve the needs of gay and lesbian clients in both the classroom and practicum settings (Biaggio, Orchard, Larson, Petrino, & Mihara, 2003; Burhke, 1989; Burhke & Douce, 1991; Matchinsky & Iverson, 1996; Pilkington & Cantor, 1996). In reality, then, there is a need for additional models and theoretical perspectives for training students in the area of sexual orientation. One such theory that holds tremendous promise is Moral Exclusion Theory (MET).

**Empirical Background and Analytic Framework**

Moral Exclusion Theory (MET) proposes a psychosocial orientation toward certain individuals or groups for whom justice principles or consideration of fairness and allocation of resources is not applicable (Opotow, 1990, 1995, 2001, 2006; Opotow, Gerson, & Woodside, 2005). There are a number of moral exclusion processes that, when taken on an individual basis or in aggregate, help determine the level of severity of moral exclusion. For example, individuals engage in a form of moral exclusion when they participate in the process of *groupthink*, which is when individuals are not willing to challenge their distortions, assumptions, and stereotypes because to do so means that they are challenging the views of their own group. Another MET process is referred to as *open approval of destructive behavior*, which is accepting a moral code that presumes some individuals or groups deserve their just punishment. So the idea of physical punishment to a gay or lesbian person within this person’s view is morally justified. *Psychological distancing* is another process associated with moral exclusion. Here there is the tendency to perceive others as objects or nonexistent, thus disallowing one’s imagination to extend to that group. Consequently, a heterosexual may find it difficult to engage gay and lesbian individuals in loving, warm, and empathic relationships. *Condescension* is another process in this approach. In this process, there is a tendency to regard gays and lesbians as inferior, perceiving them with disdain—for example, that they are predators and are irrational and flamboyant. These are but a few of the processes that makeup the conceptual theory of MET. MET was used in this study as the conceptual framework by which to assess the meaning of this study’s findings.

MET is considered here as a viable framework useful for reframing educators’ approach to diversity education. MET expands the scope of diversity education and training to an action-oriented approach, which, in the context of this study, addresses (a) the subtle and blatant manifestations of oppression toward gays and lesbians; (b) professionals’ ethical responsibility to make personal and professional sacrifices that would foster the well-being of gays and lesbians; (c) what motivates people who are culturally encapsulated and who live in remote areas to
engage in a process of social change, at all levels of society; and (d) the
manner in which helping professionals can support and sustain peace
between heterosexuals and GL people. Thus, the authors bring MET as the
guiding theoretical framework of this article pertaining to the study of
perceptions and attitudes toward gays and lesbians. The authors contend
that the theory provides richness and relevance to the interrelated aspects
that define and refine professionals’ thinking about the lesbian and gay
population. Also, the authors believe that helping professions should
consider MET in curricular offerings throughout their training programs.

MET provides a useful tool for examining rules about individual
and societal interactions—how people disrespect and harm others, what
justifies such behaviors, and what rules determine whether the well-being
of others is a concern (Opotow, 2006). Individuals categorize others as
either inside or outside their scope of justice—what they deem as fair
according to personal or societal norms and moral rules (Opotow, 1990).
Those deemed outside the scope of justice are unprotected by group norms
and may be subjected to a spectrum of harms and biases.

The literature provides several examples of moral exclusion
ranging from individual to societal exclusion. Leets and Sunwolf (2005)
found that adolescents use a form of moral exclusion to define their social
networks. Examples of societal exclusion include genocide (Opotow,
2001), the denial of proper procedural justice for Haitian refugees and
their deportation (DeWind, 1990), the exclusion of rights for the poor
(Lott, 2002), and the exclusion of students from public schools based on
academic merit, class, race, or gender (Fine, 1990).

In contrast, moral inclusion ensures that others are treated with
respect and are given the opportunities in society everyone deserves. The
basic principles of moral inclusion are that fairness should apply to others
and that others are deserving of societal resources, even at the cost or
sacrifice on the part of the individual for the well-being of all (Opotow,
1990). Moral inclusion is concerned with community building; therefore,
all subsets of the community must be involved to foster true change
(Opotow et al., 2005).

Method

Research Design and Sample

The study was conducted at a medium-sized (i.e., more than
28,000 students and 3,100 faculty) public university located in the
southwestern United States. The institutional review board of the first and
second authors’ university approved the study. The overall design for the
study was cross-sectional survey research. A self-administered survey tool
was used to capture the perceptions and attitudes of a sample (N = 157) of
male (23%) and female (77%) heterosexual students towards gays and
lesbians. The students were enrolled in counseling (34%), social work
(36%), criminal justice (11%), psychology (14%) and human services
counseling (5%) programs. Age ranges were from 19 to 57 years of age
(Mean = 28.3; SD = 8.51). A majority (57%) of students were single.
White/Caucasians composed 60% of the sample, followed by 14% Latino/Hispanic, 13% Black/African American, 6% Asian/Asian American, and 7% indicated “other” or mixed ethnicity. Seventy percent (70%) of the sample identified as Christian, while 30% classified themselves as “other.” Nearly the entire sample was composed of undergraduate (48%) or master’s level students (50%), with only 1% doctoral students. A large majority (85%) of respondents stated that they had completed coursework in cultural diversity.

**Measurement and Analysis**

To assess students’ attitudes toward gays and lesbians, the investigators used the *Modern Homonegativity Scale* (MHS) (Morrison & Morrison, 2002). The MHS is one-dimensional and conceptually distinct from other measures of outdated homonegativity, which focus on homosexuality as a biological or personality-driven inferiority. The scale is able to decipher a negative affective orientation towards gays and lesbians and it specifically examines attitudes about civil and social justice issues. The MHS contains two parallel subscales whereby one scale measures attitudes towards gay men (MHS-G) while the other measures attitudes towards lesbians (MHS-L).

The 12-item instrument registers respondents’ choices using a 5-point Likert-type scale, which ranges from strongly disagree (1 point) to strongly agree (5 points) and include the following statements: (1) Many gay men (lesbian women) use sexual orientation to obtain special privileges; (2) Celebrations such as Gay Pride Day are ridiculous because they assume an individual’s sexual orientation should constitute a source of pride; (3) Gay men (lesbian women) still need to protest for rights; (4) Gay men (lesbian women) do NOT have all the rights they need; (5) Gay men (lesbian women) who are “out-of-the-closet” should be admired for courage; (6) Gay men (lesbian women) have become too confrontational in their demands for equal rights; (7) The notion of universities providing students with undergraduate degrees in gay and lesbian studies is ridiculous; (8) Gay men (lesbian women) should stop complaining about the way they are treated in society and simply get on with their lives; (9) If gay men (lesbian women) want to be treated like everyone else then they need to stop making a fuss about their sexuality or culture; (10) Gay men (lesbian women) should stop shoving their lifestyle down other people’s throats; (11) Gay men (lesbian women) seem to focus on the ways in which they differ from heterosexuals and ignore the ways in which they are the same; and (12) In today’s tough economic times, taxpayers’ money should not be used to support gay (lesbian) organizations.

Responses of agree and strongly agree are considered homonegative, while responses of disagree and strongly disagree are considered not homonegative, with the exception of questions 3, 4, and 5 (above). Those three questions were subsequently reverse coded to follow the same pattern. The total scores are determined by adding the individual items within each of the subscales. Scores within each subscale can range...
from 12 to 60, where higher scores signify greater levels of homonegativity.

In terms of the scales’ psychometric properties, after factor-analytic investigations of a larger pool of items, the 12-item MHS scale was constructed. The scale developers found Cronbach’s alpha for the 12-item MHS-G (gay men) to be .91 for both males and females when validated with a sample of 353 heterosexual university students in British Columbia. The MHS-L (lesbians) scale has an alpha score of .89 for males and .85 for females. The psychometric properties of the MHS have proven it to be a sound instrument for assessing heterosexual’s attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. As a side note, given the fact that the Modern Homonegativity Scale is for use with heterosexuals, those students in this study who self-reported as homosexual, bisexual, or transgendered (n = 12) were excluded from the analysis.

**Results**

**Comparison of Homonegativity Mean Score and Demographic Characteristics**

Univariate analysis, paired sample t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted to answer the study’s research probes. Overall, the students in the study were relatively supportive of gay and lesbian rights, with most responses being either positive or neutral towards gay and lesbian individuals. There were no differences in homonegativity scores between those individuals who took cultural diversity courses and those who did not.

However, significant relationships were found when respondents were compared by using sociodemographic characteristics. A one-way ANOVA was used to test for homonegativity differences among students’ demographic characteristics. As displayed in Table 1, ANOVA results are significant in only three categories. First, homonegativity differed significantly between students based on the type of degree they were seeking, F (4, 157) = 13.322, p = .000. Tukey post-hoc comparisons of four groups indicated that the psychology (M = 73, 95% CI [63, 82]) and the criminal justice (M = 71, 95% CI [67, 76]) majors scored significantly higher on the homonegativity test than the counseling (M = 51, 95% CI [47, 55]) and social work (M = 55, 95% [51, 58]) majors. Again, higher homonegativity scores suggest greater levels of negative sentiment towards gays and lesbians. Comparisons between the human services (M = .61, 95% CI [52, 70]) majors and all other degree programs were not statistically significant at p < .05.

Second, homonegativity results differed significantly across religious affiliation, F (8, 146) = 3.101 p = .003. Tukey post-hoc comparisons of religious groups indicated that the Mormon/LDS students (M = 72, 95% CI [66, 79]) scored significantly higher on the homonegativity test than students who identify as Catholic (M = 58, 95% CI [52, 64]).
CI [53, 63], Buddhist (M = 44, 95% CI [9, 79]), Spiritualist, (M = 49, 95% CI [40, 58]), Jewish (M = 52, 95% CI [44, 61]), or those who or Atheist/Agnostic/no religious identification (M = 55, 95% CI [45, 64]). Comparisons between the Mormon students and the students who identify as Protestant (M = 60, 95% CI [52, 68]) Christian (but non-specific category) (M = 56, 95% CI [49, 64]), or the category “other,” (i.e., largely comprising Islamic students) (M = 57, 95% CI [45, 70]) were not statistically significant at p < .05. Third, homonegativity scores differed significantly by gender, F (1, 158) = 14.835, p = .000. Male students (M = 67, 95% CI [62, 73]) scored significantly higher on the homonegativity measure than did female students (M = 56, 95% CI [53, 59]).

**Difference in Attitudes towards Gays versus Lesbians**

An analysis was conducted to discover statistically significant differences between attitudes toward gay males versus lesbians (see Table 2). Generally speaking, results demonstrated a strong positive correlation between scores, meaning that as favorable opinions about gay men go up, so do favorable opinions about lesbians. However, significantly lower item means were reported for gay men in three categories: (a) use of sexual orientation to obtain special privileges (MHS-G M = 1.82, SD = .838; MHS-L M = 2.10, SD = .982), (b) providing gay studies at the university level (MHS-G M = 2.44, SD = 1.143, MHS-L M = 2.53, SD = 1.14), and (c) the celebration of Gay Pride Day (MHS-G M = 2.31, SD = 1.05, MHS-L M = 2.42, SD = 1.07). In other words, the respondents were more likely to disagree or strongly disagree that gay men (versus lesbians) use their sexual orientation to obtain special privileges and that providing gay studies and celebrating Gay Pride is ridiculous. When answering these same questions about lesbians, the respondents did not register as strong of
Table 2: Attitudes/Perceptions Toward Gay Males versus Lesbians

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obtain special privileges</td>
<td>.703**</td>
<td>-.276</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>-4.818**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL studies ridiculous</td>
<td>.899**</td>
<td>-.090</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td>-2.186*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL Pride Day ridiculous</td>
<td>.882**</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>-2.642*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender/MHS-G score</td>
<td>-.292**</td>
<td>-.2706</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>-41.53**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender/MHS-L score</td>
<td>-.280**</td>
<td>-.2769</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>-39.30**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Note. $p \leq .05^*$, $p \leq 0.01**$

a level of disagreement (disagreement with the items represents less homonegativity). Other differences in mean scores were not significant.

In terms of the total subscale scores, students reported lower scale scores for gay men (MHS-G $M = 28.82$, $SD = 8.31$) than for lesbians (MHS-L $M = 29.46$, $SD = 8.87$), which was consistent even when comparing means by gender. Again, the lower scale score suggests less homonegativity. Male students reported significantly lower gay male scores (MHS-G $M = 33.15$, $SD = 8.6$) than lesbian scores (MHS-L $M = 33.95$, $SD = 8.89$), meaning male students are less homonegative towards gay men than they are lesbians. Female students also reported significantly lower scores for gay males (MHS-G $M = 27.47$, $SD = 7.77$) than lesbians (MHS-L $M = 28.10$, $SD = 8.44$). Female students, like male students, are less homonegative towards gays than they are lesbians. Although female students overall reported lower scores on gay male and lesbian scales than male students, these differences were not significant.

**Discussion of the Findings in Relation to Moral Exclusion Theory**

Study results show that this group of prospective professionals was, for the most part, supportive of rights for gays and lesbians and they possess favorable attitudes towards them. However, among these generally favorable attitudes, it was discovered that students who identify as Christian (particularly those who are LDS), those who are male, and those majoring in psychology and criminal justice tend to be more homonegative. With respect to differing perspectives of gays versus lesbians, as with previous literature, students reflected more favorable opinions toward gay men versus lesbians, especially in three categories: use of sexual orientation to obtain special privileges, gay studies being a legitimate course of study, and the legitimacy of Gay Pride Day celebrations.

An unexpected finding was the lack of significant difference in homonegativity scores for those students who had taken multicultural and diversity classes and those who had not. It would seem likely that those students who had completed a course of study in diversity would be distinguished from those who had not through expressing greater
acceptance (particularly as it relates to issues of social justice) and more favorable views regarding gay and lesbian individuals as was the case in other studies (see Chonody, Rutledge, & Siebert, 2009). The extent to which the courses taken by the respondents included content designed to challenge both attitudes and behaviors and differentiate the notion of tolerance versus acceptance is unknown. The Schope and Eliason (2000) study points to the need to examine the content of coursework in that it reminds readers that even some individuals with pro-gay attitudes admittedly still laugh at anti-gay jokes and use disparaging language about gays and lesbians, which may suggest that there is more work to be done in looking at how coursework can produce desirable outcomes.

In using the conceptual framework (i.e., MET) that guided this study, the finding about coursework may suggest a need to reexamine the manner in which issues of rights, justice, and inclusion are taught in diversity courses in helping-profession departments. Moral inclusion is an appropriate approach in the helping-professions arena due to the similarity of the concepts of the theory and the professions’ value base. Educating from a moral inclusion standpoint includes the removal of negative stereotypes or lack of knowledge about individuals outside the scope of justice, and replacing them with facts so that students may begin the process of inclusion. Inclusion education for all helping professionals should emphasize the reduction in biases and encourage inclusive treatment of gays and lesbians.

More specifically, an MET framework in counseling education could prepare future practitioners to work on behalf of lesbian and gay clients who face discrimination in the workforce or educational settings and to provide clients with coping skills to manage social situations in which these clients may feel excluded based upon their sexual orientation. Likewise, human services educators could prepare students to help GL clients navigate the social welfare system and understand specific roadblocks for receiving services as domestic partners, learning about community resources, and advocating for rights.

As for social work, MET provides a framework to prepare students to analyze and address social policies related to family issues (e.g., marriage, adoption, reproduction) and to provide education and outreach to further social inclusion of homosexuals in their communities. Similarly, diversity education from an MET standpoint in the criminal justice field could address the needs of gays and lesbians in the correctional and legal systems and promote analysis and advocacy of laws relating to hate crimes and domestic violence (Cannon & Dirks-Linhorst, 2006). Finally, psychology coursework from an MET perspective could encourage students to conduct research to advance the literature base on gay and lesbian issues and overcome the historical viewpoint of homosexuality as a pathology.

There are a number of processes associated with MET that could explain why individuals who practice certain types of Christianity (e.g., Mormonism), are male, and are in criminal justice and psychology degree
programs would have their perceived view of gay and lesbian individuals. First, an assumption of MET is that individuals and organizations with perceived power and privilege have the wherewithal to determine categories of “inclusion” versus “exclusion.” Thus, individuals with a strong religious orientation, especially Christianity as the dominant religion in the United States, may feel as though a person could not fulfill the tenets of Christianity if the person is lesbian or gay. Research has substantiated the connection between religion and anti-gay attitudes (Schope & Eliason, 2000).

Concerning gender, given that males have a privileged status in this culture (see Abramovitz, 1988; Case, 2007 for operational definitions, evidence, and awareness of male privilege), there could be the tendency for males to view gay male individuals as nonmasculine, and lesbians as individuals who are willing to live without men, thus viewing lesbians as a threat to male superiority. Finally, as it relates to a degree program, research has shown that Criminal Justice majors cite religious beliefs as a major determinant of their views and beliefs (Wolfer & Friedrichs, 2001), thus the high degree of homonegativity in criminal justice majors could be influenced by religious convictions. Again, the question for educators becomes, “How can educators have a positive effect on such deeply held and fundamental biases?” Research suggests that coursework does improve negative attitudes held by college students (even male students) toward gays and lesbians (Chonody et al., 2009). Such a finding is important, especially as it relates to males, given the fact that gender is repeatedly identified as a variable that influences attitudes toward gays and lesbians, and although not without dispute, studies tend to suggest that males hold more negative attitudes toward gay individuals (Grieger & Ponterotto, 1988; Schope & Eliason, 2000). However, the nature of the coursework must be considered in order to determine if it will be effective in preparing students to work with gay and lesbian clients. Given the findings of this study, the authors encourage the use of MET in college-level diversity education and training in an effort to prompt students toward more action-oriented processes and practice models whereby students can move beyond narrative reflection and self-awareness work into transformative activities that challenge them to acquire new behaviors.

**Implications and Teaching Strategies**

**Applying Moral Exclusion Theory in the Classroom**

The authors begin by suggesting that every student who enters cultural diversity classes be assessed for his or her perceived level of homonegativity, specifically using a tool designed for an academic setting. This means that educators could then develop and use their own instruments, or use published instruments from reliable outlets. The scores from the instruments could then be correlated with moral exclusion processes to determine whether they reflect subtle or wider symptoms of moral exclusion. Getting a baseline reading of students’ perceptual views
of GL individuals has several advantages for students as well as for educators, as students may use the pretest to identify their own latent views of GL individuals. On the other hand, educators can determine what areas of the curriculum should be emphasized for training students in awareness and knowledge of GL individuals.

In the authors’ clinical and professional experience, we have found that most students entering cultural diversity courses are more inclined to present their views of GL individuals in a positive light. The authors have found that this tendency exists among many students who are from conservative areas of the country. Many students from these regions may have internalized the homonegative views of the larger communities in which they live to an extent that they are unaware of, and the tendency to present an alternative sense of their true self-perceptions of GL individuals occurs unconsciously. Concealing effects of harmful outcomes is a subtle symptom of MET. In this regard, distorting, ignoring, or minimizing one’s true feelings about lesbians and gays becomes a normative behavioral pattern. Subtle symptoms are also represented by the use of double standards, a belief in having different norms for different groups. For example, students might believe that heterosexuals can hold jobs that allow them to work around school children, but do not extend the same consideration to GL individuals. And if they are lesbian or gay and work in high-risk occupations, such as the police force or military service, many individuals believe that GL individuals should take every precaution not to let their co-workers know of their sexual orientation. Another symptom that would reflect a mild form of moral exclusion is using euphemisms when referring to GL individuals. Does the student ever recall using euphemistic language this way? Human beings often use euphemistic language to mask and sanitize their true thoughts and feelings toward GL individuals. Does the student make moral judgments about whether a same-sex orientation is right or wrong? For example, a student might assert that a same-sex lifestyle is against the teachings of his or her religious convictions, and therefore, to accept a same-sex lifestyle as being normal would be morally reprehensible.

A wider symptom of moral exclusion suggests that heterosexual individuals have a fear of contamination. That is, heterosexuals perceive lesbians and gays as a psychological threat, in which case heterosexuals seek to limit their contact or alliance with GL people. In terms of contact, this could be illustrated by heterosexual individuals believing that GL individuals are unobtrusively watching them for just the right opportunity to make a sexual advance. These wider symptoms of moral exclusion often result in more destructive forms of cognitive and affective expressions, such as homonegativity and violence.

Teaching Strategies for Moral Exclusion to Inclusion

Several assignments recommended here may be appropriate for educators to consider when helping heterosexual students gain awareness of their moral exclusionary thoughts and behaviors. The intellectual
challenges associated with these exercises should create enough cognitive and affective responses that students would approach the assignments with great anticipation. The assignments can be divided into two categories: a preparatory phase and an action phase. In the preparatory phase, the purpose of the assignments is to sensitize students to their moral exclusionary thoughts. In the action phase, the assignments position the students to assume behaviors or engage in activities that are of a more moral inclusionary nature.

Preparatory phase. In Assignment #1, students could be required to change their identities for the duration of the course. This would entail letting selected others know of their change in sexual orientation. Students would keep a journal detailing the positive or negative reactions they received from others when revealing their alternative sexual orientation. More importantly, however, students would keep track of their cognitive and affective responses on a daily basis about what it is like to be a GL person. In Assignment #2, students could be required to write a paper to their Supreme Being thanking the deity figure for making them gay or lesbian. Alternatively, students could write and deliver a “coming out” letter and have to decide who would receive the letter (e.g., spouse, parent, best friend, sibling). Like Assignment #1, with Assignment #2, the students are to journal the reactions they experienced and how they processed those reactions. In Assignment #3, students could participate in weekly group counseling sessions with other students in which they share their thoughts and feelings about living an alternative sexual orientation. Students could then learn from each other the coping mechanism that they use to deal with stigmatization and the realization that their lives are much different from heterosexuals’. Finally, in Assignment #4 students could watch videotapes (i.e., movies, vignettes, training videos) of gay men and lesbians and monitor their psychological reactions with the use of biofeedback machines. This would help students identify whether they are tense or relaxed when learning about gay men and lesbians.

Action phase. The assignments in this phase could involve the following: (a) immersion experiences whereby students “live” within the gay or lesbian community by taking an active role in events, social gatherings, or meetings; (b) membership and involvement in an interest group where the task is to assist with advocacy efforts; (c) development of a cost-benefit analysis whereby the student considers the monetary consequences of gays and lesbians not being able to access services or the consequences of denial of services equated with basic civil rights provisions; and (d) a service learning project at a local gay and lesbian community organization in which the student engages in direct services to clients.

The authors contend that these assignments, when done with appropriate structure and consideration of students’ rights, may be powerful tools to move students toward moral inclusion of GL individuals. The authors would encourage the readers to introduce the assignments in
their classrooms and hope that many educators will produce research articles describing the application in the various classes.

**Data Limitations and Research Implications**

Generalizations of study findings would not be appropriate given the small sample size, the single-item measure of diversity coursework completion, and the overall exploratory nature of this study. In order to know fully how MET can frame a curriculum to promote a more inclusive and social justice–oriented perspective among students in the helping professions, additional research is necessary. Future research, capable of operationalizing the tenets of MET into curriculum/teaching strategies, should be devised to test how it can aid in lessening homonegativity among students.

**Summary and Conclusion**

Like all citizens, gays and lesbians should be afforded the opportunity to seek professional help with the confidence that they will be met by competent, ethical, and bias-free practitioners. For this to happen, preparation of helping professionals involves education in the tenets of moral inclusion. Although students might possess knowledge about diversity issues, there is still work to be done in shoring up future professionals’ notions of inclusion, social justice, and rights, particularly as it relates to the gay and lesbian population.

**References**


Assessing the Effectiveness of a Self-Injury Treatment Pilot Training Program

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Abstract
With an increasing number of young adults who self-injure, there is a clear need for human service professionals to be adequately trained. Using a concurrent mixed methodological design, this study examined the changes in knowledge, awareness, and skills at the conclusion of a pilot training program for 79 counselor and human service professional trainees. Results indicated that knowledge, awareness and skills of human service professionals and counselor trainees improved significantly after the training. Implications for training and future research are provided. Within the conclusion of the manuscript, the researchers discuss implications for training and future research.

Definition of Self Harm
Self-injury is self-inflicted bodily harm of a socially unacceptable nature performed to reduce psychological distress (Craigen, Healey, Walley, Byrd, & Schuster, 2008). Examples of common outward manifestations of self-injury include cutting, burning, and interference with wound healing. Nock and Prinstein (2005) estimate the prevalence of self-injury in adolescent community samples to range from 14% to 39% while Whitlock, Eells, Cummings, and Purington (2009) project that as many as 35% of the college population engage in some form of self-harming behaviors. Further, Whitlock et al., (2009) determined that college mental health providers, secondary school counselors, nurses, and social workers perceived an increase in clients who self-harm within their professional arenas. Additionally, Purington and Whitlock (2004), two leaders in the field of self-injury, argue that all youth serving professionals play a critical role in identifying and treating self-injury. Thus, there is evidence that self-injury is on the rise within both a clinical and community population, confirming the need for human service professionals to place themselves in a position where they can identify, respond to, and intervene with clients who self-injure.

Rationale for Increased Training in Human Services
There is a clear need for the human services field to respond to this rising epidemic. In fact, Trepal and Wester (2007) indicate that as the amount of training increases, the prevalence of reporting incidences of self-injury in minors increases. Additionally, Trepal and Wester (2007) argue that with more training the more likely a professional is to recognize and respond to self-injury. Unfortunately, the reality is that many human service professionals are not adequately trained to work with clients who self-injure (Crawford, Geraghty, Street, Simonoff, 2003). In fact, self-
injurious behavior is the least understood behaviors among adolescent mental health problems (Purington & Whitlock, 2004). Oftentimes, helping professionals refuse to work with clients who self-injure and label them as manipulative and difficult to treat (Favazza, 1998). Collectively, these studies, among others within the mental health field, indicate improper treatment leading to potentially long-lasting psychological effects on clients (Arnold, 1995; Favazza, 1998; Favazza & Conterio, 1989; Levenkron, 1998; Shaw, 2002). Given the alarming rates of self-injury coupled with the lack of training and understanding of self-injury, we argue that there is a need for pre-service training on the topic of self-injury.

At the present time, a review of the accreditation information in counseling and human services demonstrate that self-injury is often not a part of the curriculum in counseling and human service programs (Council for Standards in Human Service Education [CSHSE], 2010; Trepal & Wester, 2007). In fact, mental health problems are rarely addressed in human service programs. Yet, working with clients who self-injure is applicable to the role of the human service professional, especially as she or he acts as a broker, advocate, teacher, behavior changer, mobilizer, and caregiver (Neukrug, 2008). Additionally, human service professionals are often the first point of contact for the client as a case worker, residential staff member, intake interviewer, child advocate, or as another front-line position (Craigen, 2008). Thus, while human service professionals do not provide in-depth therapeutic work with clients who self-injure, they likely encounter individuals who self-injure, and their knowledge and awareness of this issue is paramount to empathic support and linking these clients to appropriate services.

This study seeks to fill the gap in the literature by examining the impact of a pilot training program on human service and counselor trainees’ awareness, knowledge, and skills of self-injury. The primary research question for this study is: Do human service professional trainees’ and counselor trainees’ self-injury competency levels significantly change after a training program? The secondary research question for this study is: What is the relationship between demographic variables (race, culture, age, experience) and self-injury competency levels?

**Method**

A mixed methods concurrent triangulation study (Creswell, 2003) was employed to incorporate the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In concurrent triangulation designs, both methods are of equal priority and both forms of data inform one another. The main thesis from this manuscript is that quantitative and qualitative knowledge are both critical for understanding counseling and human service students’ knowledge, awareness, and skills regarding self-injury. In a concurrent triangulation study, data analysis is usually separate and integration occurs at the data interpretation stage, or within the discussion section of this
manuscript. The interpretation of data typically involves comparing and contrasting the findings (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005).

Prior to implementing the study, researchers gained the approval of the university Institutional Review Committee (IRB) and adhered to all ethical standards of research delineated by the National Organization of Human Service Professionals (1996) as well as the American Counseling Association (ACA, 2005). The sequence of the study was as follows: (a) participants were recruited for class trainings and pre-post interviews, (b) the authors conducted the 15 pre-training qualitative interviews, (c) the training programs were conducted, (d) quantitative data was collected, and (e) the authors conducted the final 15 post-training qualitative interviews (using the same 15 participants as the pre-training interview).

Participants

Using criterion sampling procedures (Patton, 2002), the researchers recruited participants by e-mailing faculty in a Mid-Atlantic University to recruit community counseling, family counseling, school counseling and human service students. For this study, counseling students were selected because they are located within the same department as the human service program. While counseling represents one facet of the human services field, it is important to recognize that counseling is not representative of all of the sub-fields of human services. Additionally, we selected this university because the primary researcher had prolonged engagement with the faculty.

Based on faculty responses, the authors of the study conducted three training sessions in undergraduate human service classrooms (i.e., Human Service Methods, Addictions, and Diversity) and three trainings were conducted in graduate community and school counseling classrooms (i.e., Testing and Client Assessment, Professional Issues in School Counseling, and Mental Health Counseling). In these six classes, there were a total of 79 students who received the training. Each student in all six classes participated, yielding a 100% response rate. Informed consent was gained at the start of the training session and the authors briefed the participants on confidentiality. Then, the participants were provided with a survey packet containing the Self Injury Knowledge Awareness and Skills (SIKAS) survey and demographic questionnaire. The estimated time to complete the SIKAS was approximately 20 minutes. We also asked participants to complete the SIKAS as an outcome measure immediately following the training session.

From the pool of 79 participants, the researcher sought volunteers for the interview component of the study. Each faculty member gave students the incentive of extra credit to participate in the interviews. A total of fifteen participants (7 graduate counseling and 8 undergraduate human service students) e-mailed the primary researcher to participate in the study prior to the scheduled training and all 15 participants completed the post interviews as well. Prior to both interviews, the primary
researcher briefed participants on confidentiality and obtained informed consent again. The pre-training interview occurred 2-8 days prior to the training session and the post-training interview occurred 3-7 days after the training was completed.

The overall sample (those who received the training) consisted of 79 participants (69 females and 10 males). With respect to position in school, the majority of participants (N = 70) were undergraduate human service students while nine students were graduate counseling students. Participants fit the following racial/ethnic categories: White/Caucasian (N = 50), African-American (n = 18), Asian-Pacific Islander (n = 3), American Indian (n = 1), Multiracial (n = 5), and other, not specified (n = 2). With respect to experience, the majority of participants (n = 74) indicated that they did not have any professional experience working with individuals who self-injure and had never participated in any training on the topic of self-injury.

**Training**

**Self-injury training.** A 2-hour self-injury training session was created and administered by the primary researcher. The development of the training was informed by theoretical and empirical works culled from the literature on the following: Demographics, statistics, motivating factors related to self-injury, myths about self-injury, media influences of self-injury, misperceptions about helping those who self-injure, assessments used for individuals who self-injure, research about confidentiality, research on different treatment modalities and theories used with clients who self-injure. The content of the training was also informed by the primary researcher’s clinical experience with clients who self-injure and past experiences presenting workshops and trainings on the topic of self-injury. The training was divided into three main sections: Describing Self-Injury, Perspectives on Self-Injury and Treatment Interventions (see Appendix A).

**Instrumentation**

**Self-Injury Knowledge Awareness and Skills (SIKAS).** The SIKAS was developed by the primary researcher as there were no available instruments in the literature that assessed self-injury knowledge, awareness, and skills. The items were based on self-injury scholarship and research. It is a 44-item survey assessing participant’s self-injury competency level (i.e., knowledge, awareness, and skills). The authors established reliability using Cronbach’s alpha, a measure of internal consistency or how closely related a set of items are as a group (Creswell, 2003). Reliability analyses of the SIKAS indicated moderate to high internal consistency, with an alpha of .87 (pretest) and .77 (posttest) for this sample.

Participants responded to 40 items using a 7-point Likert Scale that ranged from (1) strongly agree to (7) strongly disagree and four sentence completion items. The developed items fit into one of the three categories:
knowledge, awareness, and skills. Sample items within these categories include:

**Knowledge Items:**
- People who self-injure have an increased risk for committing suicide in the future.
- When it comes to self-injury, I would like to know more about ________.

**Awareness Items:**
- Working with individuals who self-injure is time-consuming.
- People who self-injure are abnormal.

**Skills Items:**
- I would conduct a suicide protocol with all clients who self-injure.
- If my client was a minor and cutting, I would break confidentiality and report the self-injury to parents/guardians.

**Demographic Questionnaire.** The primary researcher developed the demographic questionnaire. The questionnaire was brief and sought information about respondents’ age, race, gender, and grade/level in college. The demographic questionnaire also assessed experience with self-injury trainings or the extent to which self-injury was taught within their educational curriculum.

**Qualitative interview.** Pre-training and post-training semi-structured interviews were conducted and each interview was approximately 20-40 minutes in duration. The initial interview was conducted 2-8 days prior to the training and evaluated participants’ pre-training competency regarding their knowledge, awareness, and skills related to self-injury. Participants completed the second interview 3-7 days after the training and assessed to what extent the training, if at all, changed their overall knowledge, awareness and skills. As noted in the sample qualitative interview questions presented in Appendix B, two of the four questions remained the same while two questions examined if there were any changes in knowledge or awareness as a result of the training.

**Data Analysis**
Consistent with a concurrent mixed methodological research design, data was analyzed separately and the interpretation of this data is found within the discussion section of the article. The quantitative data analysis procedures will be presented followed by the qualitative analysis.

The quantitative data from the demographics questionnaire and the SIKAS was analyzed with SPSS software using correlational and ANCOVA analysis. The correlational analysis examined the relationship between the pre and post-test scores on the SIKAS while the ANCOVA procedure was conducted to assess the relationship among age, gender, ethnicity, and education, controlling for pretest scores.
As for the qualitative data analysis, the two semi-structured interviews were analyzed using the standard qualitative data analysis methods. The beginning steps of qualitative data analysis are epoche, which is the process of setting aside judgments, and bracketing, which is the process of phenomenological reduction. This process allowed the researcher to set aside judgments so as to focus on the true nature of the phenomenon (Patton, 2002). After the authors bracketed the data, the authors searched for themes in each participant’s experiences. In identifying themes and patterns the authors looked specifically for convergence and divergence between participants.

Results
Consistent with a mixed methodological design, the results section that follows will report both the quantitative results and the qualitative results with equal priority assigned to each (Nagy-Hess, Biber, & Leavy, 2006).

Quantitative Results
Correlational analysis was used to examine the relationship between pre-test ($M = 7.04, SD = .76$) and post-test ($M = 3.29, SD = .46$) scores on the SIKAS. Results of the correlational analysis indicate a significant positive relationship between the pre- and post-test scores [$r (77) = .59$, $p < .01$]. Results suggest that 34.81% of the variance in post-test scores is attributable to post-test scores. These scores indicate that the pilot training program may be moderately effective in changing competency levels of participants regarding self-injury.

Qualitative Results
Qualitative results were derived from the interviews with 15 participants (7 graduate students and 8 undergraduate human service students) and the four open-ended questions located at the end of the SIKAS, which all participants answered. Four primary pre-training themes emerged from the data analysis: Inexperience, Openness, Hesitancy, and Curiosity. Additionally, two primary post-training themes emerged from the data analysis: Change and Preparation.

Pre-Training Results
Inexperience. This first pre-training theme includes comments about the lack of or the absence of knowledge, experience and/or training the participants received on the topic of self-injury. For the majority of participants, the topic of self-injury may have been mentioned or talked about briefly by a classmate or a professor, but it was rarely included in a teaching lesson. Other participants talked about how they “wanted to” and “would like” to gain more experience with the topic.

Positive Feelings. Prior to the training, about half of the participants revealed an overall positive outlook or expressed positive feelings including a willingness, eagerness, and excitement to work with
individuals who self-injure. For example, one participant shared, “If I could help a person self-injuring, it would make me feel good knowing that I’ve had an impact on a person’s life that really needs help.” Another participant shared, “working with clients who self-injure sounds comforting. I love helping people.”

**Hesitancy.** With this pre-training theme, about half of the participants shared a cautiousness or overall hesitancy in working with clients who self-injure, specifically without adequate training. Specifically, participants used words like “fear,” “scary,” “challenging,” “intimidating,” “insecure,” and “daunting” prior to their training.

**Curiosity.** This pre-training theme includes responses that illuminate an interest in learning more about self-injury. For example, many shared that they would like to know more about the demographics related to self-injury and the different forms of self-injury. Specifically, the participants shared, “I would like to know about the definition, types of self-injury and statistics” and “I would like to know about different forms of self-injury.” Another participant stated, “I want to know more about the best treatment method” and “I want to know methods for reducing the occurrence of self-injury.”

**Post-Training Results**

**Change.** After the training, the majority of the participants revealed that their thoughts and feelings about self-injury changed. For example, one participant shared, “my thoughts have changed. I understand more about why [people self-injure] and how [people self-injure]…I think that I will be able to identify more with clients that self-injure.” In addition, other participants discussed how the workshop “clarified” many of their questions and “dismissed myths” that they had about self-injury.

**Preparation.** After the training, the majority of participants talked about the necessity of receiving training prior to working with clients who self-injure. For example, one participant shared, “I am open to work with clients who self-injure, but I need to gain more knowledge on this topic.” Finally, the majority of participants talked about the importance of receiving training at the pre-service level. For example one participant shared, “I think that the faculty definitely needs to talk about it [self-injury] in class. Another participant talked about how she wanted to continue to learn about the topic of self-injury. She shared, “I wished the training was longer. I wanted to get into more detail about it.”

**Discussion**

Quantitative results provide support that the 2-hour pilot training program, as measured by the SIKAS, may increase counselor and human service professional and counselor trainee knowledge, awareness, and skills related to self-injury. This finding supports both the need for and the efficacy of trainings related to self-injury. While the knowledge gained is important to recognize, qualitative data revealed that the majority of participants did not feel they were now “ready” to effectively work with
this population. However, this workshop appeared to ignite an increased motivation and enthusiasm about the topic; the participants shared that they wanted to know more through their education or independent trainings. Furthermore, some participants even began sharing their knowledge with colleagues, friends, or family after receiving the training. Additionally, results indicated that individual variables (i.e., race, age, ethnicity, gender, and experience) did not appear to influence these results.

In terms of the specific workshop, several themes emerged prior to and after the training. Prior to the training, the participants revealed their fears about working with clients who self-injure. Concurrently, though, many participants saw the potential benefits of working with this population and expressed a curiosity and a desire to know more about both self-injurious behavior and about clients who self-injure. The participants’ knowledge base was relatively minimal, given their lack of professional or academic experience with self-injury. After the workshop, participants demonstrated their need to know more about self-injury and hoped that it would become a part of their educational training.

Implications for Training

Before receiving the training, the majority of participants (94%) had no experience or training on the topic of self-injury. Since the results indicate that a brief training on self-injury may be beneficial in changing knowledge, skill and awareness levels, the inclusion of workshops or lectures on self-injury is promising for educating human service trainees and counseling trainees on this topic.

The interviewees also shared a range of responses regarding their future work with clients who self-injure, ranging from excitement and comfort to fear and lack of understanding. Educators are encouraged to process this range of responses with their students. Additionally, educators could provide information to help trainees distinguish between suicide ideation and self-injurious behavior, review risk factors and consequences of self-injury, as well as cultural variations of self-injury. Conducting small group discussions on various self-injury topics could make training more interactive and potentially more effective.

Given the implications for training, human service educators should also be sensitive to the complexities of self-injury and therefore clarify that human service students do not have the training, education, or expertise to provide in-depth treatment to individuals who self-injure. Rather, educators should remind students that they will likely encounter clients who self-injure while conducting intakes, making referrals, and mobilizing services. Further, it is critical that educators make students aware of the NOHS ethical standard that states that helping providers are not to practice beyond their level of expertise or training (NOHS, 1996). Thus, the authors of this manuscript argue that while training on self-injury is beneficial for human service students the scope of the training should be outlined to students. In other words, the workshop alone was not
intended to prepare students with the skills to provide in-depth treatment to clients who self-injure.

**Implications for Research**

While the self-injury pilot training program appeared to be effective, additional research with various populations needs to be conducted. For example, it may be valuable to conduct trainings with human services programs across the country. Additionally, in terms of the training itself, future research could focus on interviewing participants about the training program itself. For example, it may be valuable to ask participants what was the most salient component of the training and what they would change to enhance the training.

Future research could also assess the long-term efficacy of the training. Within this study a post-test was given immediately at the conclusion of the training and for some participants the interview was conducted only 3 - 5 days after the training. A future study that assessed participants’ competency levels several weeks or months after the training would allow the researchers to determine if the training maintained its effectiveness over the long-term.

Future research could also be beneficial to conduct with practicing human service professionals. With this population, questions could be added to the pre- and post-survey and the interviews to examine factors that human service professionals view as effective interventions and how they typically intervene with clients who self-injure.

Finally, future research could examine the extent to which self-injury is addressed in the academic arena. For example, it would be beneficial for researchers to survey counseling and human service professors to investigate to what extent, if any, that information about self-injury is integrated into their curriculum. Additionally, the survey could assess faculty members’ beliefs about the importance of integrating education about self-injury into their curriculum.

**Limitations**

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of a pilot training program on counselor and human service professional trainees’ awareness, knowledge, and skills of self-injury. While the findings have direct implications for teaching, learning, and research, there are notable limitations to the study. First, the study was conducted within one university’s human service and counseling department. A future study could address these limitations by expanding the study across different universities using a larger sample. Additionally, the responses given by participants are subject to potential biases due to their relationships with the researchers. The primary author was also a professor in the undergraduate human services program. Thus, it is possible that answers were subject to response bias, a phenomenon that occurs when participants answer questions in the manner they think their questioner wants them to answer rather than according to their true beliefs. A future study may also
consider having an external researcher or faculty member not associated with the targeted population.

Finally, the primary author created the SIKAS instrument used in this study. Thus, future research on psychometric properties is needed for the SIKAS. In order to gain validity quotients, the researchers will continue to use this instrument. Overall, the SIKAS is a notable limitation of the study and the author(s) should spend ample time strengthening the validity and reliability data and norming the scale on a large and heterogeneous pool of participants.

References


Appendix A: Self-Injury Pilot Training Program Components

Component 1: Describing Self Injury
Definitions of self-injurious behavior
Demographics and additional statistics on self-injury
Types of self-injury
Characteristics of individuals who self-injure
Environmental, psychological, and biological influences of self-injury

Component 2: Perspectives on Self-Injury
Feminist and socio-cultural explanations of self-injury
Current media depictions of self-injury
Myths about self-injury
Counselors’ perspectives on self-injury
Current status of research on counseling individuals who self-injure
Common misperceptions of counseling individuals who self-injure

Component 3: Treatment Interventions
Assessing/Evaluating Self-Injury
Issues of confidentiality
Role of school
Role of family
Treatment approaches to working with individuals who self-injure
The therapeutic relationship
Useful activities (interactive portion of program presentation)
Additional modes of treatment (group/family counseling)

Appendix B: Qualitative Interview Questions

Sample Qualitative Interview Questions (pre-training program):
- What experience, if any, have you had with the topic of self-injury?
- Respond to the following: People who self-injure are…
- What would you like to know more about, with regard to self-injury?
- Complete the following sentence: Potentially working with clients who self-injure makes me feel…

Sample Qualitative Interview Questions (post-training program):
- How, if at all, have your feelings about self-injury changed after the workshop about self-injury?
- How, if at all, have your thoughts about self-injury changed after the workshop about self-injury?
- Respond to the following question: People who self-injure are…
- Complete the following sentence: Working with clients who self-injure makes me feel…
The Importance of Program Evaluation: A Case Study

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Abstract
This article highlights the importance of program evaluation by reviewing a case study of a human services program that was ultimately determined to be unsuccessful. The program designer and key stakeholders had strongly expected the program to be both efficient and effective, which helps emphasize the importance of formal evaluation. Human services educators may use this article as a teaching tool for program evaluation or applied research courses. Human services practitioners will appreciate the opportunity to reflect on the program evaluation needs of their own agencies.

Introduction
Human services agencies have an ethical obligation to “describe the effectiveness of programs, treatments, and/or techniques accurately” (National Organization for Human Services [NOHS], 1996, Statement 15). Accordingly, the Council for Standards in Human Service Education (2010) National Standards: Baccalaureate Degree in Human Services includes Program Evaluation as a required area of curriculum. The importance of program evaluation is clear to human service educators and advanced professionals involved in the development of educational standards. Unfortunately, students may not always recognize the importance of this task. They often see implementing programs as more exciting and rewarding than evaluating them. It can be difficult to motivate students to invest equal effort into becoming skilled program evaluators as they do into becoming skilled service providers. Busy practitioners may find it difficult to make program evaluation a priority given the demands of direct service.

This article highlights the importance of program evaluation by presenting a case study of a program that was strongly expected to be effective, but upon formal evaluation was found to be a poor use of professional time and of no discernible benefit to clients. The program reviewed here is a relatively simple one that students and entry-level practitioners should be able to see themselves involved in, or even directing. The evaluation methods were also straightforward, making the study conceptually accessible to those with little experience in program evaluation.

Overview of Program
The program involved training parents of children to implement a simple reading intervention during the summer months in order to ameliorate summer learning loss. Summer learning loss refers to a tendency for students (especially in low income areas) to lose academic skills over the summer (Cooper, Nye, Charlton, Lindsay, Greathouse, 2003). An evidence-based reading intervention called repeated readings...
was selected for its research support (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000), ease of implementation, low-frustration methods, and time efficiency.

The program involved sending a letter to parents describing summer learning loss and inviting them to any one of several one-hour training sessions to learn a home-based summer reading intervention. A small grant covered the low-cost materials (described below). Previous research has found two similar home-based repeated reading programs to be effective at improving reading skills (Hindin & Paratore, 2007; Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005). However, the current program was unique in two primary ways. First, the author implemented this program during the summer months, whereas the previous programs occurred during the academic year. Second, the author carefully designed the program to be time- and cost-efficient in terms of professional resources, whereas the previous studies required substantial involvement on the part of the researchers (e.g. frequent phone calls to parents, weekly assemblage and distribution of materials, and even audio-recordings of home sessions). The goal was to develop a program that was more manageable for agencies with limited resources.

**Expectations for the Program**

The author and program designer is a human services faculty member as well as a former service provider to the community. The school principal and reading specialist reviewed the program prior to implementation. There was a high degree of optimism among this group, who had considerable combined experience working with children in the very community for which the intervention was designed. The author also presented the program design at a professional seminar to an audience of approximately ten faculty members in various disciplines under the Applied Studies division, including faculty with considerable experience in human service programs. The group generally expected the program to make a positive impact on the families invited to participate.

Success was expected for the following reasons:

- The Repeated Readings (RR) intervention has a significant amount of research support for improving reading skills (Dowhower, 1987; Herman, 1985; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; Rasinski, 1990; Rashotte & Torgeson, 1985; Rathvon, 2008).
- The RR intervention has been used successfully during the academic year (as assessed through routine single-subject response to intervention assessment) with students at the school for several years. Students generally seem accepting of the intervention.
- The RR intervention utilizes a low-frustration correction procedure (simply tell the student difficult words rather than making them struggle to sound them out), which was deemed especially appropriate for the home setting.
• The RR intervention is simple and straightforward. It is regularly implemented by laypersons (such as parent volunteers).
• The RR intervention is time efficient. It can be implemented in about ten minutes, three to five times per week.
• Previous research supports the effectiveness of training parents to implement the RR intervention with their children (Hindin & Paratore, 2007; Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005).
• Previous research indicates that the RR intervention is appropriate for use with diverse ethnic groups, even when implemented by parents with limited English proficiency (Hindin & Paratore, 2007).

Designing the Evaluation
Despite the initial optimism, best practice dictated an evaluation to ensure that the program was having the intended effects. The biggest challenge was to design an evaluation that would provide adequate information for decision-making without directly impacting the outcomes of the study. For example, Hindin and Paratore (2007) noted that the effectiveness of their home RR intervention was “likely partially explained by the amount and frequency of contact between the researchers and their families” (p. 328). Specifically, parents reported that having to send in audiotapes of themselves implementing the intervention was an important reminder and motivator. The authors suggested that parents could keep logs instead, but the effectiveness of this type of substitution remains unknown.

In the present study, formative evaluation procedures, such as biweekly probes of reading skills or regular phone contact with parents, would have provided rich data and offered multiple opportunities for program improvement. However, the community being served needs intervention programs that are easy and affordable to implement independent of researcher support. If the program was evaluated through frequent assessment of progress, it would have resulted in uncertainty as to whether successful outcomes were due in part to the evaluation procedures rather than the program itself. That is, parents might have done a better job of implementation because of my progress monitoring activities than they would do without it. Many agencies would not adopt a program that required ongoing intensive data collection procedures, so additional research would then be required to determine whether the same program would work without including the formative evaluation procedures. Instead, the author decided to use less obtrusive evaluation procedures. This yielded a simple design structure, which is detailed below.

Method
Participants
Parents of all children in first through fourth grades (220 children in total) at an elementary school in a large, suburban school district were
invited to participate. Kindergarten students were excluded because many would not be developmentally ready for the RR intervention, and fifth grade students were excluded because they would not be available at the elementary school for post-intervention assessment in the fall. The ethnicity of the student population at the school was, 5% Asian American, 1% American Indian, 14% Black, 14% Hispanic, and 66% White. Eight percent of students received services through the English Language Learner Program. Seventy-eight percent of students qualified for free or reduced meals.

Of the invited families, parents of 14 students participated in the initial training. Of these students, six were female, two were Black, three were Asian American, and the rest were White. Three students were receiving services in the English Language Learner program.

Materials and Procedure

Training and implementation. An initial letter of invitation introduced the concept of summer learning loss and invited parents to attend any one of three training sessions to learn a reading strategy for summer use at home. The letter indicated that participating families would be entered into a raffle for unspecified prizes. Due to low participation rates at the training sessions, the author distributed a follow-up letter offering four additional training sessions. Two families had schedule conflicts; both were accommodated with individual training sessions.

Each training session was approximately one hour long and covered summer learning loss, the evidence-based nature of the RR intervention, and specific instructions and practice in the intervention.

The RR intervention involves having a child repeatedly read the same passage aloud to a more advanced reader (in this case the parent). The parent assists the child with challenging words and provides positive feedback. The immediate repetition of the same passage results in faster and more accurate reading, as well as better comprehension. This positive effect on reading skills generalizes to other reading materials that have not previously been practiced (Dowhower, 1987; Herman, 1985; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; Rasinski, 1990; Rashotte & Torgeson, 1985; Rathvon, 2008).

Following the training session, each family received a binder of materials including a summary of the training lecture, instructions for implementing Repeated Readings, reading passages downloaded from a free website, and logs for children to keep track of their progress. The author provided an email address for questions and sent two email reminders during the summer. None of the parents used the email address to pose questions or concerns during the project. At the end of the summer, participating families received a letter reminding them to turn in their logs and a survey about their experience with the program. The author raffled off prizes solicited from local businesses to all participating families.
Evaluation. The evaluation design was approved by the
Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the affiliated university, school
principal, and school district. Parent/guardian consent and child assent
were obtained prior to data collection.

Data were collected on the number of families who participated in
training and who implemented the program at a rate expected to yield
benefit (at least three times per week for 80% of weeks). The number of
hours involved in implementing the program was tracked.

The author invited all participating parents to turn in their logs at
the end of the summer, as well as to complete a survey inquiring about
their perceptions of the program. The initial survey included three
sections. The first covered basic demographic information. The second
included a 5-point Likert-type scale assessing parent perceptions of the
program with regard to ease of implementation, enjoyment of activity,
impact of intervention, and intentions to recommend or use the
intervention in the future. The third section included open-ended questions
soliciting suggestions for improvement and positive comments.

Finally, to assess actual reading skills, the author obtained parent
permission to access student scores on the AIMSweb Reading-Curriculum
Based Measure (R-CBM; Shinn & Shinn, 2002). The R-CBM is
administered to every student at the elementary school in the spring and
fall, regardless of their participation in the present evaluation study.
Students were not asked to participate in additional testing. This brief
reading assessment consists of three 60-second observations of child oral
reading speed and accuracy on three grade-level reading passages. The
measure is reliable and valid for elementary school children as early as the
first grade (Shinn & Shinn, 2002). Normative data is based on very large
sample sizes and updated each season as schools use the common database
to analyze their students’ scores.

Planned statistical analyses were rejected due to small sample size.
Therefore, the initial design was adapted to include a qualitative approach.
The author compared each child’s R-CBM score against grade-level
norms and looked for trends of improvement in standing from pre- to post-
intervention. Parent ratings and open-ended responses were examined for
themes. Based on these findings, as well as an examination of the
literature on treatment adherence (Shelton & Levy, 1981), a follow-up
survey was developed and distributed (with IRB approval) to gain more
information and affirm preliminary findings. The follow-up survey asked
parents to rate potential barriers to success (including expectations of
failure, perceived ineffectiveness, time constraints, lack of reminders,
intervention difficulty, and child resistance) as well as ideas for
improvement (including better training, rewards, reminders, different
interventions, and different materials). Negative case analysis was
employed to glean additional information from the cases that seemed to go
against the overall pattern of findings.
Results

After nine hours of training sessions, a total of 14 parents learned to implement the intervention. Additional professional time (approximately 8-10 hours) was spent in preparing materials and the training presentation, as well as soliciting prizes from local businesses.

Of the 14 original participating families, two moved out of the school district over the summer. Six families returned logs and surveys at the end of the summer. Parent comments and ratings on surveys, as well as implementation logs, suggested that only two families actually implemented the intervention over the course of the summer. One of the children was male and the other was a female who received services as an English Language Learner.

Small sample size precluded statistical analysis, but individual reading scores were compared against grade level norms to see if there was a trend of improvement. No evidence of significant improvement was identified for children whose parents participated in the training without implementing the program. There was also no evidence of significant improvement for the two children who actually implemented the program (possibly due to a ceiling effect as they already had high scores prior to the summer break).

While planned qualitative methods were not possible due to low participation rates, several separate sources of data suggest the program was not effective at improving student reading skills. First, initial rates of participation training were too low for the program to be considered to have had a broad impact. Second, implementation logs suggested low rates of actual use of the intervention. Third, student reading scores did not show evidence of improvement from pre- to post-intervention. Finally, parent surveys suggested that the program was only implemented by two families, and even they did not show evidence of significant improvement in reading scores.

Discussion

Previous parent-led reading intervention programs that employed frequent monitoring procedures have shown success in improving child reading scores (Hindin & Paratore, 2007; Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005). Practitioners may be tempted to assume that equal success could be obtained by implementing the intervention components of such programs without costly monitoring procedures, which would be difficult for agencies to sustain without researcher support. The results of the current study demonstrate why program evaluation is a critical task for human service providers.

The results of the initial observations regarding the professional time-efficiency of the program raised immediate concerns. While future implementations would recoup much of the time spent in initial preparation of the program, the nine hours of professional time used in training, plus time for material distribution and prize solicitation, needed to be balanced against the mere 14 participants who were exposed to the
program. The author could have used the same amount of time to provide more than 35 sessions of professionally-run small group intensive reading remediation. However, given that this was the first year of implementation, the author and school stake-holders maintained a sense of guarded optimism that we could make better efforts in the future to involve more parents.

Absence of Positive Effects

Unfortunately, the results of formal program evaluation were far from supportive. Parent surveys suggested that of the 14 initial participators, only two families actually implemented the program. That means the program only served about one percent of the invited families. It is the responsibility of human services providers to develop interventions that consumers will actually use. The author had designed the program to be easy and efficient for families to use. Unfortunately, fewer than one-sixth of the families who participated in the initial training found it to be “user-friendly” enough for practicable application. The program was not a good match for the people it was intended to serve, or else a higher percentage of those who were trained in the intervention would have used it. Furthermore, assessment of reading skills showed no evidence that participating in training or even implementing the program had a positive impact on child reading skills.

Some simple summative program evaluation activities had revealed that what was expected to be a very promising and exciting program was simply not an efficient or effective use of professional time. The professional time and resources of a service provider are precious. It is not acceptable to spend time on projects with such a low payoff for consumers.

Possible Negative Effects

It is clear from the results that the program was a poor use of professional time. But was it even worse than that? It would be easy to say that this program had “no impact” on children or their families. In reality, the likelihood of any program having no impact is incredibly low. When one acts, there are consequences. When an evaluation study suggests “no impact”, one should consider each of the following non-exclusive possibilities: (a) there was an unidentified substantial positive impact, (b) there was a positive impact too insubstantial to be detected, and (c) there was negative impact.

In the current case study, there simply were not enough participants who implemented the program for it to have had a substantial positive impact relative to the resources devoted. An unsubstantial positive impact is, by nature, difficult to detect, but potentially important to consider. The two families who did implement the intervention gave positive reviews. Though no evidence of improved reading skills was identified, there may have been a positive impact on child attitude toward reading or family-school cohesion. Furthermore, these students did not
appear to suffer a significant loss of reading skills, suggesting possible protection from summer learning loss. There may have been some mild positive effects for these two families, but a possible positive impact for less than one percent of invited families did not balance well against the resources devoted to the program.

The evaluation methods used here did not specifically search for negative impact. However, when little-to-no positive benefit was identified, it became incumbent upon the evaluator to question whether the strongest impact the program had may actually have been negative. This presents a valuable opportunity for human services students (as well as practitioners) to reflect upon the ways in which well-intentioned programs can yield negative effects. What are some possible areas of negative impact that this program had? Several suggestions follow, but this is not a comprehensive list:

- Feelings of guilt or incompetence on the part of parents who were unable to attend the training
- Feelings of guilt or incompetence on the part of parents who attended training but did not implement the intervention. A few surveys did reveal regret at not being able to follow-through with the program.
- Costs to parents who attended training (e.g. time, cost of travel to the session, cost of a sitter)
- Any family discord caused by children resisting the intervention or parents trying to fit it into a busy schedule. A few parent surveys did suggest that children resisted the activity as being boring.

None of these negative effects are automatically problematic enough to cancel a program that also showed substantial benefit for clients. For example, virtually any program might lead to negative feelings among potential consumers who would like to access it but are unable to. This is acceptable when a program has a positive impact for those it serves, and should lead to efforts to expand the program and make it more accessible. But when a program does not show evidence of benefit, even mild negative effects must be considered significant.

The evaluation results were not promising and suggest that it is inappropriate to simply apply the intervention component of a heavily monitored successful program and assume that positive outcomes will be obtained without similar monitoring procedures. When adapting a researcher-supported program for use by a resource-strapped agency, program evaluation is critical.

**Future Directions**

While the results of the evaluation were disappointing, positive efforts are underway to modify the program. Using frequent progress monitoring, such as has been done by previous researchers (Hindin & Paratore, 2007; Rasinski & Stevenson, 2005), would likely improve results, but would be inconsistent with the goal of developing a program that agencies with limited resources can run independent of researcher
support. The evaluation results do, however, suggest some potential modifications that would be consistent with this goal. For example, the fact that only about six percent of the invited families even participated in training suggests that finding the time to attend a 60-minute training session is prohibitively burdensome. This finding led the author to consider whether extensive training is really necessary for the type of intervention being used. Upon reflection, it is clear that it may not be, as laypersons in the school district are regularly taught to use the intervention with much less instruction. Hindin and Paratore (2007) appear to have obtained successful outcomes for parents using an RR intervention at home with substantially less time spent training.

While only a handful of surveys were returned, the data provided some insights for future directions. Some parents noted that their children found the repetitious nature of the intervention to be tedious. While the repeated readings intervention has been found to be effective during the academic year, the children in this study appeared to find it unacceptable for summer use. The raffle did not appear to be a powerful incentive, but some parents reported that regular rewards at home would enhance child willingness to participate. Some parents noted that they had trouble remembering to implement the intervention. Finally, some parents noted that the free reading passages that were sent home were just not a good match for their child.

The author is currently developing a revised program with modifications based on the evaluation results. Instead of training sessions, written instructions will be distributed to all families. Although there is an obvious concern that this will exclude parents with limited English reading skills, those families were not being served by the previous program anyway. If the program is generally successful, then future efforts can focus on including parents with limited reading skills. Instead of repeated readings, an alternate intervention was identified that also has strong research support for parent use, but may feel less tedious to children on summer break. Instead of sending home free reading passages, the author will provide details about the local library, emphasizing the fact that it is possible to get enough reading materials to implement the program for the entire summer with only three or four trips to the library. Allowing children to choose their own reading material might enhance the interest level and willingness to participate. Instead of soliciting raffle prizes from the community, families will be directed to local summer programs that award free books to children for reading at home. Finally, the materials will include a simple reward chart with a list of low- and no-cost reinforcers, and strongly encourage parents to reward themselves and their children for implementing the intervention.

The evaluation data provided valuable insights about how to reduce unintended negative impact on consumers. By reducing the demands on parents in terms of attending training sessions, the author addresses two of the key areas of potential negative impact (cost of attending training sessions and negative feelings for being unable to attend
training sessions). Another area of negative impact (family discord) is addressed by using an alternative intervention and encouraging parents to reward themselves and their children for implementation.

Surprisingly, several of the modifications designed to improve usability and reduce negative impact also substantially increase the time- and cost-effectiveness of the program. The elimination of lengthy training sessions, material-packets, and the time required to solicit raffle prizes, yields a program that is extremely quick and simple to implement. The modified version only requires preparation and distribution of a 2-page double-sided letter (introduction, intervention instructions, reward chart, and information for local free book programs) once per academic year.

Ultimately, when it is time to evaluate the effectiveness of the new program, the author will be looking at a different cost-benefit balance. Because the new program is so easy and inexpensive to operate, key stakeholders can accept a smaller degree of benefit as evidence that the program is successful. Even a small benefit for a small number of participants would be worth the time and costs of distributing a two-page letter once a year.

**Conclusion**

This article reviews a case evaluation of a program that was fully anticipated to be effective based on an examination of empirical literature, as well as the combined experience of the program developer, agency staff, and faculty reviewers. There was a high degree of optimism prior to implementation and even following low numbers of initial participation. It was only the formal program evaluation data that revealed the significant inadequacies of the program. In the absence of a formal evaluation, it is likely that the program would have been assumed to be successful and implemented indefinitely with increasing efforts to involve more and more families. This would have been a poor use of professional time and material resources. Any unintended negative consequences for families would not have been balanced out by positive effects. A relatively simple program evaluation design allowed for a more accurate understanding of program impact and the ultimate redirection of important resources away from an ineffective activity.

Excitement and optimism are important for the development of innovative human services programs. If human services professionals are afraid to try new things, the field will stagnate and consumers will suffer. Planned program evaluation allows service providers to remain hopeful and energetic in pursuing new ideas, while protecting agencies and consumers from ineffective programs.

**References**


Book Review

Theory, Practice, and Trends in Human Services: An Introduction
by Ed Neukrug

Kathleen Levingston
Old Dominion University

The fifth edition of Neukrug’s textbook takes a fresh look at the field of human services and contains many up-to-date revisions to an already excellent survey text. As a colleague of Dr. Neukrug, my critical concern for the previous edition was the apparent bias for the counseling profession that flowed throughout the previous text. Fortunately, the new edition provides a greater focus on the work of human service professionals and includes substantial changes to highlight the profession as a distinct practice in the mental health field. Since the field of human services is still relatively new, this distinction is critical to solidify the practice of human services and to create greater recognition and understanding by local, state, and national entities.

In the Preface, Neukrug concisely describes the various updates and pedagogical aids that are included in the fifth edition. Many of the chapter titles remain the same, yet every chapter contains revised material that is consistent with the latest changes in the field. Chapters 1 and 2 continue to provide a framework for the profession and include updated information on the characteristics of effective human service professionals as well as a thorough description of the new credential for professionals, the Human Services-Board Certified Practitioner (HS-BCP). Neukrug clearly articulates the benefits of this credential for students to gain professional identity as well for the field to further solidify professional standards in education, practice, and ethical behavior. He continues to highlight the importance of the National Organization for Human Services (NOHS) and the Council for Standards in Human Service Education (CSHSE). Readers will see a major reorganization of Chapter 3 as Neukrug breaks down the theoretical approaches into four major categories: psychodynamic, existential-humanistic, cognitive-behavioral, and post-modern. This reorganization provides greater flow and understanding for beginning professionals who will not be required to conduct in-depth therapy but need a framework for practice. In Chapter 4, the skills and stages of the relationship are reviewed, and the section on case management contains updated information on the Diagnostic Statistical Manual as well as the categories of psychotropic drugs that are being prescribed in the mental health field. Additionally, many human service organizations are requiring greater professional documentation, and the text contains an excellent overview of how to write S.O.A.P. case notes (Table 4.1). Chapter 5 explains the developmental process and contains an additional section on postmodernism and social construction.
in understanding personality development. To explain these concepts, the
section on “Color Therapy” encourages readers to critically examine
reality from the eyes of a postmodern social constructionist helper.
Revisions to Chapter 6 include additional information about Tuckman’s
stages of group work and a section on administrative and counseling
supervision. While Chapters 9 and 10 explore research, evaluation,
assessment and future trends, Chapter 9 provides a bit more focus on the
importance of needs assessments in human service work, and Chapter 10
includes additional information about crisis, disaster, and trauma training.

The most significant change to the fifth edition is the expansion of
the focus on advocacy, social justice, and multicultural issues. In previous
editions, only one chapter was devoted to this topic, but in the new edition,
this information has been expanded into two chapters. Keeping consistent
with changes in the field, Neukrug highlights that professionals are
increasingly being called upon to effectively work with a multitude of
clients, and the need for advocacy continues to rise as funds are cut for
human service initiatives. NOHS and human service professionals are
working extremely hard to have a voice in local, regional, and national
advocacy efforts, so this expansion in the new edition demonstrates the
increased awareness of having culturally competent professionals who
understand how to work and advocate for diverse individuals. In Chapter
7, readers will find an overview of cultural diversity and the importance of
social justice work. The text highlights the importance of having culturally
competent professionals and gives a multitude of examples of how to
advocate “on behalf” or “with” clients, a community, or the general
public. Chapter 8 includes models for the development of cultural
competence and gives practical guidelines for working with a wide variety
of diverse clients. To make room for the new chapter, Neukrug deleted
the chapter on the “World of Work,” but he included some of that information
in the Afterword of the text. Readers can review trends in jobs and
earnings; examine how to write a good resume and create a portfolio; and
identify key aspects for finding a job and applying for graduate programs.

Consistent with previous editions, Neukrug offers an “Ethical,
Professional, and Legal Issues” section and experiential activities at the
end of every chapter. In addition, the “Ethical and Professional Vignettes”
provide students the opportunity to critically examine and apply the ethical
standards. Testimonials, references to websites, tables, graphs, and
personal vignettes continue to bring the material to life for the reader. For
the instructor, Neukrug continues to provide a sample syllabus, power
point slides, and a test bank that can assist in course development. An
additional value of this textbook is that the text broadly addresses each of
the curriculum standards of the Council for Standards in Human Service
Education. An accreditation cross-reference is included which highlights
each standard and the corresponding chapters that address the standard.
This is extremely helpful for instructors interested in program
accreditation because instructors can quickly identify the areas that are
covered when utilizing this textbook.
Some possible limitations to consider when utilizing this textbook include the amount of material for the various topics and the distinction between human services and other related fields. Adequately balancing content in an introductory textbook can be overwhelming at best, particularly for a field that boasts of being a “generalist” practice. Neukrug does a nice job of providing the framework for a wide variety of areas, but coverage of curriculum areas of informational management and administrative aspects of service delivery systems are minimal in this text. In addition, while Neukrug puts a concerted effort into removing any biased language, the text still contains some “counseling” language which can be confusing to students who are trying to differentiate between human services and other mental health professions. Overall, this is an excellent introductory text to the human services field that clearly addresses the gaps from previous editions.
Book Review

Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us. 
New York: Riverhead Books, 2009
by Daniel H. Pink

Tara Tull
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Drive, a New York Times bestseller by Daniel H. Pink, is a page-turner as easy to read as a Dan Brown novel. Nonetheless, its purpose is both serious and practical: the application of scholarly research on human motivation to workplace practices. Understanding motivation is one of the keys to creating a successful educational environment for students: What can educators—like me—learn from the research findings about how to design our classroom environments and effect beneficial interactions with students? Similarly, the ability to motivate people is a vital skill for human service practitioners in supporting change in clients dealing with life problems or behavioral health issues. How can the research inform the ways in which we organize and lead human service agencies?

Like Malcolm Gladwell (Blink, The Tipping Point), Pink pulls together research findings from diverse fields to support a new way of understanding an issue or concept. Pink’s theoretical framework is founded on the work of—among others—Edward Deci, a professor of psychology at Rochester University known for his work on intrinsic motivation and basic psychological needs, and Richard Ryan, also on the faculty at Rochester, whose research focuses on the effects of social contexts on human motivation, personality development, and wellbeing. Pink describes three basic drives that influence human behavior: first, human biology—such things as the need for oxygen, food, and water; second, systems of external rewards and/or punishments for specific behaviors; and third, the "innate need to learn and create new things" or intrinsic motivation. This third drive is the focus of the book.

Historically, business practices, as well as educational practices and certain treatment modalities, have utilized systems of reward and punishment in order to motivate individuals. Pink shows that while there are situations when the use of rewards and/or punishment can be effective in motivating individuals, those situations are quite specific and very limited. In fact, the research reveals that the carrot-and-stick approach actually decreases intrinsic motivation; Pink warns that these techniques should therefore be applied sparingly, with care and planning. Instead, Pink proposes using the three elements of intrinsic motivation—autonomy, mastery, and purpose—to create environments where intrinsic motivation can thrive, a recommendation that would better serve us, I would suggest, in creative spaces such as the workplace, the classroom, and perhaps the human service agency.
Simply put, autonomy is the human desire to "act with choice" and have some control over our environment; mastery is the desire to get better and better at something, in other words, the process of engaging in a task simply for the joy of doing the task well; and purpose is living by our core values and being invested in something greater than ourselves. Each of these elements warrants a full chapter in the book. Ultimately, Pink captures the essence of his book when he writes, "The science shows that the secret to high performance isn't our biological drive or our reward-and-punishment drive, but our third drive—our deep-seated desire to direct our own lives, to extend and expand our abilities, and to live a life of purpose" (p. 145). While the elements of this paradigm of human motivation are not new, the author consolidates and presents the research in a way that illuminates how some basic misconceptions about what motivates human beings have held sway over business and educational practices for too long.

The field of human services provides fertile ground for developing autonomy, mastery and purpose. As an educator in the field of human services, I often hear from students (many of them veterans of the workforce returning to college) that they considered other majors, but decided that finding meaning in their career was more important than earning a high salary. Students choose human services because they want to help others and give back to their communities. Such people bring passion and commitment to making changes at an individual or social level because they know that filling their heart is more important than filling their pocket. Since purpose is the heart and soul of what we do and what we teach, embracing intrinsic motivation as the drive around which to focus our work, both in the classroom and in the field, is a natural extension of our commitment to the values and philosophy that undergird the field of human services. Drive can serve as a guidepost along the journey to understanding intrinsic motivation and its impact on certain human behaviors.

Pink’s book provides a useful toolkit for supporting the human desire for autonomy, mastery, and purpose, and should be a catalyst for meaningful debate among colleagues and students about what really motivates human beings and how we can use this knowledge to improve our classrooms, our human service agencies, and our communities.
Guidelines for Authors

The Journal of Human Services (JHS) is a national refereed journal. Manuscripts judged by the editors to fall within the range of interest of the journal will be submitted to reviewers without the names and identifying information of the authors. The principal audiences of JHS are human service faculty members, administrators, practitioners, and undergraduate and graduate students. Sample areas of interest include teaching methods, models of internships, faculty development, career paths of graduates, credentialing, accreditation, models of undergraduate and graduate study, clinical issues in human service treatment, and supervision of human service practitioners.

JHS publishes three types of submissions: 1) articles, 2) brief notes, and 3) critical reviews of instructional materials and scholarly books of interest to human service educators.

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2. Brief Notes. Submissions appropriate for this format include brief reports of research projects or program innovations. Manuscripts should not exceed four (4) 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.

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2. Manuscripts should be typed in 12-point type with margins of at least one inch on all four sides. All materials should be double spaced including references, all lines of tables, and extensive quotations.

3. All material should conform to the style of the sixth 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 whenever 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 in electronic format and must be in black and white with a minimum of gray shading. Use of submitted figures or a re-rendering of the figures for clarity is at the discretion of the editors.

7. Two (2) copies of the manuscript must be electronically submitted (Microsoft Word or text file versions only). The first version should include, on a separate page, the title of the article, the names of the authors, their professional titles, and their institutional affiliations. The second version must be free of any identifying information. Articles’ 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. Please include doi numbers when relevant.

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.

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Send two (2) electronic Microsoft Word or text file versions of the manuscript, one with and one without identifying information, as well as inquiries concerning the publication via e-mail to:

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