LIBRARY
Michigan State
University

PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.

DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE
[illegible]		

MSU Is An Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution
c:\circ\datedue.pm3-p.1

PATHS TO POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT: EVALUATION OF A COMPREHENSIVE MODEL AND AN INTERVENTION WITH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

By

Holly Lizotte Angelique

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology

1997

ABSTRACT

PATHS TO POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT: EVALUATION OF A COMPREHENSIVE MODEL AND AN INTERVENTION WITH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

By

Holly Lizotte Angelique

Two aims of this research were to examine the effects of an intervention, with respect to the development of political empowerment, and to develop and empirically test a model of political empowerment. Undergraduates were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (intervention/control) and surveyed before and after the intervention (or the equivalent two semester interim).

ANCOVA analyses revealed that individuals who participated in the empowering intervention (N=54) had increased feelings of political commitment ($F=4.81$, $p<.05$) and a decreased sense of political efficacy ($F=5.35$, $p<.05$) compared to individuals randomly assigned (N=52) to a control group.

A model of political empowerment was developed, including the latent constructs Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism, as well as Condition (intervention/control group membership). Two

competing models of hypothesized relationships among these latent variables were compared, using LISREL 8. Goodness of fit indices revealed that a nested model fit the data better than the complex model. These results suggest that upon intervention termination, students who participated in the intervention reported less political competence and more political activism than students in the control group. These results also suggest direct paths from Political Awareness at Time 1 to Political Awareness at Time 2. Political Competence at Time 1 predicted Political Competence at Time 2. Also, a trend was noted that Political Competence at Time 1 negatively predicted a change in Political Awareness at Time 2. Political Activism at Time 1 predicted Political Activism at Time 2, as well as Political Awareness at Time 2.

Based upon these findings, a developmental model of political empowerment was hypothesized. When a sense of political activism and commitment can be sparked in university settings, it may set the stage for the continued development of political empowerment.

Limitations of this study were discussed and suggestions for future research were presented. Overall, the goals of this research were to advance theory

development, guide research and identify ways to promote political empowerment in university students.

Thank you, Aja Binette, for being my inspiration.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Personally and professionally I have many people to thank for help and guidance in completing this project. My daughter, Aja Binette, has spent her entire life supporting me and encouraging me to complete my doctoral degree. Without the emotional backing of my family, including my mother, father, sister, grandmother, aunts, and good friends, I may never have pursued or succeeded in my academic endeavors.

I want to thank members of my dissertation support group, including Rebecca Campbell, Susan Englund, Manuela Kress, Juliette Mackin, and Melody Scofield for their continued support and encouragement throughout the dissertation process. I want to thank David Lounsbury and Nancy McCrohan for being my extended support network. I want to thank students who helped in the data collection, including Tina Felsing and David Pasternak. I especially want to thank my dear friend, Kim Mizrahi, who was there to

hold my hand whenever I needed her.

I want to thank my many mentors. At California State University, Long Beach, David Dowell introduced me to Community Psychology, taught me to believe in myself, and modeled unyielding integrity. Patricia Rozee opened up the world of feminism in academia.

At Michigan State University, my dissertation committee provided continued support and dedication. I would especially like to thank Thomas Reischl for taking on the role of chair upon the sabbatical leave of William Davidson, II. Each was a valuable contributor to this project. I would also like to thank Ellen Strommen and Bob Caldwell for their helpful comments and encouragement. A special thanks goes to Deborah Bybee for her help with data analysis.

I would also like to thank the entire staff of the Adolescent Diversion Project for allowing me to conduct research on the project. I hope that I was relatively unintrusive. I also want to acknowledge the hard work of Suzy Pavick and Vicki Alexander in helping me complete this project from out-of-state. Finally, I would like to thank all the students who participated in this research for making this project possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES xiii

LIST OF FIGURES xv

INTRODUCTION 1

CHAPTER 1
AN OVERVIEW OF EMPOWERMENT 3
Empowerment Theory 4
Empowerment Terminology 6
Summary of Conceptions of Empowerment 8
Models of Empowerment 9
Intrapersonal, Interactional, and Behavioral Components 9
Praxis Versus Outcome Orientation 10
Developmental Perspective 12
Antecedents 13
Research on Empowerment 15
Cross Sectional Research 15
The Many Concepts of Empowerment 16
Retrospective and Longitudinal Research 18
A Retrospective Study 19
The Era of Entry 19
The Era of Advancement 20
The Era of Incorporation 21
The Era of Commitment 22
Integrating Keiffer's Study With Characteristics of Empowerment 23
Strengths and Limitations of Keiffer's Study 23
A Longitudinal Study 25
Passive-Acceptance 26
Revelation 26
Embeddedness-Emanation 27
Synthesis 27

Active Commitment 27
Summary Of Overlapping Themes 28
Toward an Integrated Model of Political Empowerment 29
Political Awareness 31
Political Competence 32
Political Activism 33
Hypothesized Relations Among Constructs ...35
Characteristics of Empowering Environments 36
Empowering Environments 36
The Small Group 38
Common Belief System 39
Knowledge and Skill Acquisition 39
Resources 40
Leadership 41
Experience 41
The University as an Empowering Setting ...42
Summary and Conclusion 43
Rationale and Goals of the Current Study 44
This Study 47
Specification of Independent and Dependent Variables 48
Specific Independent Variable 48
Specific Dependent Variables 49
Research Hypotheses 49
Testing Intervention Effects 49
Testing the Empowerment Model 50

CHAPTER 2
METHOD 53
Setting 53
Context of Setting 54
Participants 55
Research Participants 55
Recruiting and Selecting Participants 56
Demographics 57
Research Design 60
Measures 60
System Blame 61
Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems 62
Creative Solutions 65
Political Efficacy 66
Political Identity 67
Political Action 69

Political Commitment 71
Community Involvement 71
Social Service Career Goal 73
Demographics 74
Procedure 75
Procedure: Administering the Pretest 75
Assignment 76
The Intervention 77
Common Belief 77
Small Group Setting 78
The Leaders/Mentors 79
Knowledge and Skills Building 80
Format of Classroom Training 80
Knowledge and Skills: Behavior Modification 81
Knowledge and Skills: Obtaining Resources 83
Knowledge and Skills: Social Problems of Adolescents 84
Summary of Classroom Education 85
Experiential Component 86
Post Test: Intervention Group 88
Post Test: Control Group 89
Model Development 90
Panel Designs 90
Analyzing Experimental, Cross Lagged, Panel Data 91
A Conceptual Overview of SEM and Strategy for Analysis 93
The Measurement Model 94
Testing the Measurement Model 97
The Structural Models 100
Testing the General Structural Equation Model 103
The Goal Of Parsimony 106
CHAPTER 3
RESULTS 108
Intervention Effects 109
Intervention Effects on Political Awareness ...111
Intervention Effects on Political Competence 114
Intervention Effects on Political Activism 116
Summary of ANCOVA Analyses 120
Testing Models of Political Empowerment 121

Consistency of Measures Across Time 122
Consistency of Measures Across Groups 124
Testing the Structural Equation Model 124
Identifying an Indicator of Political Awareness 128
Identifying an Indicator of Political Competence 129
Identifying an Indicator of Political Activism 130
Summary of Revised Latent Constructs 133
Testing Structural Models of Political Empowerment 133
Testing the Full Latent Model of Political Empowerment 134
Summary of Results of Full Latent Structural Model 138
Testing a Nested Model of Political Empowerment 141
Summary of Results of Nested Structural Model 142
A Search for Greater Parsimony 144
Comparison of the Full and Nested Models 145
Summary of Model Testing 147

CHAPTER 4
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS 149
Summary of Major Findings 149
Major Findings from the ANCOVA Analyses 149
Major Findings from the LISREL Analyses 151
Conceptual Contributions of This Study to the Literature 153
Critique of Zimmerman's Nomological Network of Empowerment 154
A Note About Political Competence and Efficacy 155
Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Temporary State 155
Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Permanent Trait 157
Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Developmental Transition 160
Critique of Keiffer's Model of Political Empowerment 162
Hypothesized Developmental Process of

Political Empowerment 164
Conceptual Limitations of This Study 167
Conceptual Limitations of Political Commitment 167
Individual Differences and Moral Development ..169
Methodological Limitations of This Study 172
Implications for Future Research 176
Conclusion 180

APPENDIX A
POWER ANALYSIS 182

APPENDIX B
MSU ADOLESCENT TRAINING MANUAL: PSY 371/372 184

LIST OF REFERENCES 251

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Models of Empowerment 14
Table 2. Demographic Characteristics 59
Table 3. Experimental Design with Sample Sizes Reported 60
Table 4. Psychometric Properties of System Blame Scale 63
Table 5. Psychometric Properties of Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems Scale 64
Table 6. Psychometric Properties of Creative Solutions Scale 66
Table 7. Psychometric Properties of Political Efficacy Scale 68
Table 8. Psychometric Properties of Political Identity Scale 70
Table 9. Psychometric Properties of Political Action Scale 70
Table 10. Psychometric Properties of Political Commitment Scale 72
Table 11. Psychometric Properties of Community Involvement Scale 73
Table 12. Psychometric Properties of Social Service Career Goal Scale 74
Table 13. Means and Standard deviations for Subscales of Political Empowerment at Pretest and Posttest, by Condition 110
Table 14. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Awareness at Time 1 111
Table 15. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Awareness at Time 2 112
Table 16. Analysis of Covariance for Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems 113
Table 17. Analysis of Covariance for System Blame 113
Table 18. Analysis of Covariance for Creative Solutions 114

Table 19. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Competence at Time 1 114
Table 20. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Competence at Time 2 115
Table 21. Analysis of Covariance for Political Identity 116
Table 22. Analysis of Covariance for Political Efficacy 116
Table 23. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Activism at Time 1 117
Table 24. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Activism at Time 2 117
Table 25. Analysis of Covariance for Political Commitment 118
Table 26. Analysis of Covariance for Political Action 119
Table 27. Analysis of Covariance for Community Involvement 119
Table 28. Analysis of Covariance for Social Service Career Goal 119
Table 29. Scale Correlations for System Blame, Creative Solutions, Changes Attitudes Toward Social Problems, Political Identity, Political Efficacy, Political Action, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Career Goal Scales at Time 1 and Time 2 ...125
Table 30. Scale Correlations for System Blame, Creative Solutions, Changes Attitudes Toward Social Problems, Political Identity, Political Efficacy, Political Action, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Career Goal Scales at Time 2, by Group 126
Table 31. Modification Indices for Each Hypothesized Path and Power to Identify Whether Each Particular Path Coefficient is Significant 135
Table 32. Correlation Matrix for Political Awareness, Political Competence, Political Activism, and Condition at Time 1 and Time 2 137
Table 33. Fit Indices for Competing Models of Political Empowerment 145

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Nomological Network for Political Empowerment 30
Figure 2. Theoretical Relationships Among Constructs of Political Empowerment 37
Figure 3. Model of Political Empowerment Over Time 51
Figure 4. Measurement Model for Political Empowerment ...95
Figure 5. Full Model of Political Empowerment With Observed and Latent Constructs 101
Figure 6. Model of Political Empowerment With Condition Effects and Measurement Error 104
Figure 7. Empirical Evaluation of the Comprehensive Model of Political Empowerment 139
Figure 8. Empirical Evaluation of the Nested Model of Political Empowerment 143
Figure 9. Hypothesized Developmental Model of Political Empowerment 166

INTRODUCTION

College students differ in their development of political empowerment. While some individuals become committed to act for social change, others remain politically alienated. Some research has addressed the process of this development (Keiffer, 1984; Shields, 1992; Yeich, 1992), yet little is known about ways to promote the development of political empowerment. Because the political empowerment of individuals has been deemed beneficial to both individuals and society (Rappaport, 1977; 1981; 1987; Zimmerman, 1990a; 1995) it is important to empirically examine conceptualizations of political empowerment and consider the mechanisms by which empowerment can be fostered.

The dual purposes of this study are to articulate a model of political empowerment that is both theoretically and empirically sound, and to evaluate the effects of an intervention on a sample of undergraduates. Four

substantive areas are covered. First, an overview of empowerment as a response to political alienation is provided. Second, models of empowerment as presented in current literature, with specific attention to conceptual limitations, are reviewed. Third, a critical discussion of the current research on empowerment is provided. Finally, an experimental study that addressed some of the theoretical and methodological limitations of existing research is presented. A sample of undergraduates were randomly assigned to participate in an empowering intervention or placed on a waiting list. All participants were surveyed before and after the intervention was offered. Results of this study will be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention and to examine and articulate a model of political empowerment.

Chapter 1

AN OVERVIEW OF EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment is a concept that has emerged within a number of fields within the social sciences (e.g., Asch, 1986; Bricker-Jenkins & Hooyman, 1986; Fagan, 1979; Freire, 1973; Rappaport, 1981; Rose & Black, 1985; Soloman, 1976; Stensrud & Stensrud, 1982). While many conceptualizations of empowerment have emerged, most researchers agree that it involves transforming from a sense of powerlessness to a feeling of powerfulness. It is a multilevel construct, suggesting the consideration of individuals in social contexts (Rappaport, 1987). To foster the development of empowerment, opportunities for people to gain control over their lives and communities must be provided or created (Rappaport, 1981).

In general terms, empowerment appears to include a critical awareness of one's sociopolitical environment (Freire, 1970; Keiffer, 1984; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995;

Zimmerman, 1995), and an increased sense of competence (Fawcett, Paine-Andrews, Francisco, Schulz, Richter, Lewis, Williams, Harris, Berkley, Fisher & Lopez, 1995). This perceived competence includes efficacy and personal control (Zimmerman, 1995), personal strengths (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995), and individual motivation (Maton & Salem, 1995). In addition, empowerment appears to be rooted in social action (Zimmerman, 1995). Participation in one's community (Rappaport, 1981) along with other forms of collective action (Maton & Salem, 1995; Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995) characterize a behavioral component of the empowerment process. In sum, empowerment has been conceptualized to include awareness, competence, and action.

Empowerment Theory

Empowerment theory unites individual well being with the larger sociopolitical environment (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). There appear to be two different, but complementary, views of empowerment theory within the field of community psychology. According to Perkins and Zimmerman (1995), it is important to differentiate between processes and outcomes of empowerment in order to define empowerment theory clearly. Accordingly, process has been defined in terms of

participation in empowering settings, while outcomes may include increased levels of perceived competence (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). In particular, outcomes have been defined in terms of measurement, such as measuring the effects of interventions designed to promote empowerment (Zimmerman, 1995). From this conceptualization, participation in empowering activities (i.e., empowerment process) leads to increased levels of measurable constructs of empowerment, such as competence (i.e., empowerment outcome).

Another perspective considers process and outcome variables to be one and the same. From this view, participation may lead to increased competence, which would in turn lead to increased participation. This theoretical position has been termed "dynamic praxis" by Keiffer (1984), indicating a dynamic exchange of action and reflection and altered action. Other researchers have also indicated the reciprocal and dialectical nature of empowerment, as opposed to a process/outcome orientation (Freire, 1970; Spreer & Hughey, 1995). Whether empowerment develops by way of praxis or process/outcome (or both) may be answered with forthcoming empirical research.

Empowerment Terminology

Perhaps because the notion of empowerment is appealing across disciplines, it has become a very popular term. Consequently, the meaning of empowerment has remained ambiguous and vague. This ambiguity has potentially obstructed the scientific inquiry and development of empowerment theory and research (Perkins, 1995). For the sake of clarity, it is imperative that researchers be specific in their terminology when considering the concept of empowerment.

Rappaport (1981), along with Zimmerman (1990a; 1995) has differentiated between individual and psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment refers to empowerment at an individual level of analysis, but includes critical awareness, personal control and an active orientation towards one's sociopolitical environment. Rather than focusing on individuals changing to conform to an existing system which may be oppressive, psychological empowerment describes the process of changing individuals while also questioning the legitimacy of existing societal structures (Wallerstein, 1988; Yeich, 1992). Psychological empowerment, therefore, includes the process of mobilizing

individuals and groups to create structural change (Yeich, 1992). In other words, this definition includes an element of system blame as opposed to person blame. While Weight Watchers is an example of an individual empowerment program (changing individuals to fit a societal expectation), homeless persons unions provide opportunities for psychological empowerment (empowerment through mobilization for social change). This terminology is somewhat confusing in that "psychological" constructs imply an individual orientation. For the sake of clarity, Gutierrez and Ortega (1991) have provided a useful typology. This typology includes three levels of empowerment including 1) Personal Empowerment; 2) Interpersonal Empowerment; and 3) Political Empowerment.

At a "personal level" empowerment is focused on ways to develop feelings of personal power and self efficacy (Fagan, 1979; Freire, 1973; Gutierrez, 1987; Gutierrez & Ortega, 1991; Keiffer, 1984). At an "interpersonal level", the notion of empowerment emphasizes the development of different skills. This type of empowerment can include helping people to help others and learning how to influence the political process (Beck, 1983; Gutierrez & Ortega, 1991;

Mathis & Richan, 1986). At another conceptual level, "political empowerment" stresses the goals of social action and social change. Political empowerment incorporates both personal and interpersonal levels of empowerment. This level includes the intent to transfer power between groups of society, while maintaining that individual change is important (Fagan, 1979; Gutierrez & Ortega, 1991; Kahn & Bender, 1985; Longres & McLeod, 1980; O'Connell, 1978).

To conclude, a conception of political empowerment that includes the development of personal power and efficacy, the acquisition of skills, and an emphasis on social action and social change is consistent with the concept of psychological empowerment and provides a useful term for theory development and research. To ensure clarity, this paper will use the term Political Empowerment to denote the political nature of psychological empowerment.

Summary of Conceptions of Empowerment

Conceptions of empowerment have included notions of awareness, competence, and action. Empowerment may be a process that leads to specific outcomes, may develop by a dynamic process of action and reflection, or may include both types of processes. Because psychological empowerment

includes a critical awareness of one's sociopolitical environment, as well as an element of system blame, the term Political Empowerment more accurately reflects the construct of interest. To further understand the concept and process of empowerment, a literature review focusing on proposed models and research in this area follows.

Models of Empowerment

One purpose of this research is to develop a model of political empowerment that is conceptually and empirically sound. Recently, researchers have begun to hypothesize and test models of empowerment specific to particular areas of research. The following section will provide an overview of models of empowerment that fit a political or structural change definition of the term. The goal is to integrate overlapping themes and identify constructs of political empowerment that are overlooked in the current literature. This discussion, along with a critique of empowerment research, will aid the development of a unified model of political empowerment,that will be empirically examined.

Intrapersonal, Interactional, and Behavioral Components

While Zimmerman (1995) stated that generic models of empowerment may not be as useful as models developed for

specific purposes, he nonetheless proposed a general model of empowerment that may demonstrate utility across many settings. This theoretical model of "psychological' empowerment includes three main domains, including an intrapersonal component, an interactional component, and a behavioral component. The intrapersonal component incorporates notions of personal competence, or "how people think about themselves" (p.588), including perceived control, self-efficacy, motivational control, and perceived competence. The interactional component refers to the awareness people have of community and sociopolitical issues. This component includes critical awareness, understanding causal agents, skill development, skill transfer across life domains, and resource mobilization. The behavioral component focuses on the actions that enhance empowerment. According to Zimmerman (1995), these include community involvement, organizational participation and coping behaviors. While theoretically appealing, this model requires empirical support.

Praxis Versus Outcome Orientation

Zimmerman (1995) implied that the interactional component develops before the behavioral component, claiming

that skills such as problem solving and leadership prepare individuals for action. However, Zimmerman failed to develop this argument, or refute the possibility of activism (behavioral component) increasing one's critical awareness and skill level (interactional component).

Contrary to Zimmerman's position, Keiffer (1984), along with Speer and Hughey (1995) have noted the reciprocal nature of the empowerment process. As noted earlier, Keiffer (1984) used the term "dynamic praxis" to describe the circular relationship of experience and reflection. Action and experience enhance learning, and the increased skills and changes in critical awareness associated with learning leads to different experiences. These dual perspectives may be flushed out with additional research.

While Keiffer (1984) described empowerment as a process, Speer and Hughey (1995) include both process and outcome variables in their multi-level empowerment schemata. By incorporating the notions of outcomes with praxis, this conception may bridge the gap between Zimmerman and Keiffer's theoretical orientations. At the individual level of empowerment, group membership, relationships, and the process of action/reflection were considered process

variables, while knowledge of power, emotional connectedness, and organizational participation were deemed outcome variables (Speer & Hughey, 1995). However, while Keiffer found empirical support for his hypotheses, Speer and Hughey's (1995) conceptualization was based solely on a theoretical argument.

Developmental Perspective

Some researchers have created models of empowerment based on a developmental perspective. Both Keiffer's (1984) model of citizen empowerment and Bargad and Hyde's (1991) model of women's empowerment posited a hierarchical progression from a period of little or no empowerment, through periods of increasing commitment toward acting on behalf of one's sociopolitical group. While the notion of empowerment as a developmental process has received empirical support (Bargad & Hyde, 1991; Keiffer, 1984), the linear model of development has been criticized for being inflexible with regard to different stages of development across different periods (Englund, 1996). For example, linear models do not allow for individuals to be increasingly active and committed to a cause without resolving ineffective leadership skills.

Antecedents

Other researchers have included antecedents in their models of empowerment. In Spreitzer's (1995) study of organizational empowerment, antecedents to empowerment included role ambiguity, access to information, access to resources, sociopolitical support, and organizational culture. McMillan, Florin, Stevenson, Kerman, & Mitchell (1995) considered perceived knowledge and skill development to be antecedents to empowerment at the individual level. Unfortunately, the hypothesized antecedents to political empowerment remain ambiguous. A clear understanding of these mechanisms may provide the necessary key to understanding the impetus of empowerment.

To highlight the similar and dissimilar themes across conceptualizations, Table 1 presents an overview of the current models of empowerment. Again, these models illustrate the overlapping themes related to awareness, competence, and activism. However, these conceptions are limited in that they are based primarily on theoretical grounds. Empirical support for these conceptions is essential.

Table 1. Models of Empowerment

AUTHORS	TYPE OF EMPOWERMENT	LATENT CONSTRUCTS	OBSERVED VARIABLES
Bargad & Hyde (1991)	Political/ Developmental (feminist)	-acceptance -revelation -embeddedness -synthesis -commitment	-lack awareness -awareness; identity -group membership -integrate identity -action
Keiffer (1984)	Citizen/ Developmental	-entry -advancement -incorporation -commitment	-awareness; identity -mentors; awareness -skills; identity -action
McMillan et al (1995)	Individual/ Community	-past -present -future	-knowledge; skills -competence -expectancies
Spreer & Hughey(1995)	Organization-al	-process -outcome	-praxis -connection; participation
Spreitzer (1995)	Organization-al	-interpersonal -behavioral	-competence; determination -innovation
Zimmerman (1995)	Psychological	-intrapersonal -interactional -behavioral	-efficacy; competence -awareness; skills -involvement; coping

Research on Empowerment

Research on the concept of empowerment has included both cross sectional and longitudinal exploration. While some research has focus primarily on the conceptions of researchers, others have relied on the narratives of those who have become empowered. These different orientations to research have led to some unrelated conceptualizations. Overall, however, the notion of empowerment has begun to blossom with the evolution of research.

Cross Sectional Research

In three studies, Zimmerman and Rappaport (1988) examined whether citizen participation was related to empowerment. Three components of empowerment were hypothesized to include personality (locus of control), cognitive (self and political efficacy), and motivational (incentive to control one's environment) variables. In two studies with college students and one study with community residents, individuals with the highest participation had the highest empowerment scores. Again in 1990, Zimmerman used structural equation modeling to analyze the data and found that involvement had a direct, positive effect on empowerment.

This study had both conceptual and methodological limitations. Methodologically, the study was cross-sectional. Because of the correlational design, cause and effect could not be established. Therefore, it is undeterminable whether participation led to empowerment or empowerment led to participation. Accordingly, very little about the process of empowerment was revealed.

Conceptually, the notion of empowerment was based on the authors' personal perceptions. Limiting the definition of empowerment to include only locus of control, efficacy, and motivation, other domains may have been overlooked, leading to an incomplete perception of empowerment. For example, Breton (1990; 1993) found empowerment to be related to the perceived capability of attaining goals, self-confidence, and self-esteem. In order to more accurately understand empowerment, overlapping themes must be identified.

One recurring theme in cross sectional research is that of action. In Zimmerman's (1986) study of college students and community residents participating in both liberal and conservative community organizations, significant differences in the sense of empowerment as a function of

both level of and extent of involvement and activism were found. In a study of 102 Mexican-American, male, United Farm Workers, Hoffman (1978) hypothesized that locus of control, self-esteem, and personal autonomy were components of empowerment. While no significant results were found between self-esteem, personal autonomy and empowerment, Hoffman did find that United Farm Workers with the highest involvement had the lowest levels of external locus of control.

The primary strength of this literature is that it has provided a foundation for the understanding of empowerment. For example, the relationship between empowerment and action has been established. However, due to the limitations of cross sectional research, the direction of these relationships remains a mystery. The conception of empowerment as a function of action may be accurate, yet incomplete. As such, other variables associated with empowerment remain ambiguous.

The Many Concepts of Empowerment

The many concepts linked with empowerment may highlight this ambiguity. Theoretical definitions and cross sectional research have included notions of locus of control, self and

political efficacy, motivation to control one's environment, activism, group consciousness and social identity, reduced self-blame, and personal responsibility for change. Additionally, models of empowerment have included ideas such as skill development, transfer of skills, resource mobilization, community involvement, organizational participation, coping behaviors, group membership, praxis, increasing commitment, leadership skills, role ambiguity, access to information, access to resources, and perceived knowledge. Perhaps research that focuses on political empowerment as a developmental process will help to weave these ideas together to form a more accurate picture.

Retrospective and Longitudinal Research

Given the limitations and ambiguity associated with conceptual arguments and cross sectional research, the process of becoming empowered remains obscure. To continue to shed light on the developmental process of empowerment, a few methodological strategies may be used. One way to study the development of political empowerment is to study the politically empowered. Another strategy is to study the developmental process of empowerment over time. Research from these perspectives will be discussed in the following

section.

A Retrospective Study

To obtain an understanding of the process of transforming from a powerlessness to empowerment, Keiffer (1984) relied on a series of ethnographic interviews (N=15) with grass roots activists. In documenting this transition, he identified four distinct and progressive phases of group involvement, including eras of "entry," "advancement," "incorporation," and "commitment." What follows is a summary of the process that Keiffer documented.

The Era of Entry

In all initial interviews, participants reported a former sense of political alienation and a lack of previous connections to any socio-political group. All reported that they did not envision a relationship with a socio-political groups until they felt a direct threat to themselves personally or to close relationships. Keiffer (1984) posited that individuals who do "enter" a socio-political group may differ from those who do not, due to a sense of integrity and connection to the community (Keiffer, 1984). The mechanisms by which individuals develop this sense of community and integrity was not explored by Keiffer. Some

researchers have posited that this community connection can be facilitated through the creation of empowering environments (Maton 1993b; Maton & Salem, 1995). Further investigation of these mechanisms may reveal ways to "spark" the required connection for political empowerment.

Within this era of entry, a particular episode of political action came to have a symbolic significance to the individual. Characteristics of this period also included the "de-mythification of power and the re-orienting of self in relation to authority" (Keiffer, 1984, p.20). In other words, this is a period of system blame and a change in the salience of one's various social identities.

The Era of Advancement

Three developmental traits of this era included "centrality of a mentoring relationship," the "enabling impact of supportive peer relationships within a collective organizational structure," and the "cultivation of a more critical understanding of social and political relations," (Keiffer, 1984, p.20). All participants noted the importance of an individual who acted as an activist mentor and took on such roles as friend, instructor, role model, ally, or pseudo-parent. These relationships were

particularly important for emotional support, encouragement, and instructional support.

The structure of a collective peer group appeared to be essential for developing political skills and providing a safe environment for problem solving, risk-taking, conflict resolution, and further articulation of beliefs. Along with providing a sense of power in numbers, the presence of an organization provided a place where like minded individuals could challenge each other and facilitate each other's growth as a competent participant.

Within and outside of this structure, individuals developed a more critical understanding of the interconnections of social, political and economic relations. This greater depth of understanding and critical analysis led to further involvement, thus strengthening one's relationship to the political group. In sum, political empowerment was facilitated by mentors and peers in a structured environment.

The Era of Incorporation

Upon successfully negotiating their involvement in a socio-political group, individuals advanced to an era of incorporation. Two themes emerged during this time.

Overall, one's skills, abilities, critical awareness and personal self-concept matured significantly. Also, during this phase, people were called upon to work through many identity conflicts. Further critical analysis may have led some into questioning the very dynamics of their current personal relationships outside the political group. At this point, a political identity developed. The group itself became incorporated into individuals' senses of themselves.

The Era of Commitment

This era was characterized by the integration of political beliefs and work into individuals' personal lives. During this time, personal relationships changed, political action increased, and some decided to make new career choices based upon their political affiliations. Mobilization and leadership also continued to increase during this stage. Keiffer (1984) termed the development of insights and abilities that were characteristic of this stage, "participatory competence", indicating a combination of beliefs (competence) and behaviors (activism) are instrumental in reaching advanced stages of political empowerment.

Integrating Keiffer's Study With Characteristics of Empowerment

To summarize the results of Keiffer's (1984) study of the process of political empowerment, it may be useful to consider its commonalities and dissimilarities with political awareness, competence and activism, as were previously identified as components of empowerment.

Political awareness was implied by Keiffer's "demythification of power" (system blame) during the era of entry and a continued critical understanding of social structures during the stage of advancement. Political competence was similarly alluded to through the "reorienting of self" (political identity) during the era of entry, and the continued change in self concept (identity and efficacy) during the era of incorporation. Political activism included both commitment and political action.

Strengths and Limitations of Keiffer's Study

This study offered additional components associated with political empowerment. These include the following: mentoring relationships, peer relationships, an organizational structure, increased skills and abilities, and some career changes. These components, identified

through a qualitative analysis of participant interviews, may help to expand the limited conceptualization of empowerment that has predominated the literature. Perhaps clues to facilitating the process of political empowerment can also be found in these participants' interviews.

While the qualitative analyses and inductive approach to investigate the process of political empowerment aided in an expanding conceptualization, limitations to this approach should be noted. Because of its very broad scope of exploration and very small sample size (N=15), generalizability of this model is limited. Until the model has been validated with other studies, and examined for utility outside the realm of self defined activists, the model must be used with caution.

Another limitation is that the research relies on retrospective data. The actual process of development was not documented. Instead, participants were required to rely on memories. Such post hoc considerations are replete with inaccuracies.

To more accurately explore the development of political empowerment, researchers may consider setting up an empowering environment and studying the process of change

associated with participation in that setting. As the participants in Keiffer's (1984) study hinted, an empowering environment might include mentors and peers in a structured setting, with opportunities for skills development and career exploration. While empowerment research from this perspective is currently absent in the literature, a few studies of specific types of political empowerment have attempted to investigate this development over time. The following section will describe an example of this research.

A Longitudinal Study

While developmental models of political empowerment are scarce, some researchers have investigated the development of specific political identities and revealed similar patterns to the work of Keiffer (1984). For example, Cross (1971; 1978) and Downing and Roush (1985) created models of Black Identity development and Feminist Identity development, respectively. Each model incorporated virtually identical stages, developing a state of passivity into one of long term commitment. Downing and Roush's (1985) five stage theory can provide a useful schema for understanding political identity development. It includes the stages of "passive-acceptance," "revelation,"

"embeddedness-emanation," "synthesis," and "active commitment."

Bargad and Hyde (1991) empirically tested this model on group of undergraduate women who were randomly assigned to participated in a women's studies class or a control group. Findings revealed patterns of feminist identity development similar to the Downing and Roush model in the women's studies participants, but not in the control group. A description of this developmental process follows.

Passive-Acceptance

In the first stage of this political identity development, individuals were unaware of or denied oppression. This stage appears to be consistent with lack of previous affiliation in Keiffer's (1984) study, and the concept of alienation.

Revelation

This second stage was often accompanied by some type of critical political awareness (Gurin & Townsend, 1986; Bargad & Hyde, 1991). At this point, identity began to take on a political dimension. This stage appears to run parallel with Keiffer's (1984) "era of entry".

Embeddedness-Emanation

The third stage, "embeddedness-emanation," was characterized by an immersion in political culture. This corresponds with Cross' (1971) "Black is Beautiful" stage. During this stage, one's political identity became salient and group membership came to have primary importance. This stage is in accordance with Keiffer's notion of the "era of advancement".

Synthesis

This is the stage of "synthesis," referring to the continued development of a positive political identity. At this time, one's relationship to the larger group became incorporated into one's personal identity, as similarly described in Keiffer's (1984) "era of incorporation".

Active Commitment

In the final stage of both Cross's (1971; 1978) and Downing and Roush's (1985) models of feminist identity development, a commitment to social change predominated. This was the stage of generativity. In this "active commitment" stage, individuals began to live their lives as though the "personal was political". Goals were established to work toward effective social change and a devotion to

meaningful action was incorporated into the self-identity.

At this point of political empowerment, individuals sought out meaningful ways to apply their abilities to a social cause over a more extended period of time. For some, this takes the form of more volunteer time devoted to a political or social concern. For others, career choices with political (or social service) connections may be opted for (Whalen & Flacks, 1980).

Summary of Overlapping Themes

Developmental models proposed by Keiffer (1984), Cross (1971; 1978) and Downing and Roush (1985) have a number of overlapping themes, providing external validity for both models. A recurring topic was the concept of developing a critical awareness or consciousness, that is, the ability to consider the larger societal systems analytically. Development of critical awareness included a process of disindoctrination (Vio Grossi, 1981; Keiffer, 1984; Torre, 1986) and a demythification of power (Keiffer, 1984).

The concept of political competence was apparent in all three models, as was increasing commitment to action. This commitment could take the form of increased political activity, community involvement, or career changes. Similar

themes of political awareness, competence, and activism have been identified in other studies of empowerment as well (e.g., Breton, 1993; Davis, 1989; Lord & Hutchison, 1993; Wallerstein, 1992; Whitmore & Kerans, 1988; Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz, & Checkoway, 1992).

Toward an Integrated Model of Political Empowerment

An integrated model of political empowerment must incorporate recurring themes from current literature and present them in framework that is conducive to empirical evaluation. A theoretical framework that specifies relationships among variables and helps to formulate a measurement model has been called a nomological network (Crohbach & Meehl, 1955; Zimmerman, 1995; Spreitzer, 1995). In other words, a nomological network can present a visual representation of the relationships between measured variables and latent constructs. Once the relations among all of the constructs in the network have been specified, the model can be empirically tested. Three recurring themes have included political awareness, political competence, and political activism. Figure 1 presents this nomological network.

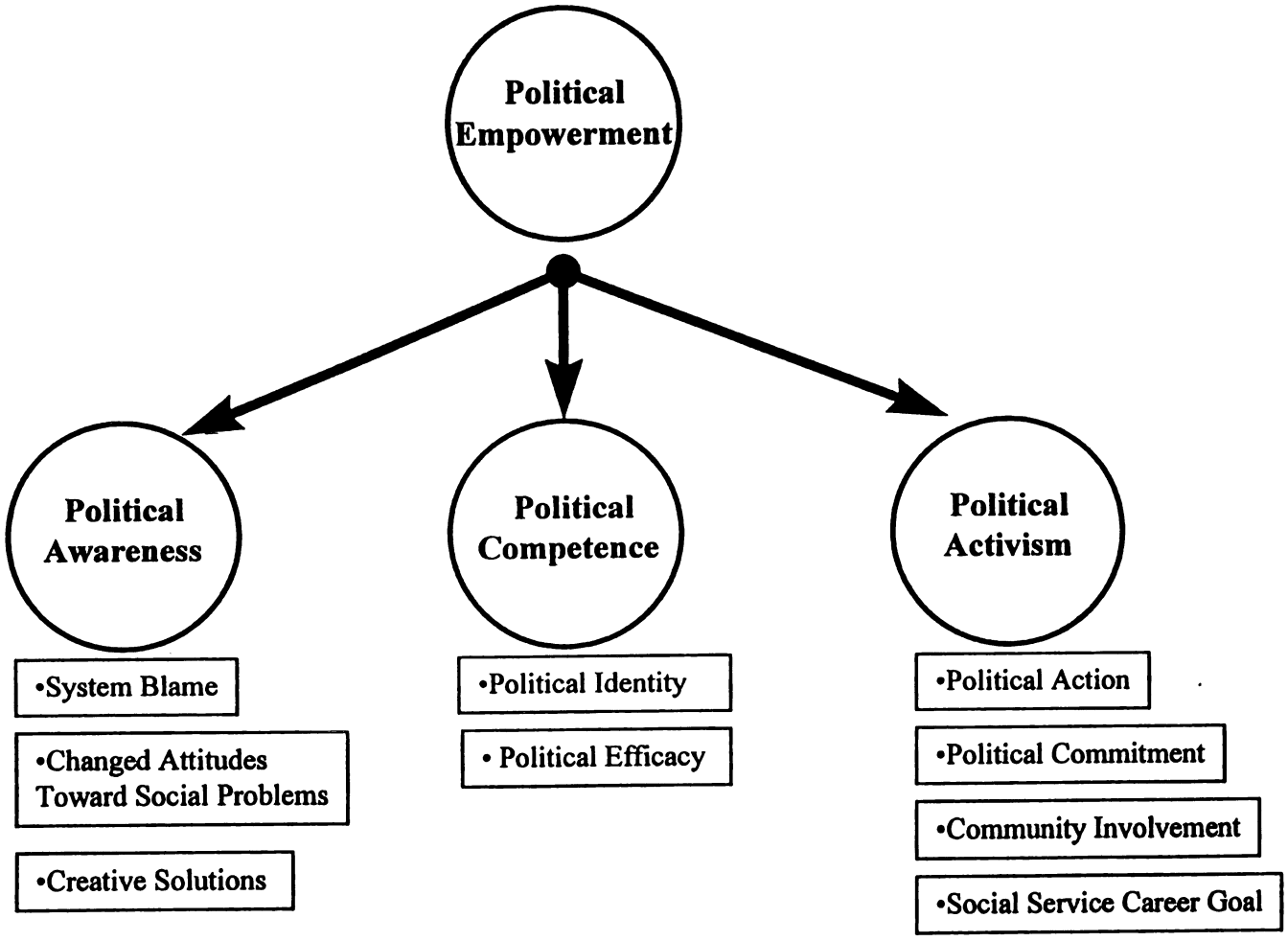


Figure 1. Nomological Network for Political Empowerment

Political Awareness

Political awareness is one component of political empowerment. Awareness of one's socio-political environment includes distrust and critical consideration of large social systems, salient attitudes toward social problems, and a willingness to consider creative solutions to social problems. The general distrust of large social systems is often described as "system blame" (Rappaport, 1977; Sayles, 1984; Shingles, 1981). System blame is characterized by an external locus of responsibility for (and control of) social problems. Social problems are viewed as the result of environmental forces (Shingles, 1981), rather than individuals' shortcomings. A critical awareness of one's socio-political environment has been correlated with increased system blame and decreased passive acceptance of socio-political structures (Lao, 1970; Rappaport, 1987).

Political awareness is expected to include changes in attitudes toward social issues. Sayles (1984) stated that while research on attitude changes may not focus on mobilization for social movements, it can explain who has joined in a political activity and why. In order to understand "why" individuals have mobilized, research on

attitudes is important (Sayles, 1984). The salience of one's attitudes combined with a general distrust for social systems may lead individuals to consider creative solutions to social problems, while also developing a critical awareness of one's sociopolitical environment.

Political Competence

The notion of perceived competence includes the feelings associated with control of one's political life and its personal influences (Seeman 1966; 1972a; 1972b; Sayles, 1984; Breners & Fabj, 1993). Perceived competence includes both political efficacy and political identity.

Political efficacy offers an antidote to powerlessness. Political efficacy, or the feeling that individual action can have an impact on the political process (Campbell, Gurin & Miller, 1954; Pollock, 1982) refers to the perceived control that an individual believes to have in regards to personal and political outcomes (Seeman 1966; 1967a; 1967b). Patterns of perceived control can change as an individual is able to increase control over a situation. This conceptualization of political efficacy is similar to Rotter's (1966) notions of internal and external control. Political efficacy, then, has come to be understood as a

form of political "powerfulness" (Zimmerman, 1989).

Social identity, or the increased salience and importance of an individual's sense of oneself as characterized by social relationships and group affiliation, refers to one domain of political competence. The concept of social identities involves the salience of particular social roles, such as "mother", "student", or "republican" (Deaux, 1991; Sarbin, 1970; Tajfel & Turner, 1988). According to Sarbin (1970), examining and restructuring social identities has been an important aspect of increasing political empowerment and overcoming social isolation. For example, research has shown that Black activists score low in social isolation (Miller, 1982). This indicates that the increased salience of a social identity (Black identity) may combat social isolation. Similarly, the increased salience of one's political identity may help to overcome socio-political isolation and increase political competence.

Political Activism

Activism and citizen participation is a process in which individuals take part in decision making in institutions, programs, and environments that affect them (Heller, Price, Reinhartz, Riger, & Wandersman, 1984,

p.339). Activism in social movements has been found to correlate with increased feelings of personal and political efficacy (Florin and Wandersman, 1984; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988), as well improvements in the community (Cassidy, 1980; Hallman, 1984) and social policy change (Florin & Wandersman, 1990). Participation can include voluntary involvement in social and community groups as well as political activism.

Voluntary associations with social and political organizations have an important function as mediating roles between individual and socio-political domains, including work and politics (Pollock, 1982). Voluntary associations provide settings for social and political integration (Pollock, 1982). By volunteering in any social capacity, one reduces their risk of political passivity.

Political activism has been predicted by political efficacy and system blame (Klobus-Edwards, Edwards, & Klemmack, 1978; Piven & Cloward, 1977; Shingles, 1981). For example, in a study of community activism with undergraduate and other citizen activists, Zimmerman (1989) found that political efficacy was negatively related to alienation and positively related to motivation toward leadership,

including more control over handling of affairs. Similarly, Lao (1970) studied 1400 black college students from 10 southern universities and found that social activists had higher internal social control and external systems blame scores than non-activists.

As a final step toward political empowerment, some individuals come to devote their entire lives to social change. In these instances, individuals may choose to dedicate their work life, as well as their volunteer life, to activism (Keiffer, 1984). In these instances, career choices become a part of one's social activism and political empowerment.

Hypothesized Relations Among Constructs

Additionally, a model of political empowerment should identify hypothesized relationships among constructs. The literature has presented an ambiguous illustration of these relationships. While some studies have assumed a linear progression from awareness to competence to activism, others have presented activism as a catalyst for political awareness and competence. As such, a full model of political empowerment that includes bidirectional (i.e., reciprocally causal) relationships among constructs should

be explored in order to minimize the risk of overlooking salient causal pathways. Figure 2 presents the theoretical framework indicating the relationships among constructs.

Characteristics of Empowering Environments

Once a theoretical framework of political empowerment has been established, another task for community psychologists is to determine how to promote the development of political empowerment (Kelly, 1986; Stokols, 1986). To accomplish this, researchers must identify environmental conditions that may facilitate this process. Bargad and Hyde's (1991) study of feminist development assumed that women's studies courses included empowering environments. However, they did not explore the necessary components of an empowering setting. The following section will outline the characteristics of empowering environments, as supported by literature in this area.

Empowering Environments

Six main characteristics associated with empowering environments have been noted. These include small group settings, a common belief system, opportunities to acquire skills and knowledge, resources in good supply, leadership, and experience. The combination of these characteristics

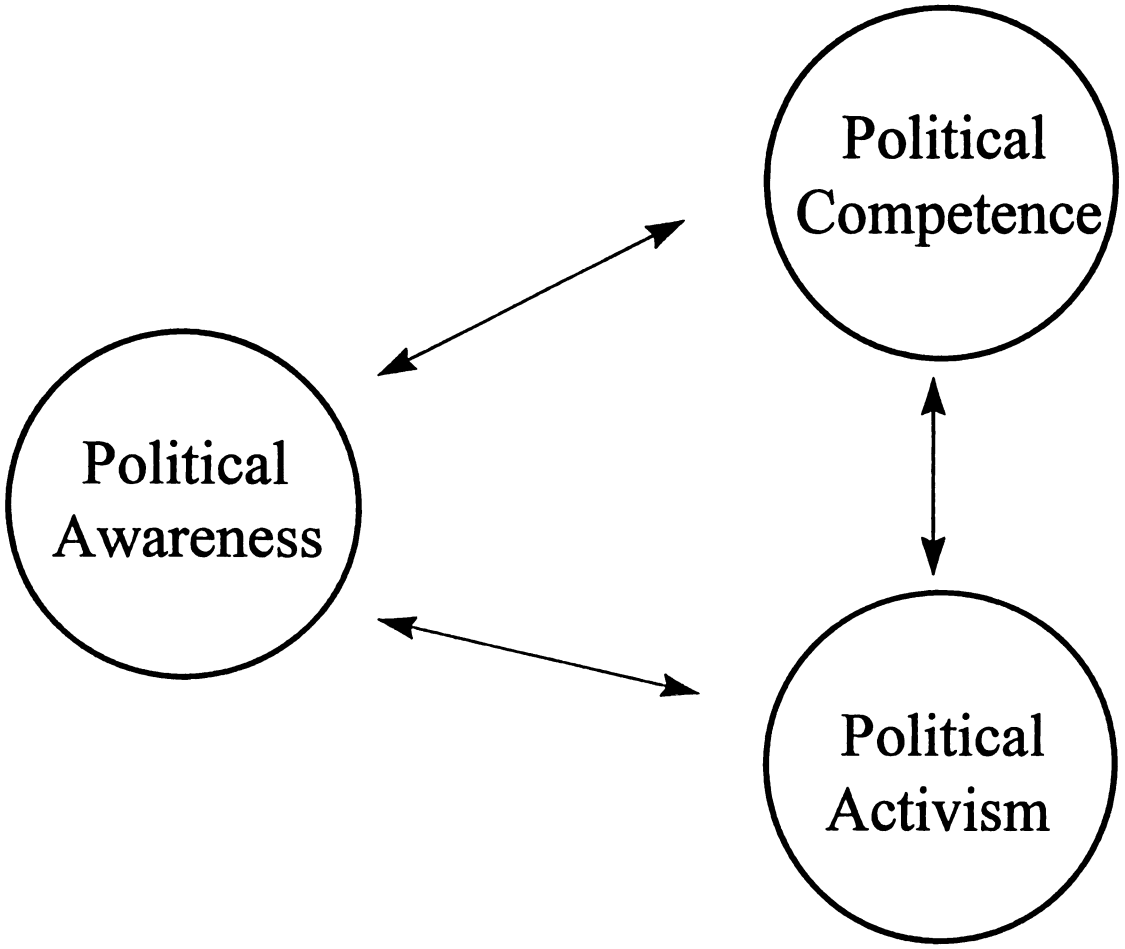


Figure 2. Theoretical Relationships Among Constructs of Political Empowerment

may promote the development of political empowerment over time.

The Small Group

Rappaport (1990) and Bennett (1992) outlined an agenda to identify and create empowering settings. They concluded that empowering settings were likely to be small organizations that worked toward local solutions. Small groups were perceived as more effective than large, providing opportunities and meaningful roles for all members (Rappaport, 1987). Actual recommended group size, however, was not stipulated.

The importance of the small group has been deemed important for many reasons. It can provide a sense of community, may act as catalyst for social action, and have an impact on sense of perceived control and empowerment (Chavis and Wandersman, 1990). Group interaction has been identified as an important method for enhancing empowerment process by many researchers (Bricker-Jenkins & Hooyman, 1986; Freire, 1970; Gutierrez, 1987; Gutierrez & Ortega, 1991; Keiffer, 1984; Rose & Black, 1985). This may be, in part, because of the group's effect on attitude change and formation, especially when cohesive (Gutierrez & Ortega,

1991; Keiffer, 1984; Perry 1980).

Common Belief System

A common belief system that unites the group could inspire, challenge, and mobilize individuals (Bargad & Hyde, 1991; Cross, 1971; 1978; Downing & Roush, 1985; Maton, 1993b). This belief system can be central to the group's membership, such as feminism, ethnic identity, work place unions, or can include a common social concern, such as juvenile delinquency or reproductive rights. All united individuals do not have to be members of the oppressed group. However, peer support is critical (Keiffer, 1984). All members should be united by the similar philosophies of the social problem and solution (Sayles, 1984).

Knowledge and Skill Acquisition

The acquisition of needed knowledge and skills has been cited as an important aspect of political empowerment (Keiffer, 1984; Maton, 1993b; Spreitzer, 1995). Specifically, knowledge about the common social concern and skills to help change the social problems have been identified as contributing to political empowerment. These learning processes can happen informally, through such activities as practice (e.g., computer skills), and reading.

However, knowledge and skills can also be acquired formally, through a structured educational process.

Education has been considered a tool for political empowerment among social science researchers and activists alike (Freire, 1970; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Shor & Freire, 1987; Stanage, 1986). Freire (1970) proposed an "emancipatory pedagogy" for empowering people and creating social change. Education can be viewed as a tool of liberation, by creating critical awareness about society, oppression, and history (Freire, 1970; Freire & Macedo, 1987). A goal of emancipatory pedagogy is to become aware of the connections between personal experiences and larger political structure (Freire, 1970; Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Resources

Resources are necessary for a variety of empowerment goals. Physical resources, such as meeting space and materials (books, computers) to develop knowledge and the social problem and skills to combat that problem are important (Maton, 1993b). Supportive resources can be acquired through donation and volunteer services, or can be provided through affiliations with existing organizations, such as churches and schools.

Leadership

An empowering environment includes leadership that is both supportive and challenging (Maton, 1993a; 1993b). This leadership can be in the form of informal mentoring and peer relationships (Bargad & Hyde, 1991; Keiffer, 1984). More formal leadership may include teachers, work supervisors and clergy.

Experience

The role of experience in securing commitment to social change has been well documented. To demonstrate this, a brief description of the settlement house projects may be useful (see Breton, 1990; Chambers, 1983; Levine & Levine, 1970; Levine & Perkins, 1987; Levine & Perkins, 1997; Malekoff, 1994). The settlement house projects were settings where relatively privileged social service volunteers could live and work, providing services to the working class poor. These projects were based on the notion that one had to live (or spend a great deal of time) in a given community in order to understand the people and social problems of the community. These experiences helped volunteers to identify the environmental roots to social problems, thus leading to political involvement.

Individuals were more likely to become involved when injustices were occurring to people they knew.

The University as an Empowering Setting

One function of the university is to stimulate political awareness of the social issues of our time. Creating settings to facilitate this development of political empowerment within university settings could be of value to community psychologists who are committed to education and social change.

Universities classes typically have many of the characteristics associated with empowering environments. Opportunities to develop skills and knowledge abound. Teachers offer leadership that is both supportive and challenging. Resources of all types are very accessible. Furthermore, the university setting is one example of a structured organization as promoted by Keiffer (1984).

University settings can potentially be structured in such a way as to more completely create empowering settings. Organizing classes into small groups, basing a class around a common social cause, and structuring many opportunities for hands-on community experience are all reasonable possibilities for community researchers and educators. In

sum, the university provides an appropriate setting for creating an empowering environment and investigating the development of political empowerment over time.

Summary and Conclusion

This paper began with an overview of empowerment. This included a discussion of conceptualizations of empowerment, empowerment theory and empowerment terminology. In psychology, there are two predominant ways in which empowerment is viewed. One perspective views empowerment as a process of adapting individuals to the existing social structure (e.g., empowerment through parenting classes to become better parents). Another conceptualization defines empowerment as a process of mobilizing individuals and groups for the purpose of social change (e.g. lobbying for paternal leave for fathers after the birth of a baby to restructure child care responsibilities in families). The structural change conceptualization, termed "political empowerment", has driven this literature review.

Next, an overview of current models of empowerment were presented and critiqued. Themes associated with these models included intrapersonal, interactional and behavioral components, a praxis versus an outcome orientation,

developmental perspectives, and the consideration of antecedents to empowerment. From the overlapping themes presented in these models and other research on empowerment, an integrated model of political empowerment was developed.

Upon review of the empowerment literature, many methodological strategies were presented to study empowerment. Because of the limitations of cross-sectional research to understanding a process of change over time, it was decided that a longitudinal approach to studying political empowerment would be most fruitful. It was hypothesized that creating an empowering environment may provide an opportunity to document the process of transformation from a sense of alienation to political empowerment. Furthermore, opportunities for creating empowering environments were found in a university setting. Therefore, the next task of this paper is to present an experimental research project that examined the empowerment process longitudinally, in a sample of undergraduates in a university setting.

Rationale and Goals of the Current Study

Little is known about the process of political empowerment. Empowerment is important to consider because,

in some studies, empowerment has been found to be an effective mechanism to mobilize individuals to act toward social change (Hoffman, 1978; Rappaport, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). While some research has attempted to document the process of political empowerment through self-report and retrospective data (Keiffer, 1984), little is understood about the effects of deliberate attempts to promote empowerment in a sample of unempowered but earnest individuals. For community psychologists interested in structural change and the promotion of empowerment, this matter demands further exploration.

Keiffer (1984) took an initial step toward understanding the process of empowerment by interviewing self-identified grass roots activists. To extend Keiffer's work, and work toward mobilization, it is imperative that researchers study changes in individuals interested in community activism over time. These individuals may be at various stages of active political commitment, but it is reasonable to assume that all individuals who take steps toward community volunteering will share a similar desire to get involved in their community.

In particular, to examine the effects of an empowerment

program, random assignment of interested community volunteers to either work in an empowering setting or be placed on a waiting list would be useful. In this way, change in political empowerment over time, as a function of participation in an empowering setting, can be examined. In this way, individuals who are concerned but passive, as well as those who are already politically committed, can be examined.

Additionally, the confluence of research has implied conceptual schemas that represent the process of political empowerment. Latent constructs including political awareness, political competence and political activism are considered to be marks of political empowerment. However, directionality of the relationships between these constructs has remained ambiguous. For example, it remains unclear whether increased political awareness has a direct effect on activism or vice versa. To address these concerns, the current research aims to address two goals:

1) to examine the extent to which a university course, with a politically empowering setting, can be successful at influencing the development of political empowerment, and

2) to identify which causal pathways are salient with

respect to the development of political empowerment.

The first goal will be addressed through an experimental intervention and the second goal will be addressed through the empirical examination of the proposed model of political empowerment.

This Study

The present study investigated the development of political empowerment in a sample of undergraduate students (N=106). The aims of this research were accomplished through a pretest-posttest experimental study. Undergraduates interested in participating in the politically empowered setting (structured as a fieldwork class) were administered a questionnaire, and then randomly assigned to either a course participation or control group. Upon course completion (or the equivalent interim of time for the control students), a second questionnaire was administered. Multiple measures were used to evaluate the domains related to political empowerment. These measures include; 1) System Blame, 2) Creative Solutions, 3) Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems, 4) Political Identity, 5) Political Efficacy, 6) Political Action, 7) Political Commitment, 8) Community Involvement, 9) Social Service

Career Goals. The three hypothesized domains included Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Participation. It was predicted that undergraduates in the course participation group will become more politically empowered than undergraduates in the control group.

Two issues were explored in this research. First, this study attempted to identify the extent to which an intervention affects the process of political empowerment. Second, a primary task was to identify a model of political empowerment with both explanatory power and parsimony. From these two considerations, it will become possible to design more effective empowerment interventions.

Specification of Independent and Dependent Variables

Following is an overview of the independent and dependent variables considered in this study.

Specific Independent Variable

The specific independent variable in this study is participation an intervention designed to promote political empowerment.

Specific Dependent Variables

Three dependent variables considered in this research include:

1) Political Awareness

2) Political Competence, and

3) Political Participation

Indicators of Political Awareness included measures of system blame, changed attitudes toward social problems, and creative solutions. Indicators of Political Competence included measures of political identity and political efficacy. Indicators of Political Activism included measures of political action, political commitment, community involvement, and social service career goals.

Research Hypotheses

Testing Intervention Effects

To examine the effects of the university intervention on the development of political empowerment with university students, the following hypothesis was examined.

Hypothesis 1: Students completing a course with politically empowering characteristics will have increased levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism compared with students assigned to a

waiting list.

Testing the Empowerment Model

Refer to Figure 3 for a presentation of the structure of the comprehensive model of political empowerment. To articulate a model of political empowerment, the following hypothesis will be examined.

Hypothesis 2: Participants' levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism at Time 1 will predict levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism at Time 2.

The hypothesized relationships among the variables associated with political empowerment remains ambiguous, from the literature published to date. Striving toward an integrated, comprehensive model of political empowerment requires that all potential pathways be examined. Therefore all pathways between the latent variables at Time 1 and all latent variables at Time 2 will be estimated.

However, since another goal of this research is to arrive at a parsimonious model, a nested comparison of this complex model will also be evaluated. Therefore, a third, exploratory hypothesis will also be examined.

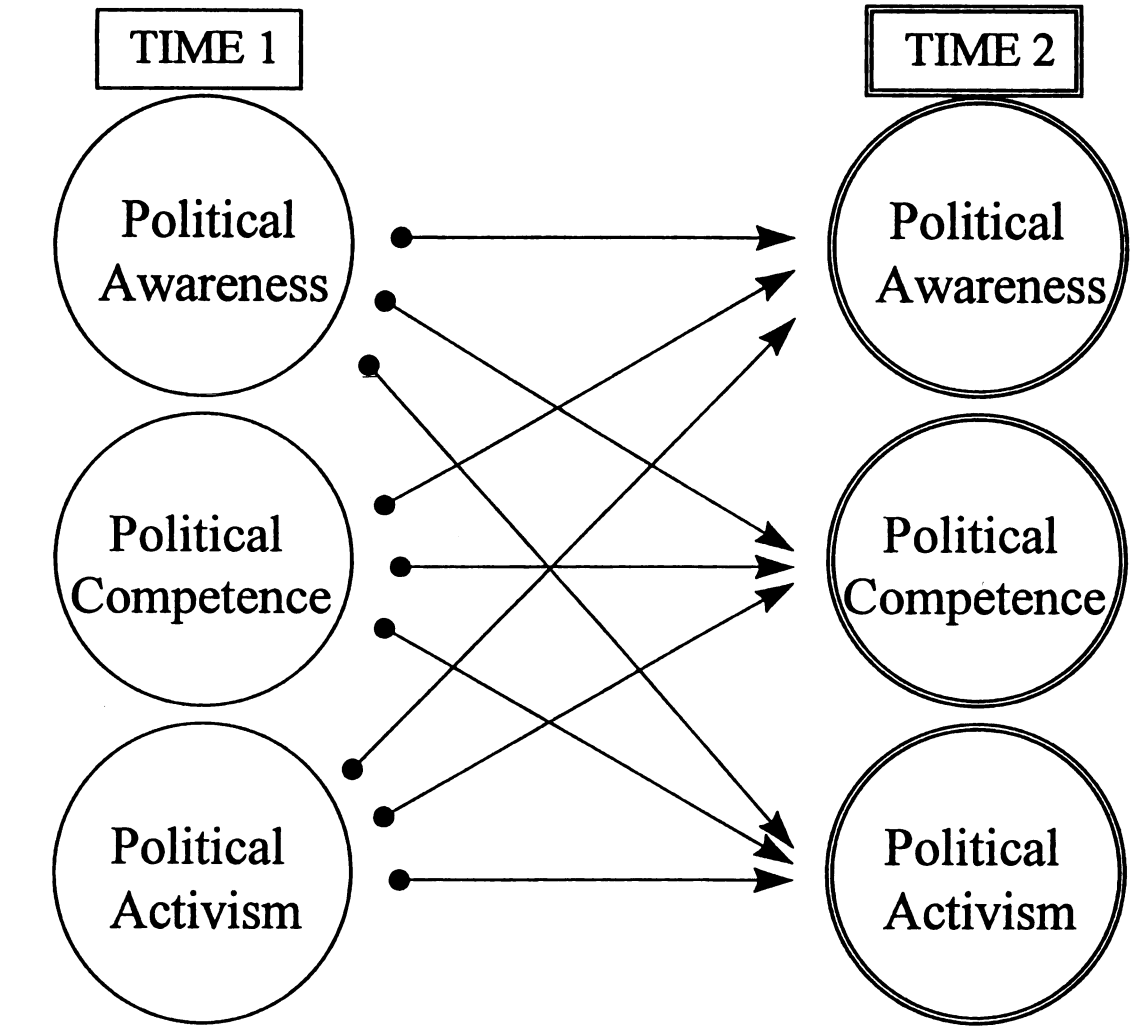


Figure 3. Model of Political Empowerment Over Time

Hypothesis 3: Participants' levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism at Time 1 will predict only select levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism at Time 2.

This hypothesis will be tested via post hoc modifications. Upon empirically examining the magnitude of the hypothesized pathways of the comprehensive model of political empowerment, select pathways will be omitted, and a nested model will be evaluated. The more complex model can only be justified if it fits the data significantly better than the nested, parsimonious model.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Setting

The setting for this research was a two-semester class offered through the psychology department of a large midwestern university. This class was focused around the belief that juvenile delinquency is a social problem with both behavioral and environmental root causes. The structure of the course was planned as an environment to promote the development of empowerment. It incorporated a common belief system with small group meetings, active leadership, and intense community experience. The small group format facilitated the development of peer networks and leaders/mentors who were available, supportive, and challenging, as well. The average group size was 8 individuals (6 students and 2 mentor/instructors). Students earned a total of 8 semester units and must agree to enroll for two consecutive semesters in order to fulfill course

requirements.

The format of the course included a traditional educational component as well as an experiential, fieldwork component. The education component included training to gain knowledge about the causes of juvenile delinquency, and skills to help eliminate the problem. Two areas of focus included behavioral training and resource acquisition. In addition to the resources already provided by the university system (libraries, phones, classrooms, etc), resources available within the local community, especially that may be relevant to area youths, were the target of this intervention. The experiential component of this class was an 18 week interim of community involvement.

Context of the Setting

The research took place within the context of an ongoing project at Michigan State University that trains student volunteers to work as advocates with adolescents in the local community. The Adolescent Diversion Project (Davidson & Seidman, 1974; Davidson, 1976; Davidson & Rapp, 1976; Davidson & Rappaport, 1977; Davidson, Seidman, Rappaport, Berck, Rapp, Rhodes & Herring, 1977; McVeigh, Davidson, & Redner, 1984; Eby, Mackin, Scofield, Legler, &

Davidson, 1995; Mackin et al, 1995; Seidman, Rappaport & Davidson, 1976a, 1976b; Shillo & Davidson, 1994), operating at MSU since April, 1977, aims to divert adolescent youth away from the juvenile justice system by matching adolescents who have encountered the criminal justice system with university students enrolled in a Psychology 371/372 (Psychological Innovations and Research) course sequence.

Adolescents who have been charged with a first offense can choose to participate in the Adolescent Diversion Project as an alternative to continuing with legal proceedings. In exchange, criminal charges are dropped.

Participants

Research Participants

Participants (N=106) were students who attended two orientation meetings for Psychology 371/372 (Psychological Innovation and Research). Because other fieldwork experiences are offered under the course sequence Psychology 371/372, it is important to note that only students interested in the courses offered by a project called the "Adolescent Diversion Project" were included in this study. In order to qualify for this course sequence, students were social science majors, who had completed an introductory

psychology class, and were in good academic standing with the university. All participants were Michigan State University undergraduate students.

Recruiting and Selecting Participants

Participants were recruited in February, 1994. Letters were sent to 2000 social science majors, inviting them to attend an orientation for a two semester fieldwork class that provides an opportunity for community experience with a local court-referred youth. Additionally, open invitations (to social science majors only) were posted around the university campus and handed out in psychology classes. Within the social science majors, social work majors were excluded from recruitment efforts because of time constraints making it implausible for undergraduates pursuing those majors to take the two-semester course sequence.

The invitational letter requested that students call the project office for more information, if interested. About 200 students called the office and were given the locations of a two-session orientation in March, 1994. Approximately 160 students attended the first orientation session, where they received a more detailed project

description as well as course requirements. The requirements, including a 6 to 8 hour per week community involvement commitment, personal transportation, and a flexible schedule, were all stressed. Students were also informed that eligible students would be enrolled on a lottery basis (i.e. randomly assigned). Students who were still interested were asked to return for a second meeting to fill out several forms. The two meeting agenda allows for students to seriously consider their commitment level and to make a well-planned choice about program participation. This process led to the attrition of less committed students.

Only students attending both meetings and confirming interest in the program qualified to be in this research project, as well. One hundred twenty seven students returned the second night to complete the paperwork. At this time, they were asked to complete agreements to participate in the course, as well as a survey about political empowerment.

Demographics

Of the study participants (N=106), 66% were women and 34% were men. All were undergraduate students with an age

range from 18 to 43, with the mean at 20.64 years (Mdn=20).

Most of the sample was white (95%). Only 3% of the sample was Black and 1% Latino. Due to an ongoing minority recruitment effort, members of under represented ethnic groups were recruited for participation in this volunteer project (i.e. not included in random assignment) and were therefore excluded from this study.

All participants had some prior college experience. Socio-economic class was assessed by annual family income, with a range of $7,000. to $300,000. Fifty percent of the sample was married or living with a committed partner and another 40% reported being involved in a serious relationship. Only three participants (2.8%) had children. Twenty one percent of the participants stated that their political affiliation was Republican, but only 10% considered themselves to be conservative. Twenty two percent of the participants stated that their political affiliation was Democratic, yet more (27%) considered themselves to be liberal. The majority of participants (43%) considered themselves to have a moderate political affiliation. Table 2 presents demographic characteristics.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics

	Percentage
GENDER	
male	34.9
female	65.1
AGE	
<20	26
20 - 24	69.2
25 - 29	04
30>	00.9
RACE	
African/African-American	01
Asian/Asian-American	02.9
Latina/Latino	00
Mixed Race	01.9
White/Caucasian	90.5
Other	03.8
POLITICAL AFFILIATION	
Republican	21.4
Independent	43.7
Democrat	22.3
Undecided	12.6
POLITICAL IDEOLOGY	
Liberal	26.7
Moderate	43.8
Conservative	09.5
Not Sure	19

Research Design

Respondents were randomly assigned to either participate in the intervention (Experimental Condition) or be placed on a waiting list (Control Condition). The effectiveness of the intervention was assessed by a single-factor design (Experimental or Control Condition) at two time intervals (pre and post). An illustration of the research design is presented in Table 3. Sample sizes are given in the cells.

Table 3. Experimental Design with Sample Sizes Reported

Design	Pre	Post
Experimental	**61**	**54**
Control	**65**	**52**

Measures

As noted previously, three constructs of political empowerment were suggested by the intersection of empowerment theories. These three constructs include Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political

Participation. Multiple indicators of these constructs have been suggested by the literature as well. The following section outlines the measures that were used as indicators of the three empowerment constructs.

Nine measures were used to assess changes associated with political empowerment. These nine measures were hypothesized indicators of three latent constructs. Measures of system blame, attitudes toward social problems, and creative solutions were used to measure the construct "Political Awareness." Measures of both political efficacy and political identity were used as indicators of "Political Competence." Similarly, measures of political action, community involvement, political commitment, and social service career goals were used as indicators of "Political Participation." Additionally, demographic information was collected. Following is a description of the measures used in this study.

System Blame

A scale constructed to measure external political efficacy, or " beliefs about political institutions" (Miller, Miller & Schneider, 1980, p. 253), as well as an additional six items developed for this survey, together

were used as an measure of system blame. Responses were in the form of an agree-disagree likert format. After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this eleven item scale, six items were dropped. The reliability for the resulting five item scale was established for this sample (alpha = .81).

The average rating agreement was determined for the five items comprising this measure. This measure was scaled such that the higher scores reflect stronger political system blame and lower external efficacy. Examples of these items included the statements "In this country, a few people have all the political power and the rest of us have nothing to say", and "anyone who really wants to get ahead in this country can" (reverse scored). Table 4 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the system blame scale.

Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems

A seventeen item list of social problems was created to assess attitudes toward social problems, an indicator of Political Awareness in this research sample (alpha= .93). The average rating for the seventeen items corresponding to social problems was assessed via a five point likert scale.

Table 4. Psychometric Properties of System Blame Scale

Scale Items
1. I don't think public officials care much what people like me think.
2. Generally speaking, those we elect to public office lose touch with the people pretty quickly.
3. Candidiates for public office are interested in people's votes but not in their opinions.
4. Politicians are supposed to be servants of the people, but too many of them try to be our masters.
5. In this country, a few have all the political power and the rest of us have nothing to say.
Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .81
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .35-.80

Participants were asked to respond to "please indicate how much the class you are now taking (experimental) or how much your classes in general (control) have influenced your thinking on each of the following social issues". On a five point likert scale ranging from "not at all influenced" to "very much influenced", participants responded to issues including child abuse, homelessness, teen pregnancy, crime, etc. Higher scores indicated stronger belief in class influence on attitude. Table 5 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Changed Attitude Toward Social Problems scale.

Table 5. Psychometric Properties of Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problem Scale

Scale Items
1. sexual harassment
2. stranger rape
3. acquaintance rape
4. woman abuse/domestic violence
5. abortion
6. child custody
7. child abuse
8. AIDS
9. homelessness
10. juvenile delinquency
11. poverty
12. substance abuse
13. safe sex
14. teen pregnancy
15. crime
16. street violence
17. school failure/drop out
Number of cases = 101
Alpha =.93
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .54-.74

Creative Solutions

The six item measure of Creative Solutions was created as an indicator of Political Awareness. Examples of the items in this measure include "Neighborhood programs designed to curb criminal activities are a good idea", and "Volunteering at after school programs is a good way to encourage potential drop-outs to stay in school". Participants responded to these items by indicating the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement in a likert format. The average rating agreement was determined for the six items comprising this scale. This measure was scaled such that the higher scores reflect higher agreement with hopeful solutions to contemporary social problems. After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this 6 item scale, 2 items were dropped. The reliability for the resulting four item scale was established (alpha = .53) for the present sample. Table 6 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Creative Solutions scale.

Table 6. Psychometric Properties of Creative Solutions Scale

Scale Items
1. Volunteering at after school programs is a good way to encourage potential drop-outs to stay in school.
2. Handing out clean syringes is a good wAy to cut down on the transmission of AIDS.
3. Neighborhood programs designed to curb criminal activities is a good idea.
4. Handing out condoms in high schools is a good way to encourage safe sex practices.
Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .53
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .30-.37

Political Efficacy

Items from a scale constructed to measure internal political efficacy (Craig & Maggiotto, 1982) were administered. This measure was designed to assess the extent to which one believes oneself to have the skills necessary to influence the political system. This nine item scale included statements that represent internal political efficacy, or "individual's self-perceptions that they are capable of understanding politics and competent enough to participate in political acts such as voting" (Miller, Miller & Schneider, 1980, p. 253). Responses were in the form of an agree-disagree likert format. After reviewing

inter-item and item-total correlations for this 9 item scale, 3 items were dropped. The reliability for the resulting six item scale was established (alpha = .65).

The average rating agreement was determined for the six items comprising this final scale. This measure was scaled such that the higher scores reflect higher internal political efficacy. Table 7 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Political Efficacy scale.

Political Identity

The political identity scale was comprised of six items corresponding to social identities (Deaux,; Tajfel & Turner, 1988) with the addition of thirteen items corresponding to other social identities with a political focus. Political Identity was one indicator of Political Competence. The average of the summed importance scale for the 6 political identity items were scaled such that higher scores will reflect more important political identities to the individual. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which each identity was important to them on a five point likert scale, ranging from "not at all important to me" to "extremely important to me". Identity items included

Table 7. Psychometric Properties of Political Efficacy Scale

Scale Items
1. Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that a person like me can't really understand what's going on.
2. People like me are generally well qualified to participate in the political activity and decision making in our country.
3. I feel like I have a pretty good understanding of the important political issues which confront our society.
4. Today's problems are so difficult that I feel I could not know enough to come up with the ideas that might solve them.
5. I feel like I could do as good a job in public office as most politicians we elect.
6. It doesn't matter what a person does- if the politicians want to listen they will, and if they don't, they won't.

Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .65
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .24-.46

"Political Affiliation", "Volunteer" and "Social Activist". After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this nineteen item scale, seven items were dropped. For this sample, the reliability for the resulting twelve item scale was established (alpha = .79). Table 8 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Political Identity scale.

Political Action

A ten item checklist of political actions comprised the Political Action Scale, one measure of Political Activism. This scale was adapted from Zimmerman (1989). This measure was comprised of a checklist of activities, including "Voting", "Participating in a boycott", and "Attending a political march". Respondents indicated whether they had participated in these activities within the last year. A summed score of all ten items was determined, with higher scores reflecting more types of political actions. After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this ten item scale, three items were dropped. The reliability for the resulting seven item scale was established for the present sample (alpha = .59). Table 9 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the

Table 8. Psychometric Properties of Political Identity Scale

Scale Items
1. your occupation
2. political affiliation
3. social activist
4. leader
5. academic
6. volunteer
7. gender
8. ethnicity
9. sexual orientation
10. survivor
11. member of a priveleged group
12. socio-economic class
Number of cases = 104
Alpha = .79
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .35-.58

Table 9. Psychometric Properties of Political Action Scale

Scale Items
1. signing a petition
2. participating in a boycott
3. working on a political campaign
4. attending a political rally
5. attending a political march
6. going to hear a talk by a political person
7. organizing a political event
Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .59
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .28-.42

Political Action Scale.

Political Commitment

The five item measure of Political Commitment was created as an indicator of Political Activism. Statements such as "I have a lifelong commitment to work for social, economic, and political equality for all" were included in this measure. Participants indicated the extent of their agreement with these statement on a five point likert scale. The average rating agreement was determined for the six items comprising this scale. This measure was scaled such that the higher scores reflect higher levels of political commitment. After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this seven item scale, one item was dropped. The reliability for the resulting six item scale was established for this sample (alpha = .69). Table 10 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Political Commitment scale.

Community Involvement

To further assess Political Activism, community involvement was assessed with a seven item checklist including communities such as "Neighborhood", "Family", and "School". Additionally, respondents had the opportunity to

Table 10. Psychometric Properties of Political Commitment Scale

Scale Items
1. I consider myself to be a social activist
2. I volunteer often in the community
3. I am very committed to a cause that I believe contributes to a fair world for all people.
4. On some level, my motivation for almost every activity I engage in is a desire for an egalitarian world.
5. I have a life long commitment to work for social, economic, and political equality for all.
6. I use the term feminist or pro-feminist to describe myself.

Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .69
Range of values for corrected item-total correlations = .30-.51

list other organizations and communities that they were involved in. A summed score of all items was determined, with higher scores reflecting more types of community influences. After reviewing inter-item and item-total correlations for this scale, six items were dropped. In this sample, the reliability for the resulting two item scale was established (alpha = .63). Table 11 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Community Involvement scale.

Table 11. Psychometric Properties of Community Involvement Scale

Scale Items
1. Organizations
2. Other communities involved in
Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .63
Values for corrected item-total correlations = .29; .54

Social Service Career Goal

To assess career goals, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed (on a likert scale) with statements, including "I plan to work in the field of human services". This two item scale developed

for the purpose of this study will be scaled such that higher scores reflect greater intention to work in the field of social services. Mean scores will be calculated. Internal consistency for this scale was calculated (alpha= .48) for this sample. Table 12 provides a complete list of the items and psychometric properties of the Social Service Career Goal scale.

Table 12. Psychometric Properties of Social Service Career Goal Scale

Scale Items
1. I plan to work in the field of human services.
2. I plan to work with children or adolescents as a career.
Number of cases = 106
Alpha = .48
Values for corrected item-total correlations = .33

Demographics

Finally demographic information on each respondent were obtained. Demographic data included gender, ethnicity, age, income, relationship status, number of children, sexual orientation, religion, and political affiliation. Refer back to Table 2.

Procedure

This study has been reviewed and accepted by the Human Subjects in Research Committee (UCHRIS) at Michigan State University (IRB #93-182).

Procedure: Administering the Pretest

Measures were administered to all students attending both of the orientation meetings required for participation in the two semester course (Adolescent Diversion Project), (N=127). At the end of second meeting, all students were asked to fill out a survey. They were instructed that it is completely voluntary and that they could refuse or withdraw at any time. Filling out any portion of the questionnaire was on an entirely volunteer basis. Participants were instructed that they could skip any portion of the questionnaire or quit at any time without penalty.

They were also informed that participation in this study would not affect their chances of getting into the class. It was clearly explained that all eligible students would be picked randomly (by lottery) to participate in the program. Students were instructed that the class list would be posted the following day at the program office. Students were encouraged to attend future orientations if they were

committed to this project but were not selected to participate this year.

Confidentiality was assured. All participants were instructed that the questionnaire is confidential. Only the primary researcher and small research team would have access to any name linked with any data.

Then, all students were asked to sign a statement, agreeing to volunteer for this study. A written consent form also included information about the voluntary, confidential nature of this study.

All research participants were invited to be contacted again for a follow up survey. They were asked to print their names, addresses, phone numbers, and information about 3 alternative contact people on demographic data sheets, in order to facilitate future contacts. Finally, all participants were thanked for their involvement.

Assignment

Immediately following the second orientation meeting, students were randomly assigned into one of two conditions. All qualifying undergraduates were randomly assigned to either the Experimental Condition (to participate in the course) or placed in a Control Group (no participation). A

list of the experimental group participants (those who may enroll in the course) was typed and posted the following day.

The Intervention

The intervention included a shared belief, small group setting, leadership, development of skills and knowledge, resource utilization, and experience. The common concern and shared goal was a desire to work toward eliminating juvenile delinquency. The intervention began with a classroom educational component and gradually shifted to a more experiential learning program. Close supervision and interaction between students and instructors throughout the process provided the framework for ongoing mentoring relationships. See Appendix B for the complete training manual for this intervention.

Common Belief

Before committing to this project, all participants (experimental and control) shared one common belief. They were all committed to the social services and hoped to have an opportunity to work with a court-referred youth from the local community. They were all willing to donate a substantial amount of time and energy to this cause, at

least for a two-semester period.

The belief system that the Adolescent Diversion Project espoused is much more specific. This project operates from a perspective that views juvenile delinquency as a social problem with both environmental and behavioral root causes. As such, the project aims to train volunteers to intervene at both individual and societal levels (see Davidson & Rappaport, 1978).

Small Group Setting

The small group setting was seen as advantageous and necessary for empowerment. It allowed for more student interaction with other students and with mentors. During the first weeks of training, groups of about 20 students assembled for about one hour per week. Immediately following a large group discussion and small quiz, the groups would break down into groups of 6 for the remaining one and one half hours, for more indepth discussion with 2 instructors. Group membership and instructors rotated weekly during the first 5 weeks, allowing for the entire group to form intrapersonal relationship. At week 6 of this 36 week project, individual groups of 6 students and 2 supervisor/mentors were formed. These groups continued to

meet weekly for two and a half hours.

The Leaders/Mentors

The role of the instructors/leaders as mentors was an important component of this intervention. Leaders included graduate students in ecological community psychology as well as undergraduate supervisors who had previously completed the project.

During the first part of the intervention, relationships were developed with the small class size and ratio (3/1). Once participants were assigned to work with a youth, the contact between participants and supervisors intensified. In addition to 2.5 hour weekly meetings with 2 supervisors and 6 participants, ongoing communication in the form of phone conversations was the norm. Some students called supervisors an average of 3 times per week, while others only called once or twice weekly.

The supervisors' roles as mentors was critical to designing appropriate individually tailored programs for each youth and for working with the myriad of social issues that were faced. The mentors used their own personal, research and activists experiences as the groundwork from which to teach and advocate on behalf of social issues. The

backgrounds of the supervisor/mentors at the time of this research included woman-battering, girls and delinquency, AIDS prevention, poverty, low-income housing problems, and school to work transitions. Supervisor/mentors used critical discussions and their own activism as a tool for increasing political awareness.

Knowledge and Skills Building

The intervention began in many ways like other typical university classes. The focus of the class was on knowledge and skills acquisition. The focus of this particular course was on the concern of juvenile delinquency and related social issues. Specifically, this class provided classroom instruction and practice in the areas of behavior modification and resource procurement. Resource acquisition both within the university and in the community was deemed important.

Format of Classroom Training

The program began with 14 weeks of classroom training. This component of training was similar to many classroom experiences in that it included weekly reading assignments, weekly quizzes, and additional classroom exercises and homework. It differed from traditional college courses in

that the student/instructor ratio was approximately 3/1. In other words, a typical class 30 students was broken down into 5 small groups of 6 students each. Each group had 2 instructors (graduate teaching assistants and undergraduates who had exceptionally completed the course). In this way, individual attention and student interaction was facilitated.

Additionally, the classroom training used a mastery model of education. Accordingly, students did not move ahead to new training areas until they had successfully mastered current work. The training began with reading and education about two theoretical models that the program incorporated: behavioral and advocacy. Also, the course work included a strong focus on education about specific social problems of adolescents from a community psychology perspective.

Knowledge and Skills: Behavior Modification

After an overview of the entire course was presented during the first week of class, the classroom focused on behavior modification techniques as an initial area of skills building. Articles and selected book chapters (including Seidman & Rappaport, 1974; Davidson, Seidman,

Rappaport, Berck, Rapp, Rhodes & Herring, 1977; Tharp & Wetzel, 1969) were read and discussed in groups. Once underlying theoretical perspectives of behavioral training were mastered (based on an open ended quiz performance), additional readings (including Cormier, 1983; DeRisi & Butz, 1975; Patterson, 1971; Saxon, 1979; and Stuart, 1971; 1973) guided discussion and practice sessions of behavior modification techniques. The knowledge from these readings were also assessed through open ended quizzes. See Appendix B for the assigned readings on behavioral training.

Instructors guided practice sessions on implementing behavioral contracts. Participants designed and implemented their own personal behavior modification programs. Participants also role played the process of helping others design and monitor behavioral agreements. This was in preparation for the experiential component of the class, when undergraduates would model and apply the concepts, such as behavioral reinforcements and management, in field settings. In particular, university students learned, through education and classroom practice, to create and implement behavioral contracts with adolescents and their families. Additionally, undergraduates gained the skills to

implement and monitor behavioral contracts in community and family settings. Discussion guides, assignments, and role plays associated with this component of the intervention were spread over five weeks.

Knowledge and Skills: Obtaining Resources

A second area of focus for this intervention was centered around gaining access to resources within the local community. This component of the intervention was based upon the belief that human behavior is to a great extent a function of social structures (Davidson et al, 1977). To change maladaptive behaviors of individuals, oppressive social structures must be changed. In particular, an environmental resources conception of human behavior guided the training for this component of the class, by highlighting the rights of each individual to society's resources. A fundamental belief of this approach is that each individual has a right to getting needs fulfilled. Discussions and quizzes assessed each individual's knowledge of this perspective, as presented by researchers and community institutions alike (Becker, 1978; Beyer, 1980; Davidson & Rapp, 1976; Guggenheim & Sussman, 1985).

Additionally, participants obtained local resource

information, such as teen help cards with hotline numbers and a guide to free and cheap activities for youth in the local area. Undergraduates worked toward developing advocacy skills by learning about typical community organizations that they would be working with, such as school systems, practiced communication styles in class role-plays, and investigated community resources on their own. They investigated a community resource, in-person, and wrote a description of the services provided. The results of the community resource investigation were compiled into a directory of local resources that could be used throughout the program. An additional five weeks of classroom training was devoted to resource acquisition.

Knowledge and Skills: Social Problems of Adolescents

An additional focus of the intervention was to include discussions about social problems as they pertain to adolescents. Training about social problems was included throughout the classroom education. Discussions about social issues including delinquency, poverty, family violence, substance abuse, rape, incest, reproductive rights, legal rights, health care, employment and housing discrimination, and illiteracy were woven throughout many

classroom discussions. Readings by McIntosh (1989), Steele (1992), and Ryan (1976), on racial discrimination and victim blaming, respectively, were studied and discussed. Two class meetings were devoted exclusively to the topics of victim-blaming as described by Ryan (1976). The classroom exercises included discussion and debate about victim blaming, as well as the challenge to participants to examine their own tendencies to blame individuals over social systems.

Summary of Classroom Education

The education component of the program included readings and discussions about articles explaining behavior modification in field settings, environmental resources and advocacy, cultural diversity, and blaming the victim. (Refer to Appendix B). In addition, a description of the program philosophy was made explicit. Other information was also presented describing adolescence, and a classroom exercise on victim blaming encouraged a reexamination of personal values and prejudices.

Local advocacy education included a list of free and cheap activities in the local area, a student-compiled directory of local resources, and an invited speaker from a

local community agency, such as the YMCA. A total of 12 weeks of weekly 2.5 hour weekly meetings, as well as homework assignments were devoted to the knowledge and skills acquisition component of this intervention.

Experiential Component

The second part of the intervention focused on both practice and experience working with a youth in the local community. First, during class training, through a series of role-playing exercises, participants practiced effective advocacy and resource acquisition in professional settings, as well as setting up behavioral contracts.

Once the classroom training had been successfully completed, each university student was assigned a court-referred youth to work with for an 18 week period. Adolescents and university students worked together to reach individually tailored goals, for at least 6-8 hours per week. This was done under the weekly supervision of the project director, 2 graduate student instructors, and 5 other undergraduate volunteers. During this fieldwork component of the class, undergraduates worked within the environment/community of their assigned youth. By working closely with the family, the undergraduate could assist in

setting up behavioral agreements that were appropriate to the needs of family members. In addition to working closely with family members, undergraduates worked with other community organizations, as needed. By becoming immersed in the community, the undergraduate could work effectively with the youth to secure access to local resources. The targeted areas for intervention for all adolescents in the Adolescent Diversion Program included family, school, employment, and recreation. Additional areas were targeted on an individual-need basis.

Participants worked with a youth for 18 weeks, 6-8 hours per week, immersed in the adolescent's environment, using newly learned skills to set up behavior modification programs in the youth's family and to advocate on behalf of the youth in the community.

While every 18 week plan was individually tailored to the adolescent's needs, all interventions shared some common characteristics. All intervention plans included a general assessment phase, an implementation phase and a termination phase. During the assessment phase (3-4 weeks), the participants got to know the youth's family and significant others. Additionally, each participant visited locations

that the youth frequented, including school, place of employment, and recreational hang-outs. At this stage, potential mentors were targeted for the youth.

During the implementation phase (10 weeks), the program became individually tailored to the youth's specific needs. Some areas of involvement included family relations, school attendance, improved grades, and advocacy, recreation, and formal and informal employment. Other areas for intervention included substance abuse, pregnancy and parenting, illiteracy, health problems, poverty, domestic violence, gang activity, legal problems, etc.

During the termination phase (4 weeks), each participant focused on teaching self-advocacy skills to the youth and her/his family. During this time, the youth, along with family (and other identified mentors) created and implemented their own behavioral contracts, if appropriate for the family. Finally, each participant compiled a list of resources and instructions for behavioral contracting for the youth and presented it to him/her upon their final meeting.

Post Test: Intervention Group

Upon completion of the Adolescent Diversion Project,

all participants in the Experimental group were administered the survey again on the final day of class (N=54). The attrition rate (N=7) was due to 4 students who dropped the class, 1 who failed, and 2 students who had been granted permission to enroll previously (not randomly assigned). Again, participants were informed that survey completion was completely voluntary and the information provided would remain confidential. Again, participants were asked to sign a volunteer agreement form. Participants were thanked for their involvement.

Post Test: Control Group

All participants in the Control condition (N=65) were invited to reconvene and complete a similar questionnaire. First, students in the control condition were sent a letter inviting them to attend a scheduled meeting, where they were administered a survey and received $10.00.

Follow up phone calls were made to Control Group participants who did not respond to the first invitation, offering to schedule individual meetings at their convenience. They were contacted by phone (through information submitted during the course orientation and through the MSU student directory), and invited to fill out

a second questionnaire at their convenience, for which they would be paid $10.00. Additional tracking methods (including letters and phone calls) to find participants through alternate contact persons were used as necessary, when participants were difficult to locate. The tracking procedures were moderately successful and most participants in the control group (N=52) returned to complete a second survey.

Model Development

Panel Designs

This study was an experimental, cross lagged, panel design. In panel designs the same individuals are measured at different time points. Panel designs allow for stronger causal inference than cross sectional designs (Finkel, 1995). This includes the analysis of causal relationships between independent and dependent variables as well as among variables of interest.

Panel data, however, do not rule out all of the problems of causal inference in nonexperimental research (Finkel, 1995). Causal inference is best accomplished in true experiments, through random assignment. In order to rule out any preexisting differences between groups,

increase internal validity, and offer the best estimation of causality, this research used a true experimental design, randomly assigned participants to one of two groups (intervention/control), and collected data from the same individuals at two time points.

Additionally, the temporal component of panel designs allow for the estimation of models with lagged causal effects. In other words, prior values of variable X (such as Political Awareness) may influence future values of variable Y (such as Political Activism), and vice versa. Since effects over time are a concern in this study, the cross lagged panel model provided an accurate assessment of the direction of causal inference (Dwyer, 1983).

Analyzing Experimental, Cross Lagged, Panel Data

Ways to test panel data include cross lagged correlations, regression analysis, path analysis, and structural equation modeling. Cross lagged panel correlations have been sharply criticized due to their failure to account for autoregression effects (i.e., other factors such as the causal influence of a variable on itself over time) (Farrell, 1994). Regression analyses focus only on outcomes. To examine reciprocal effects requires

additional analyses.

In path analysis, hypotheses about causal relationships among variables are often illustrated in a path diagram. Each of the endogenous variables (i.e., dependent variables) in a path model is expressed as a function of other variables in the model and a residual or disturbance (random error) term (Farrell, 1994). The statistical significance of the coefficients associated with each path in the model can be determined and the squared multiple correlation can be used as a measure of how well each endogenous variable is predicted by the model (Farrell, 1994). Multiple regression has several limitations to analyze path models. First, it involves a separate regression analysis for each endogenous (dependent) variable. Therefore, it cannot provide an overall test of the model fit (Farrell, 1994). This makes it difficult to compare alternative, competing models. Another limitation of regression analysis is the assumption that error terms are uncorrelated and that causal flow is unidirectional (Farrell, 1994). In other words no variable can be both a cause and effect of another variable.

Structural equation modeling is a method for studying relations among variables. A major advantage of structural

equation modeling (SEM) is the ability to test models about latent (i.e., unobserved) variables (Farrell, 1994). This requires the specification of a measurement model which depicts the relationships between the observed (i.e., the measures used in a study) and the latent variables which represent the hypothetical constructs or factors being measured. SEM also calculates all of the parameters in the model simultaneously and provides a test of the overall fit of a model to the data. This makes it possible to test competing models. SEM has the additional capability of being able to examine the consistency of a model across different groups of participants (Farrell, 1994). Accordingly, structural equation modeling was used to analyze these data.

A Conceptual Overview of SEM and Strategy for Analyses

The goal of structural equation modeling is to test hypotheses about relations among observed and latent variables (Bollen, 1989; Hoyle & Smith, 1994; McCrohan, 1995). This model is a statistical statement about the hypothesized relationships. The general structural equation model consists of two complementary models: the measurement model and the structural model (Hoyle & Smith, 1994).

Factor analysis is an example of a measurement model and a general linear model is an example of a structural model (Hoyle & Smith, 1994).

To evaluate these models, a sequence of analyses were planned. The strategy was as follows: First, group differences (intervention versus control group) in development of political empowerment would be examined. Then, a measurement model was to be evaluated. The consistency of the models across groups and over time would then be established. Third, structural models were to be evaluated. Consistency of the structural models across groups and time would also be established.

The Measurement Model

Measurement models depict the relations between observed and latent variables (Hoyle, 1991; Hoyle & Smith, 1994). In other words, measurement models are hypotheses about the relations between a set of observed variables (such as ratings or questionnaire items) and the constructs (i.e., unobserved variables) that they were designed to measure (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Figure 4 presents the measurement model for political empowerment proposed by this research.

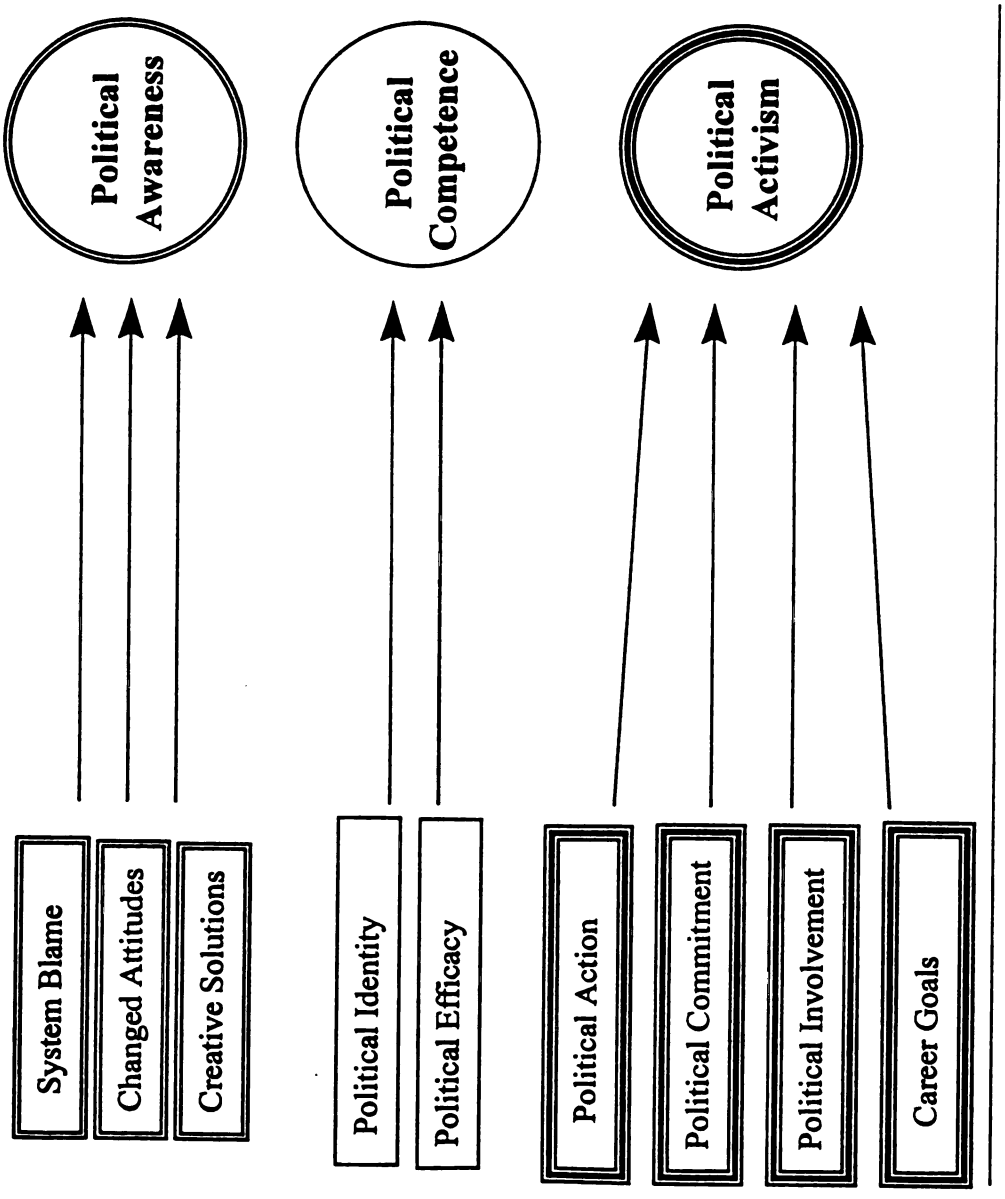


Figure 4. Measurement Model for Political Empowerment

As illustrated, the measurement model presents the indicators of the constructs (latent variables) associated with political empowerment. Specifically, three indicators of Political Awareness include System Blame, Attitudes toward Social Problems, and Creative Solutions. Two indicators of Political Competence include Political Identity and Political Efficacy. Four indicators of Political Activism include Political Action, Community Involvement, Political Commitment, and Social Service Career Goals. Observed variables (indicators) are represented by squares and unobserved variables (latent constructs) are represented by circles.

A benefit of structural equation modeling includes the specific acknowledgment of measurement error (i.e., random error, uniqueness) Each of the boxes which represent indicators of the latent variables Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism is influenced by error (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). An advantage of adding correlated errors of measurement to a measurement model is that it can result in improvements in the overall fit of the model and can sometimes uncover problematic sources of covariance among ratings or items of a measure (Hoyle &

Smith, 1994).

Another benefit of structural equation modeling is its ability to simultaneously evaluate many measurement equations. For example, in this study, each of the nine observed variables were originally believed to be influenced by one latent construct. Evaluation of the measurement model would involve simultaneously solving all 9 measurement equations implied by the measurement model presented previously in Figure 4.

In sum, the measurement model points out that each indicator (observed variable, such as Political Identity) is influenced by one latent variable (e.g., Political Competence) that it has in common with one or more other indicators (e.g., Political Efficacy), and a second latent variable (represented by a small circle) that accounts for error (the variability unique to that indicator).

Testing the Measurement Model

The evaluation of the measurement model was planned to include three steps. First the overall measurement model would be evaluated. Then, consistency (invariance) in the measurement model would be tested. Finally, the consistency of the measurement model across time would be tested

(Farrell, 1994).

The overall fit of the measurement model was to be determined by confirmatory factor analysis. Hoyle (1991) indicated that the fit of this model is very important because all possible latent models are nested within it. If confirmatory factor analysis does not indicate an acceptable fit of the model, it may indicate problems with the underlying structure of latent variables or measures (Farrell, 1994). In this case, the model would be modified and reevaluated as deemed appropriate.

Upon verifying that the measurement model accurately fit the data, multiple analyses would be used to determine the consistency of the model across different groups and over time (Farrell, 1994). Measurement consistency (or invariance) concerns the degree to which a construct or a measure of a construct retains its meaning across groups or over time (Pentz & Chou, 1994). Conceptually, consistency between groups can be understood by considering the question "is the meaning of variable x the same for groups a and b?" (Pentz & Chou, 1994). In structural equation modeling, the question is phrased, "does the same measurement model hold for groups a and b?" (Pentz & Chou, 1994). It is imperative

to ensure that the meaning of variables is the same across groups in order for further comparisons of correlations or means to be meaningful.

Bollen (1989) identified a set of hypotheses to examine any differences in the measurement model's consistency over time (or between the intervention and control groups). These hypotheses include: 1) the models have the same form (i.e., the same pattern of fixed and free parameters; 2) the factor loadings are identical across groups and time; 3) the factor loadings and measurement error variances are identical across groups and time; and 4) the factor loadings and the variances and covariances among measurement errors are identical across groups and time.

Confirmatory factor analyses were planned to test the consistency of the measurement model across groups and time. If patterns of factor loadings were found to be significantly different across time or groups, parameters would be estimated individually for each group and each time point. Selected parameters would be constrained to be identical across time and group. This is statistically equivalent to correcting the covariance matrix for attenuation. Structural path models are examined once the

measurement model is resolved.

The Structural Models

Structural models can indicate relations among exogenous (independent) and endogenous (dependent) variables, both observed or latent. A simple regression equation represents the simplest structural model. In regression analyses, an observed independent variable influences an observed dependent variable. First, the model to be estimated must be specified. Figure 5 depicts a representation of the full structural model that will be evaluated in this research.

The parameters to be estimated indicate the relations between two variables, and are constants. The free parameters (represented by straight arrows) are estimated form the obtained data. Fixed parameters are not estimated because no relations among those variables of interest are hypothesized.

At Time 1, Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism represent predictors (exogenous variables) and at Time 2, Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism represent outcomes (endogenous variables).

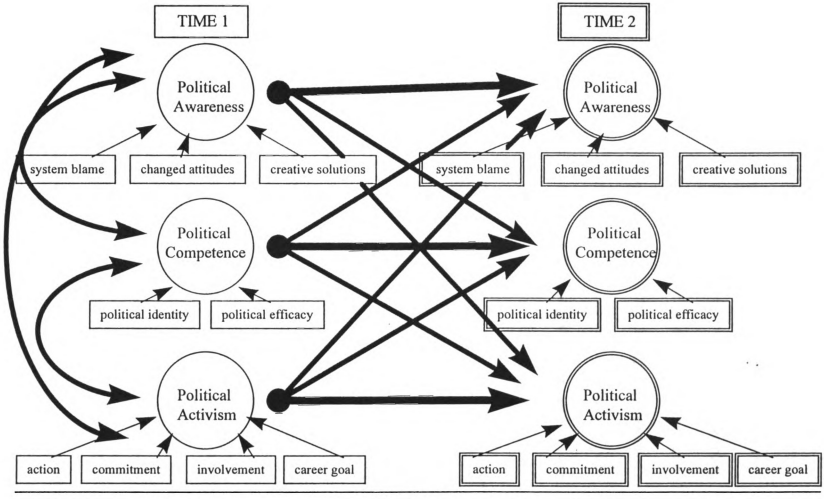


Figure 5. Full Model of Political Empowerment with Observed and Latent Constructs

This structural model is a statistical statement about the theoretical model that was discussed previously. In this "full" model, the latent variables are mutually influential on each other over time. In other words, all pathways between the Time 1 latent variables and the Time 2 latent variables are hypothesized to be free parameters and will be estimated from the data. However, due to the developmental aspect of these relationships among variables, no synchronized effects were hypothesized (relations among latent variables at the same time point) and the values of these fixed parameter are set at zero for statistical analyses. The degree to which the pattern of free and fixed parameters hypothesized in the model is consistent with the pattern of variances and covariances obtained from the set of observed data will be evaluated to indicate the adequacy of the model.

This model identifies some of the advantages of structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling bears no restrictions on the relations between exogenous variables (note the curved arrows between Political Awareness, Political Competence and Political Activism at Time 1). The curved arrows represent correlations between

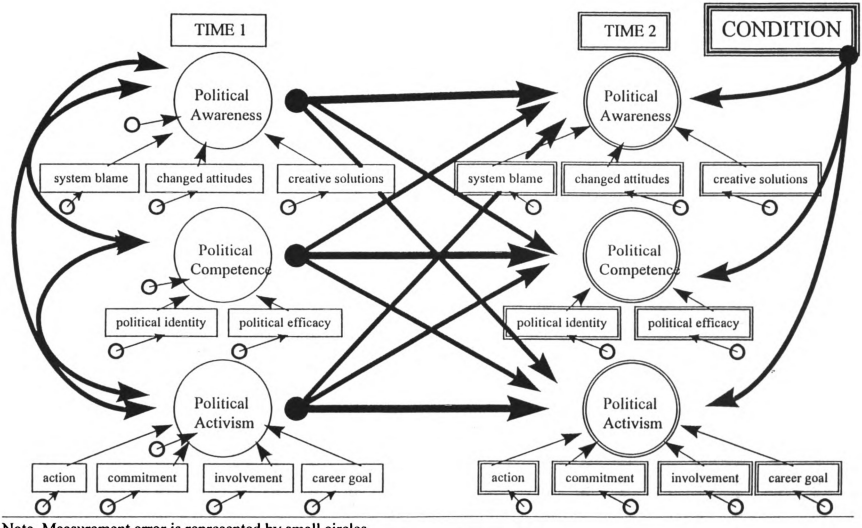
the predictors.

Also, in structural models, variables may be considered as both outcomes (endogenous variables) as well as predictors (exogenous variables) in a model. This is true of all three latent variables in these models.

Testing the General Structural Equation Model

The general structural equation models used in this research was planned to include both measurement and structural models. The inclusion of both models ensures that measures will be corrected for unreliability and preserve optimum flexibility in modeling relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Figure 6 presents the structural equation model to be evaluated.

There are multiple advantages to examining structural equation models. Some of these advantages have already been noted, including the ability of structural equation modeling to include correlations among predictors, correlations among error terms, the ability for the same variables to be both predictors and outcomes, and simultaneous evaluation of all causal pathways.



Note. Measurement error is represented by small circles.

Figure 6. Model of Political Empowerment With Condition Effects and Measurement Error

Autoregression effects (correlations among disturbance or random error terms) at both time points are also taken into account in structural equation modeling. These paths account for the relations between identical indicators at two time points that are not attributable to the relation between the substantive latent variables.

Finally, it is important to point out that all paths are evaluated simultaneously. First, the full path model is evaluated. Then, a nested comparison of alternative models can be assessed in order to arrive at the most parsimonious model that is also theoretically justified. In such post-hoc modifications there is the potential for both "chance" findings and sample "idiosyncracies" (McCrohan, 1995; Panter & Hoyle, 1995). However, post hoc modifications can be useful when grounded in theory. Due to the exploratory nature of this part of the research, post-hoc analyses which include testing a nested model, was deemed appropriate.

The path models will be tested using LISREL 8. First, the full model was planned to be evaluated. The fundamental hypothesis that is being tested in structural equation modeling is that the covariance matrix of the observed variables will be equal to the matrix implied by the

proposed model. The covariance matrix obtained by the data is a function of a set of parameters. If the hypothesized model was accurate, the covariance matrix implied by the model would reproduce the obtained matrix exactly (McCrohan, 1995). The residuals indicate the differences between the observed and implied covariance matrices. The extent to which the model fits the data will be evaluated by examining multiple "goodness of fit" indices.

The Goal of Parsimony

A main goal of this research is to articulate a model of political empowerment. The model that has been described was based upon the convergence of multiple theoretical positions. As such, it is quite complex. Initially, at least, it is important to include many components of political empowerment in order to avoid ignoring important relationships among variables.

Both the complexity of this model and the potential obstacles that data analyses can pose point to a related concern of parsimony. A major goal structural equation modeling is to identify the most efficient way to account for the preponderance of the data. Like a good theory, a simple model that can explain a lot of data is superior to a

complex model that accounts for limited data. The comprehensive model, on the other hand, is only justifiable if it can account for significantly more data than a more parsimonious model.

Due to the exploratory nature of this research, and to address the concerns of model complexity, a nested models was considered. The goal is to arrive at a parsimonious model of political empowerment that is both theoretically sound, with considerable explanatory power.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

Two research questions were examined in this research. First, it was expected that a university setting designed to promote political empowerment would be more successful than college as usual. To evaluate this hypothesis, ANCOVA analyses were performed to examine the effects of condition (class participation or college as usual) from Time 1 to Time 2. In other words, ANCOVA was used to test the effects of condition on each of the nine dependent variables at Time 2, using each of the nine Time 1 scores as the covariates. For this study, ANCOVA was considered a more powerful test than repeated measures ANOVA, in that Main Effects could be tested, rather than Interaction (Time X Condition) Effects. Simply stated, ANCOVA was the more direct test. ANCOVA was used to directly test comparisons of two Time 2 scores, based on a Time 1 score.

The second research question asked which causal

pathways between latent variables of political empowerment (political awareness, political competence, and political activism) would be salient with respect to the development of political empowerment. To investigate this research question, structural equation modeling was performed, using LISREL analyses.

Intervention Effects

It was hypothesized that three domains of political empowerment would include Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism. Three measures of Political Awareness included System Blame, Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems, and Creative Solutions. Two measures of Political Competence Included Political Efficacy and Political Identity. Four measures of Political Activism included Political Actions, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Social Service Career Goal. Table 13 reports means and standard deviations for all subscales of political empowerment at pretest and posttest, by condition. The following section reports on intervention effects on each domain of political empowerment.

Table 13. Means and Standard Deviations for Subscales of Political Empowerment at Pretest and Posttest, by Condition

Subscales	Intervention Group (n=54)		Control Group (n=52)	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
System Blame	3.28(.77)	3.37(.71)	3.23(.65)	3.33(.80)
Creative Solutions	3.79(.62)	3.85(.60)	3.77 (.59)	3.80 (.56)
Change Attitudes Toward SocialProblems	2.64(.84)	3.06(.80)	2.50(1.02)	2.78(.92)
Political Identity	3.19(.49)	3.16(.52)	3.19(.67)	3.07(.57)
Political Efficacy	3.15(.60)	3.06(.57)	3.34 (.59)	3.40(.68)
Political Action	1.72(1.46)	1.48(1.34)	1.48(1.21)	1.40(1.18)
Political Commitment	2.93(.67)	3.15(.72)	2.82(.74)	2.81(.75)
Community Involvement	1.09(1.20)	.93(1.18)	.71(.87)	.83(.88)
Social Service Career Goal	4.18 (.89)	4.09(.80)	4.13(.77)	3.80(.97)

Note. Standard deviations are reported in parentheses.

Intervention Effects on Political Awareness

Three subscales of Political Awareness were hypothesized to include System Blame, and Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems, and Creative Solutions. Table 14 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables)of Political Awareness at Time 1.

Table 14. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Awareness at Time 1

	System Blame	Creative Solutions	Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems
System Blame	1.00		
Creative Solutions	.04	1.00	
Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems	.02	.05	1.00

Note: **p<.01;*p<.05

Table 15 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables) of Political Awareness at Time 2. No significant correlations were found. While each subscale had adequate internal consistency, they appeared to be measuring independent constructs.

Table 15. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Awareness at Time 2

	System Blame	Creative Solutions	Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems
System Blame	1.00		
Creative Solutions	.03	1.00	
Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems	.12	-.10	1.00

Note: **p<.01;*p<.05

At Time 2, descriptive statistics for the Political Awareness subscales were as follows: Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems (M=2.78, SD=.92, Control Group; M=3.06, SD=.80, Experimental Group); System Blame (M=3.80, SD=.56, Control Group; M=3.85, SD=.60, Experimental Group); Creative Solutions (M=3.33, SD=.80, Control Group; M=3.37, SD=.71, Experimental Group).

ANCOVA analyses (controlling for Pretest/Time 1 scores), revealed that intervention effects on Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems was F(1,1)=2.32, n.s. See Table 16.

Table 16. Analysis of Covariance for Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	2.32	.13
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	20.67	.00
S within-group error	102	(.62)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

ANCOVA results for the other two subscales of Political Awareness were also not significant: System Blame, F(1,1)= .02, n.s; and Creative Solutions, F(1,1)=.17, n.s. See Tables 17 and 18, respectively.

Table 17. Analysis of Covariance for System Blame

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	.02	.90
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	25.50	.00
S within-group error	103	(.46)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

Table 18. Analysis of Covariance for Creative Solutions

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	.17	.68
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	37.57	.00
S within-group error	103	(.25)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

Intervention Effects on Political Competence

Two subscales of Political Competence were hypothesized to include Political Efficacy and Political Identity. Table 19 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables) of Political Competence at Time 1.

Table 19. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Competence at Time 1

	Political Identity	Political Efficacy
Political Identity	1.00	
Political Efficacy	-.07	1.00

Note: **p<.01;*p<.05

Table 20 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables) of Political Competence at Time 2. No significant correlations were found. While each subscale had adequate internal consistency (see Tables 7 and

8 respectively), they appeared to be measuring independent constructs.

Table 20. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Competence at Time 2

	Political Identity	Political Efficacy
Political Identity	**1.00**	
Political Efficacy	**.06**	**1.00**

Note: **p<.01;*p<.05

At Time 2, Descriptive statistics for Political Competence were as follows: Political Identity (M=3.07, SD=.57, Control Group; M=3.16, SD=.52, Experimental Group); Political Efficacy (M=3.40, SD=.68, Control Group; M=3.06, SD=.57, Experimental Group). Refer to back to Table 13 for means and standard deviations at pretest and posttest, by condition.

ANCOVA analyses for the Political Identity scale were not significant; F(1,1)= .91. See Table 21.

Table 21. Analysis of Covariance for Political Identity

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	.91	.34
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	20.55	.00
S within-group error	103	(.25)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
**** p<.001; * p<.05.**

Intervention effects on Political Efficacy were significant, but in the opposite direction than hypothesized $F(1,1) = 5.35$, $p<.05$. See Table 22.

Table 22. Analysis of Covariance for Political Efficacy

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	5.35*	.02
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	83.26	.00
S within-group error	103	(.22)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
**** p<.001; * p<.05.**

Intervention Effects on Political Activism

Four subscales of Political Activism were hypothesized to include Political Action, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Social Service Career Goals. The intercorrelations among these subscales were higher than

those of the subscales of other constructs of political empowerment. Table 23 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables) of Political Activism at Time 1.

Table 23. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Activism at Time 1

		1.	2.	3.	4.
1.	Political Action	1.00			
2.	Political Commitment	.38*	1.00		
3.	Community Involvement	.23*	.22*	1.00	
4.	Career Goal	.18	.30**	.11	1.00

Note: ** p<.01; * p<.05

Table 24 reports the intercorrelations between the subscales (observed variables) of Political Activism at Time 2.

Table 24. Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables of Political Activism at Time 2

		1.	2.	3.	4.
1.	Political Action	1.00			
2.	Political Commitment	.24**	1.00		
3.	Community Involvement	.14	.05	1.00	
4.	Career Goal	.11	.45**	-.03	1.00

Note: ** p<.01; * p<.05

ANCOVA analyses revealed that the intervention did have a significant effect on one of the subscales, political commitment $F(1,1) = 4.81$, $p<.05$. See Table 25.

Table 25. Analysis of Covariance for Political Commitment

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	4.81*	.03
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	26.98	.00
S within-group error	102	(.43)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
**** p<.001; * p<.05.**

The intervention did not have a significant effect on the other three subscales; political action $F(1,1)=.04$, n.s., community involvement $F(1,1)=.19$, n.s., and social service career goals $F(1,1)= 2.86$, n.s. A trend for social service career goals is noted. See Tables 26, 27, and 28, respectively.

Table 26. Analysis of Covariance for Political Action

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	.04	.84
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	40.89	.00
S within-group error	103	(1.15)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

Table 27. Analysis of Covariance for Community Involvement

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	.19	.67
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	29.36	.00
S within-group error	103	(.86)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

Table 28. Analysis of Covariance for Social Service Career Goal

Source	df	F	p
Condition	1	2.86	.09
Pretest Measure Covariate	1	9.20	.00
S within-group error	103	(.72)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors; S = subjects.
** p<.001; * p<.05.

Summary of ANCOVA Analyses

ANCOVA analyses were performed to investigate intervention effects on the development of political empowerment over time. With Time 1 scores as the covariates, once pretest scores were controlled for, very few intervention effects were found. Specifically, a significant effect was found for Political Commitment and a trend was found for Social Service Career Goals. A significant effect was found for Political Efficacy, but in the opposite direction than was hypothesized. In other words, the intervention group scored lower on Political Efficacy at Time 2 than the control group.

In sum, ANCOVA analyses were conducted to test the intervention effects on three domains of political empowerment, including Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism. No intervention effects were found for Political Awareness, as analyses for each of the three subscales (System Blame, Creative Solutions, Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems) yielded insignificant relationships. Some support was found for the presence of intervention effects on political competence, specifically the Political Efficacy subscale. However, this

intervention effect was in the opposite direction than hypothesized, indicating that participating in the politically empowering intervention actually led to decreased political competence compared to not participating. No condition effect was found for the Political Identity subscale of Political Competence. Some evidence was found for the intervention effects on Political Activism, as participating in the politically empowering intervention did lead to increased Political Commitment compared to not participating. While no intervention effects for Political Action or Community Involvement were found, a trend for Social Service Career Goals was found.

Testing Models of Political Empowerment

Recall the hypothesized model was composed of three latent constructs, including Political Awareness, Political Competence and Political Activism. Each latent construct was originally hypothesized to be supported by multiple indicators (refer back to Figure 6). Before the empirical examination of a latent model with multiple indicators can be performed, it is necessary to resolve the measurement model (refer back to Figure 4). This is accomplished by conducting confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to determine

the adequacy of the hypothesized factor loadings, the degree of measurement model fit, and latent construct intercorrelations (Newcomb, 1994). The factor loadings of the CFA are important because all latent models are nested within it. Insignificant factor loadings can indicate problems with the underlying structure of the measurement model.

As suspected, based on the pattern of intercorrelations among observed variables discussed earlier, the measurement model could not be resolved. In other words, a factor solution could not be obtained; the indicators of each hypothesized latent construct did not load on that factor. The CFA model was inadequate and the underlying structure of the measurement model needed to be reconsidered.

Consistency of the Measures Across Time

The consistency of the original model across time points could not be established using CFA. However, consistency of the measures could still be assessed by observing patterns of intercorrelations across both time points. This assessment revealed fairly poor consistency, in general. For example, System Blame was not significantly correlated with any other measures at Time 1, but was

negatively correlated with Political Efficacy at Time 2. Creative Solutions was significantly correlated with Community Involvement and Social Service Career Goals at Time 1, but was only significantly correlated with Political Action at Time 2. Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems was significantly correlated with Political Identity at Time 1 , but was significantly correlated with Political Action, Political Commitment, and Social Service Career Goals at Time 2.

Political Efficacy and Political Commitment appeared to have the most consistent pattern of intercorrelations across time. Political Efficacy was significantly correlated with both Political Action and Political Commitment at both time points. Political Commitment was significantly correlated with both Political Efficacy and Social Service Career Goals at both time points. However, there was some inconsistency in each measure as well. For example, Political Efficacy was significantly correlated with Social Service Career Goal at Time 1 only, and System Blame at Time 2, only. Similarly, Political Commitment was significantly correlated with Community Involvement at Time 1 only and Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems at Time 2, only. Table 29

displays the complete pattern of intercorrelations for each of the observed variables at Time 1 and Time 2.

Consistency of Measures Across Groups

Random assignment should ensure consistency of measures across groups at Time 1. However, at Time 2 patterns of intercorrelations across groups should be examined. Refer to Table 30 for correlations among observed variables by group, at Time 2. Consistency of the measures across groups at Time 2 was weak. In fact, no similar patterns of significant correlations were identified. Patterns of correlations between Political Identity and System Blame, as well as between community involvement and political commitment were similar (all approaching zero). Political Efficacy and Social Service Career goals had low correlations for both groups. A trend was noted for correlations between Political Actions and Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems. Overall, measures were fairly inconsistent across groups at Time 2.

Testing the Structural Equation Model

The originally hypothesized models (including both measurement and structural models) were dependent upon resolving the measurement model and arriving at a three

Table 29. Scale Intercorrelations for System Blame, Creative Solutions, Changed Attitude Toward Social Problems, Political Identity, Political Efficacy, Political Action, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Career Goal Scales at Time 1 and Time 2

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1.System Blame	1.00	.03	.12	.03	-.31**	.02-	.12	-.13	.07
2.Creative Solutions	.04	1.00	-.10	.15	.17	.19*	.08	.06	.14
3.Changed Att. T. Social Problems	.02	.05	1.00	.13	-.14	.22*	.27**	.05	.26
4.Political Identity	-.03	.12	.24*	1.00	.06	.23*	.18	.09	.17
5.Political Efficacy	.00	-.13	-.10	-.07	1.00	.20*	.30**	.03	.05
6.Political Action	-.03	.17	.13	.09	.21*	1.00	.24**	.14	.11
7.Political Commitment	.03	.14	.16	.10	.33**	.38**	1.00	.05	.45**
8.Community Involvement	-.10	.25	*.03	.00	-.01	.23*	.22*	1.00	-.03
9.Social Service Career Goal	.09	.25*	.04	.13	-.21*	.18	.30**	.11	1.00

Note: Time 1 correlations are depicted in the lower diagonal of the matrix. Time 2 correlations are depicted in the upper diagonal of the matrix.

Note: **$p<.01$; *$p<.05$

Table 30. Scale Intercorrelations for System Blame, Creative Solutions, Changed Attitude Toward Social Problems, Political Identity, Political Efficacy, Political Action, Political Commitment, Community Involvement, and Career Goal Scales at Time 2, By Group

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1.System Blame	1.00	.11	.20	.07	-.34*	.11	-.05	.13	.29*
2.Creative Solutions	-.06	1.00	-.15	.04	.23	.23	.20	.01	.25
3.Changed Att. T. Social Problems	.00	-.06	1.00	.07	-.13	.24	.27	.07	.19
4.Political Identity	-.02	.26.	19	1.00	.07	.32*	.08	.05	.19
5.Political Efficacy	-.27	.15	-.05	.11	1.00	.19	.51	.11	.10
6.Political Action	-.07	.16	.18	.14	.25	1.00	.32*	-.01	.19
7.Political Commitment	-.22	-.06	.21	.26	.23	.16	1.00	.04	.27
8.Community Involvement	-.36**	.10	.01	.12	-.01	.24	.03	1.00	-.19
9.Social Service	-.24	.00	.30*	.11	.11	.02	.63**	-.07	1.00

Note: Experimental Group (N=54) correlations are depicted in the lower diagonal of the matrix. Control Group (N=52) correlations are depicted in the upper diagonal.

Note: **p<.01; *p<.05

factor solution, to confirm that each latent construct was supported by multiple indicators. Without a resolved CFA solution, support for latent constructs with multiple indicators was lacking.

Despite lack of support for the measurement model, the structural model could still be evaluated. However, limitations of evaluation of structural models only should be noted. First, testing the consistency of measurement models can be assessed through CFA. This is equivalent to correcting a covariance matrix for attenuation. Without a resolved measurement model, correcting the covariance matrix for attenuation is preferred. Second, resolving the measurement model allows for the acknowledgment of measurement error. As noted earlier, an advantage of adding correlated errors of measurement to a measurement model is that it can result in improvements in the overall fit of the model (Hoyle & Smith, 1994).

Since each latent construct was not supported by CFA, reconsidering the indicators of each latent construct was important before proceeding to test the structural model. For each latent construct, with the exception of Political Activism, there was little commonality among the observed

variables. In other words, each observed variable appeared to be measuring independent constructs. In order to test the latent model, one strategy is to identify the "best" measure of each latent variable. This was completed by examining the statistical properties and theoretical justification of each measure. Statistically, the decision to eliminate some measures from further analyses can be based on less than adequate internal consistency, consistency of a measure across time points, and ceiling effects. Theoretically, "best" measures can be identified by reviewing the literature for indication of a comprehensive measure of each latent variable, as well as examining the items of each scale, conceptually.

Identifying an Indicator of Political Awareness

Recall the observed variables of Political Awareness were originally hypothesized to include System Blame, Creative Solutions, and Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems. The Means for System Blame (3.28) and Creative Solutions (3.79) indicated possible ceiling effects for those measures. Furthermore, Creative Solutions had low internal consistency (alpha=.53). No conceptual reason for retaining Creative Solutions over the other indicators of

Political Awareness could be put forth. Therefore, Creative Solutions was dropped.

Both System Blame and Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems had poor consistency across time. There was no indication of ceiling effects for Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems. Furthermore, Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems appeared to capture the concept of Political Awareness most completely. As Sayles (1984) noted, attitudes provide a key to who participates in political movement. As attitudes appear to be a stronger conceptual indicator of Political Awareness than blaming systems, Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems was identified as the best measure of Political Awareness.

Identifying an Indicator of Political Competence

Originally, both Political Identity and Political Efficacy were conceived to be indicators of the latent variable, Political Competence. However, CFA did not support this notion. Internal consistency of both measures appeared to be adequate (alpha=.65 for Political Efficacy Scale; alpha=.79 for the Political Identity scale). No ceiling effects were noted. Political Efficacy was the more consistent measure across time points, as it had a similar

pattern of correlations at both time points. Political Identity, on the other hand, was correlated with Political Action, Political Commitment, and Social Service Career Goals at Time 1, but only Political Action at Time 2.

Conceptually, Political Efficacy also seemed to reflect the idea of Political Competence better than Political Identity. For example, in Zimmerman's (1995) nomological network, efficacy is noted as main component of empowerment. Identity, on the other hand, has been associated with specific forms of political empowerment, only, such as Black Empowerment or Feminist Empowerment. Therefore, Political Efficacy was identified as the best measure of Political Competence.

Identifying an Indicator of Political Activism

At first glance, an argument could be made to retain the multiple indicators of Political Activism. The intercorrelations among the indicators of Political Activism denoted some support for the originally hypothesized measurement model, as significant correlations among the subscales were noted. However, some of these subscales were also significantly correlated with indicators of other latent constructs. For example, at Time 1, significant

correlations between Career Goals and Creative Solutions (r=.25; p<.05); Community Involvement and Creative Solutions (r=; p<.05); Political Commitment and Political Efficacy (r=.33; p<.01); and Political Action and Political Efficacy (r=.21; p<.05) were found. Also, at Time 2, the pattern of intercorrelations among observed variables was not stable. For example, Career Goals was no longer correlated with Creative Solutions (r=.14, n.s), but was significantly correlated with Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems (r=.26; p<.01). Political Commitment was also correlated with Changed Attitudes at Time 2 (r=.27; p<.01). At Time 2, Political Action was correlated with Creative Solutions (r=.19; p<.05); Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems (r=.22; p<.05); Political Identity (r=.23; p<.05); as well as Political Efficacy (r=,20; p<.05), each representing an indicator of other latent constructs. Refer back to Table 29 for intercorrelations of all subscales of political empowerment at Time 1 and Time 2.

Based upon this inconsistency, a decision was made to identify the best measure of Political Activism. Two problems were noted with the Social Service Career Goals scale. Conceptually, it referred to a very narrow type of

activism. Moreover, the internal consistency of the scale was poor (alpha=.48) and a ceiling effect was noted. Conceptually, the Community Involvement measure was also inadequate, as it only reflected involvement that may or may not be "political" in nature..

The Political Commitment indicator had adequate internal consistency (alpha=.69), while the Political Action indicator had less adequate internal consistency (alpha=.59). No ceiling effects were noted and the patterns of intercorrelations across time points were similar. Conceptually, the Political Action scale reflected mainstream political activities, with items such as "going to hear a political person". Political Commitment reflected an activist orientation with items such as "a lifelong commitment to social change". Keiffer (1984), as well as Bargad and Hyde (1991), identified commitment as a culminating stage of political empowerment. Because Political Commitment had higher internal consistency than Political Action, and appeared to reflect the concept of political activism better than specific actions, Political Commitment was identified as the best indicator of Political Activism.

Summary of Revised Latent Constructs

Because each latent variable was not represented by multiple indicators, as originally hypothesized, a reconsideration of the latent model was necessary. In other words, to test the structural model of political empowerment without the support of multiple indicators for each latent construct, an alternative strategy to measure the latent model must be used. One strategy is to identify a single measure of each latent variable. Disregarding some measures and identifying others as superior indicators of each latent variable is accomplished through empirical and theoretical evaluation. After examining each indicator both empirically and conceptually, Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems was identified as the best indicator of Political Awareness. Political Efficacy was identified as the best indicator of Political Competence. Political Commitment was identified as the best indicator of Political Activism.

Testing Structural Models of Political Empowerment

In keeping with the spirit of the originally proposed analyses, a two-part strategy was employed to evaluate competing models of political empowerment. First, a full structural model was evaluated, including only free

parameters (represented by straight arrows) between exogenous variables at Time 1 and endogenous variables at Time 2. Second, in an effort to identify a parsimonious model of political empowerment, some parameters were fixed (not estimated; arrows removed) and a nested model was evaluated. The fit of each of these competing models to the data was assessed. Furthermore, the power to identify whether each particular path coefficient was assessed via examination of modification indices. Refer to Table 31.

Testing the Full Latent Model of Political Empowerment

This model was tested via estimation with analysis of covariance structures in LISREL 8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). The structural equation model contains the relationships among Condition, Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism. See the correlation matrix in Table 32. Only this uncorrected correlation matrix was used for the LISREL analyses, because correcting for attenuation resulted in a matrix that was not positive definite, a requirement for model identification in SEM.

Two types of results are important in structural equation modeling (Klem, 1995). First, estimates of the magnitude of the hypothesized effects are reported in path

Table 31. Modification Indices for Each Hypothesized Path and Power to Identify Whether Each Particular Path Coefficient is Significant

Path	Modification Index	Expected Change*	Power**
Condition to Political Awareness (Time 2)	1.02	.16	.17
Political Awareness (Time 1) to Political Awareness (Time 2)	14.10	.34	.96
Political Competence (Time 1) to Political Awareness (Time 2)	2.53	-.22	.36
Political Activism (Time 1) to Political Awareness (Time 2)	4.07	.24	.52
Condition to Political Competence (Time 2)	5.96	-.23	.68
Political Awareness (Time 1) to Political Competence (Time 2)	2.57	-.08	.36
Political Competence (Time 1) to Political Competence (Time 2)	38.35	-.64	.99
Political Activism (Time 1) to Political Competence (Time 2)	2.07	.10	.29
Condition to Political Activism (Time 2)	6.03	.33	.68
Political Awareness (Time 1) to Political Activism (Time 2)	.35	-.04	.09
Political Competence (Time 1) to Political Activism (Time 2)	.85	.11	.15
Political Activism (Time 1) to Political Activism (Time 2)	17.29	.46	.99

Note: *"Expected Change" refers to the prediction of the decrease in Chi-square that will be obtained if that particular path is introduced into the model.

**Power to find significant path coefficients is estimated from the modication indices.

diagrams. The sign of the path coefficients should be consistent with the predictions and the size of the coefficients should be statistically significant.

Second, examining the extent to which the hypothesized model is consistent with the observed data is reported via goodness of fit indices. In general, three conditions are considered to determine whether the data fit the proposed model. First, a chi-square goodness-of-fit test should be nonsignificant, indicating that there is no difference between the data and the model. In other words, a nonsignificant chi-square finding is one indicator that the data fit the proposed model. However, with a large number of parameters being estimated, a chi-square test may be too powerful, therefore two additional criteria are used to determine goodness-of-fit (Hayduk, 1987; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). These include the goodness-of-fit index (GFI)/adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) (which should be above .90 and .80, respectively), and the root mean square residual (RMR), which should be close to zero (Hayduk, 1987; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). However, RMR does not take parsimony into account. Therefore, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) may be a better fit index to

Table 32. Correlation Matrix for Political Awareness, Political Competence, Political Activism, and Condition at Time 1 and Time 2

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Political Awareness (Time 1)	1.00						
2. Political Competence (Time 1)	-.10	1.00					
3. Political Activism (Time 1)	.16	.33**	1.00				
4. Political Awareness (Time 2)	.42**	-.14	.21*	1.00			
5. Political Competence (Time 2)	-.17	.68**	.27**	.30**	1.00		
6. Political Activism (Time 2)	.03	.19	.46**	.27**	.30**	1.00	
7. Condition	.08	-.16	.08	.16	.27**	.23**	1.00

Note: **p<.01; *p<.05

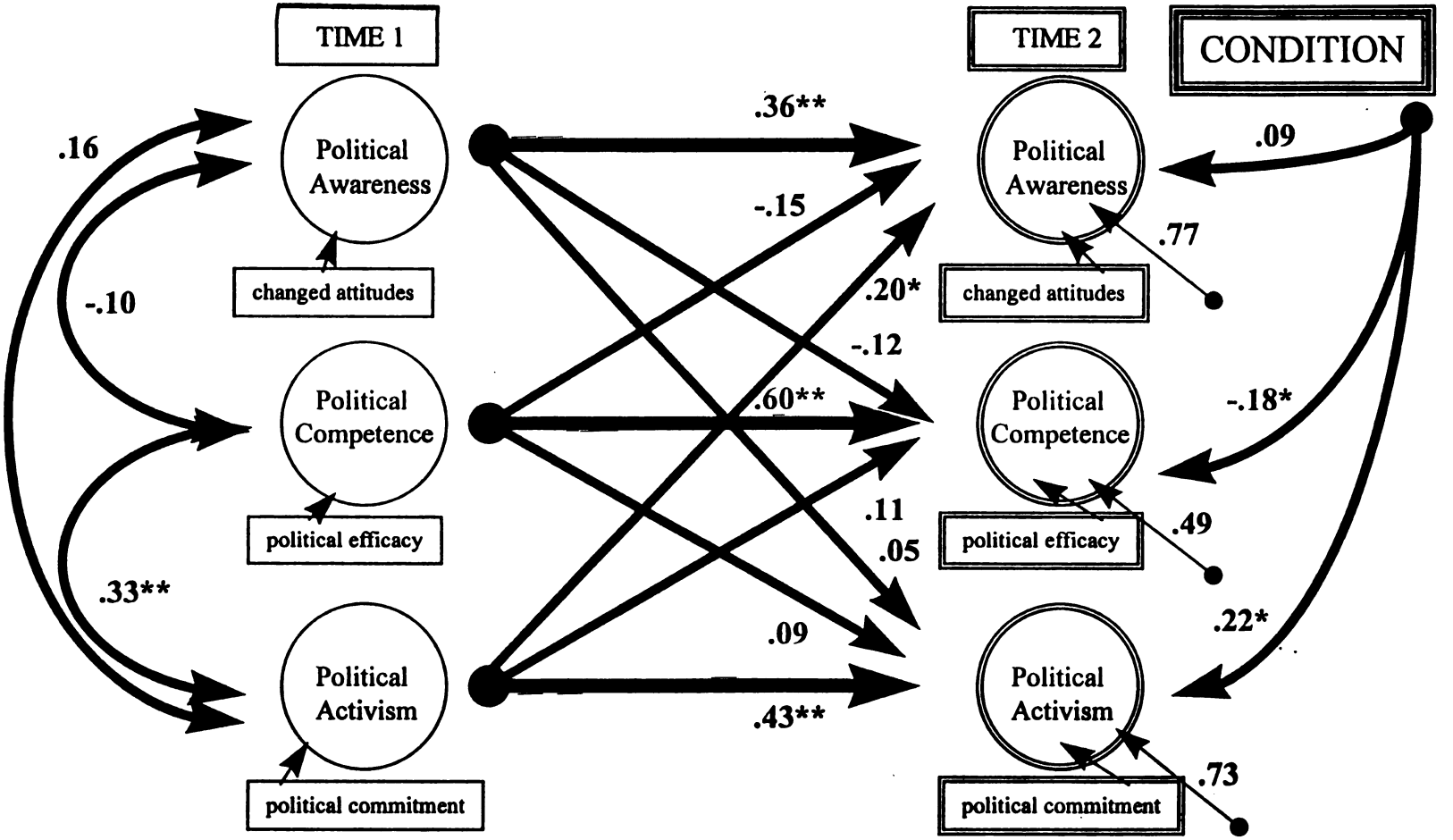
report. This index should be close to .05. This index is based on the assumption that the model fits the data and is adjusted for complexity. This is a more relative index and it does take parsimony into account. Each of the four goodness of fit indices were examined.

First, the sizes of the path coefficients were considered and many paths were statistically significant. Figure 7 presents the empirical evaluation of this model.

Many of the goodness-of-fit indices were within their appropriate range of values, providing some evidence that the data fit this model. With the number of parameters estimated, it is not surprising that the chi-square test was significant $\chi^2(3) = 15.84$, $p = .01$. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was .92, the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) was .64, the root mean square residual (RMR) was .03, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .21.

Summary of Results of Full Latent Structural Model

Condition was a significant predictor of both Political Competence and Political Activism at Time 2. All path coefficients were not positive, as predicted, however. Condition predicted Politcal Competence in the opposite



Note. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Figure 7. Empirical Evaluation of the Comprehensive Model of Political Empowerment

direction than hypothesized.

Political Awareness at Time 1 was a significant predictor of Political Awareness at Time 2. Political Competence at Time 1 was a significant predictor of Political Competence at Time 2. Political Activism at Time 1 was a significant predictor of Political Awareness and Political Activism at Time 2.

Many causal pathways were not significant in this full latent model. No significant predictions were found between Political Awareness at Time 1 and Political Competence or Political Activism at Time 2. Similarly, no significant pathways were found between Political Competence at Time 1 and Political Activism at Time 2 nor was there a significant prediction for Political Activism at Time 1 and Political Competence at Time 2. Also, Condition did not appear to be a predictor of Political Awareness at Time 2. A trend for Political Competence at Time 1 predicting Political Awareness at Time 2 was noted.

Many of the fit indices were within acceptable range, finding some support that the model fit the data. However, AGFI was particularly low, as it fell below the criteria of .80, and RMSEA was particularly high at .21, far above the

.05 criteria.

Testing a Nested Model of Political Empowerment

Nested comparisons of alternative models can be assessed in order to arrive at a parsimonious model. Examining non-significant causal pathways and t-values can aid in the decision of which pathways to eliminate from the analysis of subsequent nested models. As noted earlier, there exists the potential for chance findings and sample "idiosyncracies" in post hoc modifications (McCrohan, 1995; Panter & Hoyle, 1995). However, a simple model that explains a lot of data is considered superior to a complex model that explains little data. For this reason, post hoc analyses can be useful to aid in the development of parsimonious models.

A number of pathways were dropped from the original model including pathways between Political Awareness at Time 1 and Political Competence and Political Action at Time 2, Political Competence at Time 1 and Political Activism at Time 2, Political Activism at Time 1 and Political Competence at Time 2, and Condition and Political Awareness at Time 2. Results from the nested model follow.

The size of the path coefficients was considered and

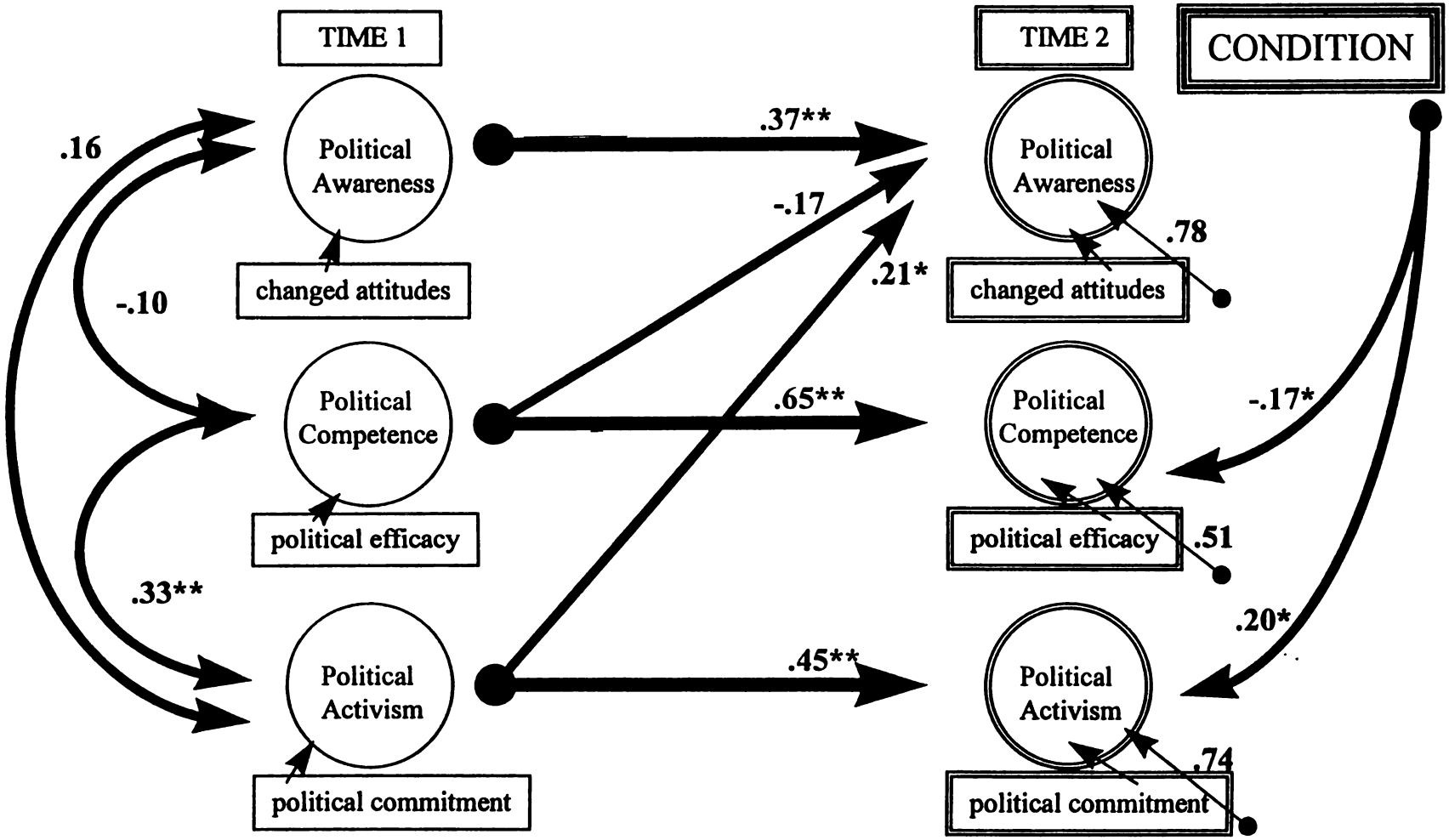
all paths were statistically significant. Figure 8 presents the empirical evaluation of this model.

The goodness-of-fit indices were within their appropriate range of values, indicating that the data fit this model. Again, with the number of parameters estimated, it is not surprising that the chi-square test was significant $\chi^2(8) = 22.40$, $p = .01$. The goodness of fit index (GFI) was .95, the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was .81, the root mean square residual (RMR) was .04, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .13.

Summary of Results of Nested Structural Model

All pathways were significant, with the notable exception of the pathway between Political Competence at Time 1 and Political Awareness at Time 2. A trend was noted for this pathway. Also notable was that the pathway between Condition and Political Competence was in the opposite direction than predicted.

To summarize the results of the nested model, evidence was found that Condition predicted Political Competence and Political Activism at Time 2. Political Awareness at Time 1 predicted Political Awareness at Time 2. Political



Note. ** p <.01; * p <.05

Figure 8. Empirical Evaluation of the Nested Model of Political Empowerment

Competence at Time 1 predicted Political Competence at Time 2 and a trend was noted for Political Awareness at Time 2. Political Activism at Time 1 predicted Political Activism and Political Awareness at Time 2. Overall, the fit indices indicated that the nested model fit the observed data better than the full structural model. In particular, RMSEA dropped from .21 in the full model to .14 in the nested model.

A Search for Greater Parsimony

As noted earlier, a strategy of post hoc analyses to arrive a parsimonious solution involves examining t-values and fit indices to determine which pathways to remove form the original full model. The strategy involves removing paths one at a time until a parsimonious solution that accounts for much of the data is arrived at. It may be noted that the nested model described above included one non-significant path, from Political Competence at Time 1 to Political Awareness at Time 2. In an attempt to find a more parsimonious solution, a nested model with that particular path removed was examined.

The results of the resulting model included the following fit indices: $\chi^2(9)=25.87$, $p=.01$; GFI=.94;

AGFI=.81; RMR=.04; RMSEA=.14. While AGFI remained the same, all other fit indices revealed a worse model fit with the non-significant path removed. While the path was non-significant, it contributed to the overall goodness of fit of the model. Therefore, the nested model presented earlier, with one non-significant path was deemed the most parsimonious model that fit the data.

Comparison of the Full and Nested Models

Table 33 depicts the differences in fit indices for the competing latent models.

Table 33. Fit Indices for Competing Models of Political Empowerment

Model	χ^2	df	p	NFI	PFI	CFI	χ^2difference	NFI change
Full Model	15.84	3	.005	.91	.10	.92		
Nested Model	22.40	8	.02	.87	.33	.91		
Difference between Full and Nested Models							6.56	.04

Note. NFI = Normed Fit Index; PFI= Parsimonious Fit Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index.

As Jöreskog (1978) noted, differences in chi-square values may be more informative than the chi-squares themselves. A useful strategy for comparing the fit of competing models is to note the chi-square/degrees of

freedom ratio (Hoelter, 1983). As the ratio decreases, the fit of the given model improves. From this perspective, the fit of the nested model is better than the fit of the full model. The ratio decreased from 15.84/3 to 22.40/8, approximately from 5/1 to 3/1.

A more formal approach is to conduct a Likelihood Ration Chi-Square Test. This is a strict test to determine whether two models are statistically different. To conduct the Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square Test, the difference in chi-squares for the two models (6.56) was referred to a chi-square table with the degrees of freedom equal to the difference in degrees of freedom for the two models (5). With p=.05, and df=5, a χ^2 difference of 11.07 would indicate a significant difference between the two models. The χ^2 difference (6.56) was not significant.

Lack of significance can be interpreted to mean that the two models do not differ in fit. However, this is a very stringent test. In fact, it is possible to discover that a parsimonious model is a worse fit of the data than a more complex model. An overall assessment of the difference in χ^2 values, decrease in χ^2/df ratio, all the fit indices and path coefficients suggests that the nested model is a

better fit of the data than the full model.

Summary of Model Testing

The planned analyses included resolving a measurement model, examining a structural model, and a competing nested structural model. The hypothesized measurement model could not be resolved using CFA. Consistency of the indicators across groups was as expected with random assignment. Consistency of the indicators across time points was fairly poor, in general.

A strategy to identify one measure of each latent construct (in the absence of support for multiple indicators) and then test a competing structural model as originally planned was used. First, a full structural model, with all parameters between Time 1 and Time 2 free, was examined. Some support that this model fit the data was found. However, the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index was particularly low.

Next, a nested, latent model of political empowerment, with many fixed parameters (i.e, no hypothesized relationships), was evaluated. Parameters were fixed after examining t-values and path coefficients in the full latent model. While on path was non-significant, data suggested

that it contributed to the overall fit of the model. The resulting model fit the data better than the original. All fit indices were within an acceptable range. Support for a more parsimonious model was found.

Chapter 4

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Two goals of this research were to evaluate the effects of an intervention that was designed to promote the development of political empowerment and to articulate a model of political empowerment that is both theoretically and empirically sound. This project was moderately successful on both counts.

Summary of Major Findings

First, intervention effects were evaluated using ANCOVA analyses. Second, a model of political empowerment was tested using LISREL 8. Following is a summary of the major findings of each of these analyses.

Major Findings from the ANCOVA Analyses

The first goal addressed in this research was to assess whether people who took a college course with a political empowering component become more politically empowered than people who were placed on a waiting list. Evidence was

found indicating that individuals randomly assigned to participate in the intervention had increased levels of Political Commitment (an indicator of the latent construct, Political Activism) compared to individuals who did not participate. In contrast, those who participated had decreased levels of Political Efficacy (an indicator of Political Competence) upon completion of the intervention compared to those who did not participate. Also, a trend was obtained, suggesting that individuals who participated in the intervention were more likely to plan careers in the field of social services. Those who participated in the intervention were no more likely to have increased Political Awareness (as indicated by measures of System Blame, Creative Solutions, or Changed Attitudes Toward Social Problems) than individuals randomly assigned to a control group (waiting list).

In conclusion, there was some indication that participants in the experimental condition (empowering college course) did have some increased levels of Political Activism and some decreased levels of Political Competence at the end of the intervention compared to participants in the control condition (waiting list). The college class did

not appear to have an effect on Political Awareness.

Major Findings from the LISREL Analyses

A second goal was to articulate a model of political empowerment. A two-part strategy included testing a full latent model and also examining a competing nested latent model. The nested model was a better fit with the data, as indicated by the goodness of fit indices. Additionally, the nested model was more parsimonious than the full model, while also accounting for more data.

A nested latent model was found to fit the observed data, as indicated by multiple goodness of fit indices. According to this parsimonious model of political empowerment, Condition predicted both Political Competence and Political Activism. However, Condition predicted Political Competence in the opposite direction than hypothesized. In other words, people who completed this intervention (empowering college course) had decreased levels of Political Competence and increased levels of Political Activism than people who were randomly assigned to a waiting list. In sum, this finding is consistent with the ANCOVA analyses noted above.

Furthermore, this model provided evidence that, for

this sample, levels of Political Awareness, Political Competence, and Political Activism at the end of the 36 week interim were each predicted by their respective Time 1 level.

Perhaps the more interesting prediction from this model is that Political Activism at Time 1 significantly predicted Political Awareness at Time 2. In other words, the commitment to social justice preceded attitude changes, in this sample. Also noteworthy was a negative trend (not significant) between Political Competence at Time 1 and Political Awareness at Time 2. If this trend is accurate, increased levels of competence and efficacy may predict less "changed" levels of Political Awareness at Time 2. In sum, the data did support a meaningful model of political empowerment.

This model posits that over the course of two college semesters (36 weeks), an intervention in a university setting, designed to promote political empowerment will effect one's level of Political Activism, as measured by Political Commitment, more than typical college courses. Furthermore, this model reveals that, for this sample, an increased activist orientation and sense of political

commitment led to increased political empowerment over time, regardless of university-structured empowering interventions. Specifically, feeling politically active led to feeling politically aware, as evidenced by increases in changed attitudes. These findings suggest that by sparking an activist orientation and sense of political commitment, political awareness may follow. Additionally, this study has provided evidence that university courses can be designed to promote political activism and commitment, perhaps acting as a catalyst for the process of political empowerment to occur.

Conceptual Contributions of this Study to the Literature

This study offered a conceptual framework for investigating political empowerment. Both Zimmerman's (1995) nomological network of empowerment and Keiffer's (1984) model of empowerment can be critiqued. This study also attempted to address the process of empowerment over time. Finally, this study may have uncovered a complexity regarding the role of Political Competence and efficacy in the developmental process of political empowerment.

Critique of Zimmerman's (1995) Nomological Network of Empowerment

First, this research found some empirical support for Zimmerman's (1995) model, which included interpersonal, interactional, and behavioral dimensions. A subscale of the interpersonal dimension would include efficacy (the indicator of Political Competence in this research). The interactional dimension was represented by changes in attitudes, or Political Awareness, in this research. The behavioral dimension would include Political Activism. Zimmerman (1995) stated that empowerment was not merely an interpersonal construct, but should include the evaluation of behavioral and interactional constructs as well. This research supported this notion, adding that a behavioral dimension, Political Activism appears to drive the development of political empowerment, at least for this particular sample. In contrast to Zimmerman's (1995) nomological network, however, this research discovered that Political Efficacy, the indicator of Political Competence, actually decreased significantly as a result of participating in the university intervention.

A Note About Political Competence and Efficacy

The intervention appeared to have a negative effect on Political Competence (as measured by Political Efficacy). This was contrary to the effect that was expected and contradicted past research findings as well. It may be that this was a fluke finding that could not be expected to be replicated. In this case, it may be discarded. However, it is also possible (as the empirical evaluation suggested) that the intervention effects were accurate and that certain "empowering" interventions do cause decreases in political competence and efficacy, at least in the short term. This possibility would warrant further discussion about the potential complexities of the role of political competence/efficacy in the development of political empowerment.

Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Temporary State

One interpretation of this result might be as follows: Well meaning individuals decide to work for a cause that seems important to them. This decision can be made without a great amount of critical thought or political debate about the issue (for example, juvenile delinquency) but a basic

humanitarian effort. Once a person becomes involved, he or she will inevitably become more familiar with the intricacies of the social problem (for example, the relationships to poverty, lack of resources, etc.) This may have two immediate short term effects including a stronger sense of commitment to the cause, along with a sense of being overwhelmed by the magnitude of the social problem and its related issues. This might lead to a sense of incompetence; a decreased sense of political efficacy. In other words, the problem may seem too large for the person to handle.

Perhaps if the sense of incompetence is not consuming and the person is able to continue working for their social cause, a renewed, stronger sense of competence and efficacy will develop over time. The decreased sense of political competence would be a temporary effect, then. Longitudinal research would be necessary to examine this interpretation.

If this interpretation is accurate, it points to another intriguing consideration. In the process of developing a sense of political empowerment, it may be common for a temporary lag in political efficacy, (or one's sense of political competence) to occur. Depending upon how

this developmental "transition point" is resolved, individuals may be inclined to "drop out" of their political activities if they become overwhelmed, while they may be prompted to "become immersed" in their activities as they recognize the need for action. This "efficacy lapse" may offer an important intervention opportunity for those interested in promoting political empowerment.

Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Permanent Trait

However, this sense of incompetence may remain all consuming. Interpreting the decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a temporary state is an optimistic perspective. It is also possible that the decrease in feelings of efficacy may be a more permanent trait, at least for some individuals.

Consider this interpretation of the results. Well meaning college students decide to work for a cause that seems important to them. As in the past example, these students are guided by basic humanitarian beliefs, but perhaps lack the full understanding of the demands of activist work. In other words, these students may be driven

by idealized notions at this point. The reality of the difficult, often unrewarding day to day work may be overwhelming. This lack of immediate gratification and potential for limited, if any, long term results may be a learning experience for many. In turn, this may lead some individuals to accept that activist work is no longer a personal aspiration. Unlike the previous example, individuals in this scenario may become steadfast in their decisions to become apolitical. Interventions to "spark" continued activism might be in vain.

If this interpretation is accurate, other considerations are important. While interventionists may despair, developmental researchers may become intrigued. In this example, the experience of the intervention was just as meaningful to the life course development of the individual as in the previous example. Rather than going through a temporary lapse in competence, some individuals may come to a sense of political alienation as a more stable personality trait.

These different paths of development may be similar to other developmental changes that occur to individuals progressing from late adolescence into adulthood (the age of

the participants in this study). Adolescents have the opportunity to try on many personality "hats" during their transition to adulthood. Some roles may be played out for a short time, while others may become permanently embedded in one's adult identity. For example, some college students become vegetarians, others become musicians, artists, actors, or athletes. For most, these roles are temporary. In the transition from parental influence to independent living, adolescents can engage in a variety of "role transitions", including the role of political activist. The university setting provides a safe environment for experimenting with many "hats". For some adolescents, these "hats" may "fit", and be worn into adulthood. Some may even incorporate their teenage activities into their career choices. For example, one student in the experimental condition commented, "The class was great. I've decided to become a social worker and focus on children's rights". For others, the "hat" may be worn for only a short while, but it will not "fit" into their adult lives. Another student said, "I always thought I wanted to be a child psychologist until I took this class. Now I know that I could never work with kids for the rest of my life! And dealing with the

schools was even worse!!" Those who became less politically competent may have simply discovered that the "activist hat" did not fit their lives.

Decrease in Political Competence/Efficacy as a Developmental Transition

From a developmental perspective, these findings are in accordance with Perry's (1968) theory of late adolescent development. Perry (1968) studied cognitive development of college students and noted a progression from "dualistic" to "relativistic" thought. Dualistic thinking was characteristic of most incoming college students. This can be illustrated by the question that many students ask their professors, "What is the right answer?" Dualistic thinking is reducing problems to a dichotomy of right/wrong or good/bad. Relativism, on the other hand, requires the ability to critically consider problems "relative" to a variety of circumstances. The relativist thinker might challenge the professor, "That answer on the exam is only correct when..." Perry (1968) maintained that late adolescence is the developmental period when the transition from dualistic to relativistic cognition is possible, and noted many more relativistic thinkers upon college

graduation. However, the transition is a function of both maturity and experience. Many adults can remain halted at the dualistic stage of development.

As noted earlier, the intervention provided the opportunity for critical thought about one's sociopolitical world. For many students, this was a difficult task. Knowing that participants would be advocating for a juvenile offender, one of the first critical discussions revolved around juvenile delinquency. Dualistic thinkers would comment, "But if it's against the law, it's just wrong and he shouldn't have done it." Relativistic thinkers would respond, "As long as laws are made to target certain individuals and groups, we need to stop judging them." With only anecdotal evidence, it appeared that there were far more dualistic thinkers than relativistic thinkers in the experimental condition.

Following Perry's theory of development, it may be that dualistic thinkers in the experimental condition, without the ability to critically analyze their sociopolitical environment and question their own values, may have been more inclined to become overwhelmed, continuing to search for the "right" way to advocate for a juvenile offender and

work for social change. When no "right" way was presented, the decline in one's sense of competence and efficacy was almost inevitable. Meanwhile, dualistic thinkers in the control condition might not have been faced with the activist dilemmas that led to decreased efficacy.

Following this interpretation of adolescent development, researchers and activists might want to consider the developmental stage of potential participants. While adolescence may be the ideal time in one's life to begin to "dabble" in political activism, an advanced level of cognitive development may provide the answer to the question of who becomes politically empowered and committed to a social cause versus who becomes overwhelmed and politically disempowered. Future research may illuminate the potential interaction effects between cognitive development and political empowerment.

Critique of Keiffer's Model of Political Empowerment

The results of this study raises some conceptual issues for research that has attempted to document the process of political empowerment. For example, Keiffer (1984) documented a four -stage process of empowerment that began with an era of entry, led to eras of advancement and

incorporation, and culminated with an era of commitment. This research did find support that the development of political empowerment is a process that cannot be accomplished as the direct result of an intervention. This research also indicates that upon entry to the process of political empowerment, one will probably continue to "advance and incorporate" through increased political actions, changed attitudes and career goals. However, contrary to Keiffer's findings, commitment appears to be associated with the era of entry, rather than the final stage of empowerment.

According to Keiffer, commitment was associated with an advanced level of political empowerment. This could be described as reaching a self-actualized stage of political empowerment, where every action and inaction is considered in a political context. In this study, however, commitment (as the indicator of Political Activism) set the process of empowerment in motion. This finding leads to an interesting question. Does empowerment begin or end with commitment? Embedded within this question may be the limits of linear analyses. Research in the positivist tradition can accurately evaluate the effects of one variable upon

another, yet is unable to identify cyclical relationships. We might as well be asking the question, "Which came first, the chicken or the egg?" Accordingly, the answer may be the same: "Both and neither". In other words, it is possible that both Keiffer's finding, as well as the evidence from this research, are both accurate. It is likely that commitment leads to changes in Political Awareness which in turn leads to increased commitment which leads to changes in Political Awareness...and so on. If this is true, then the combined efforts of Keiffer and this study have found support for the idea that the developmental process of political empowerment may involve cycles of change, rather than linear stages of development.

Hypothesized Developmental Process of Political Empowerment

Simply discovering that university-based interventions could increase political commitment over the course of two semesters, while having little or no effect on activism or other constructs associated with empowerment may appear discouraging. Researchers and educators might be left with questions, such as "Will the intervention effects last over time?". Perhaps even more daunting a question might be, "Can Political Activism, as measured by commitment, alone be

associated with empowerment?" Fortunately, this research allowed for these questions to be addressed. Accordingly, this study found support for the idea that sparking a sense of political commitment and an activist orientation might last over time.

The structural equation model lends itself to a developmental interpretation of the data. Based upon these results, a conceptual model of the development of political empowerment over time may be hypothesized. Figure 9 depicts the relationships of the variables in the hypothesized model. This model hypothesizes that Condition positively predicts Political Activism and negatively predicts Political Competence. Over time, Political Activism will predict increases in Political Awareness. Over time, Political Competence will predict decreased changes in Political Awareness. Empirically testing the latent model of political empowerment provided an analysis of the potential for an intervention that increases Political activism to have long term effects on continued development of political empowerment.

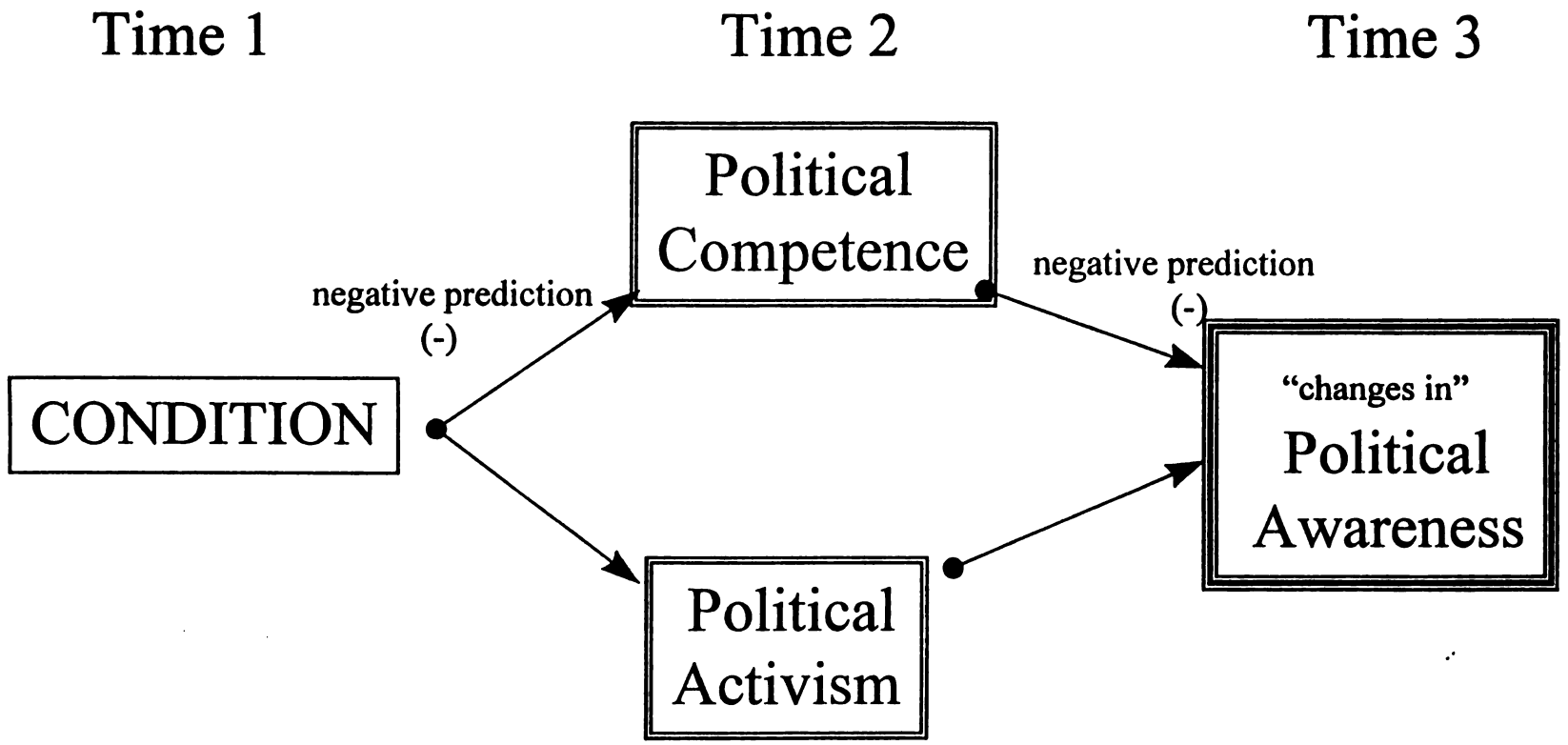


Figure 9. Hypothesized Developmental Model of Political Empowerment

Conceptual Limitations of This Study

One of the conceptual limitations of this study was the limited attention given to the developmental stages of late adolescence. In addition to the limited understanding of cognitive development in this sample highlighted earlier, different levels of commitment, individual differences in experience and different paths to moral development may have also influenced the research findings.

Conceptual Limitations of Political Commitment

Given the discrepancy between the findings of this research and the developmental stages in Keiffer's (1984) model, the notion of Political Commitment warrants further discussion. It is possible that the term "commitment" has been described in a general way, without considering that different "level" or "types" of commitment may exist. For example, one level of commitment may be described as the kind of commitment students felt upon coming to the course orientation, hoping to be selected for the class. This type of commitment might involve basic humanitarian beliefs that people should become involved in their communities. The students who came to the class orientation all shared this level of commitment. They all wanted to help at-risk teens.

To that extent, all of the participants were "preselected" to already have a sense of political commitment. With this in mind, it is important to point out that this was not a random sample of college students. All changes that took place over time must be regarded in light of the notion that the sample was limited to a initially motivated group. For example, from this perspective, the decrease in political competence may simply reflect regression toward the mean.

However, other levels of commitment may exist. The commitment discussed by Keiffer (1984) as well as Bargad & Hyde (1991) was characterized by a lifelong goal to work toward social justice. It was a sense of commitment rooted in one's personality and a salient part of one's identity. This stage of commitment seemed to represent a higher level of commitment (or perhaps a different type of commitment) than the commitment required of a community volunteer. The differences in commitment may be further illuminated by the stereotypes of "do-gooder" versus "radical activist". The stereotypes may conjure images of a traditional homemaker volunteering at her community church juxtaposed to a militant feminist leading a protest march. Each individual

might possess the same desire for involvement, but by very different means of "political commitment". Further research will be necessary to flush out the differential meanings of the word "commitment".

Individual Differences and Moral Development

Another limitation of this study was that the intervention may have had a profound effect on some individuals that became lost in the reductionist quantitative data. Anecdotally, some of the participants commented on the extent to which participating in the empowering intervention had been meaningful to them. For example, one participant said, "I wasn't sure how this experience would be, but now I know that I want to work with teens, or maybe even younger kids". Another participant commented, "This was a good experience, but I wouldn't want to do it again. I used to want to be a psychologist, but after doing this, I've decided to go to law school, instead". In both of these cases, participating had a major impact on the individuals, personally. However, these experiences remain masked by the data. It is important to assessing the results of this study in the context of the data analyses conducted.

Individual differences in the development of political empwerment, as a result of very different experiences in the intervention, may be worth further analyses. Because each participant's involvement was individually tailored to meet "someone else's needs" (the juvenile offender's), and included advocacy throughout Ingham County, MI (from the inner city to remote rural sites), individual experiences were quite varied. Some participants had school and parental cooperation, easy going youths, clearly defined objectives, and subsequently a successful intervention. Others met with combative parents, uncooperative institutions, and hostile youths. These interventions were far more challenging and often ended in frustration.

Intuition may hint at which type of intervention led to greater political empowerment. Research on moral development may further help to explain. Gilligan (1982), building on Kohlberg's (1968) earlier work, identified different paths to moral development. One path was based on a justice orientation, with competition being a primary motive for action. This path of development is typical among boys and men. For those participants with a justice orientation, an experience that included confronting a large

institution (such as a school system) and "winning" a case may be perceived as greatly successful, regardless of the countless frustrations along the way to the successful outcome. One participant fought for over ten weeks to stop his assigned youth from being unjustly expelled from school. On the morning that he was able to drive his assigned youth to school, he expressed being as proud as a parent and glad that justice prevailed.

A second path (Gilligan, 1982; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1988) was based on a care perspective, with ensuring human relationships being a primary motivation for action. This path of development is typical among girls and women. Another student was assigned to work with a younger child (age 8) and soon discovered that he could not read. With the support of his teacher and his custodial parent, she was able to teach him to read. She expressed great satisfaction with watching her assigned youth read to his custodial parent and described her experience with the intervention as very successful, despite very little activism or advocacy.

However, another student was pulled over by police for minor traffic violations the first two times she entered the neighborhood of her assigned youth. Her car was torn apart

and searched for drugs and weapons. This students had never before received any traffic violation and felt that her rights had been violated. Furthermore, she highly suspected that certain neighborhoods were targeted by police. While she had an otherwise successful experience in the intervention, she remained troubled by the confrantational episodes with the police. This scenario was more typical of the participants' experiences in the intervention. Most of the participants were women (presumably most followed the care orientation of moral development) and most experiences were overshadowed by direct confrontational advocacy (more conducive to a justice orientation). Perhaps future research will attend to the interaction between moral, cognitive, and political development.

Methodological Limitations of this Study

Several methodological limitations may influence the strengths of the conclusions that can be drawn from this work. First, the measurement model originally proposed could not be evaluated because the data did not support the three latent constructs through confirmatory factor analysis. This could indicate either a problem with the underlying factor structure of the latent variables or

problems with the measures. Considering that the model was quite specific, in spite of the fact that it was developed from a confluence of sometimes conflicting theories, it is quite likely that the initial underlying factor structure was ill conceived.

The latent model was examined as planned. However, only one measure of each latent variable was used in the analysis. Thus, this research was limited in its attempt to tap into the many different facets of the complex concept of political empowerment. Perhaps the findings of this research will aid theoreticians in developing more comprehensive models, taking into account the many domains represented by the term empowerment.

In a related matter, it is important to point out that the final model presented was the result of post hoc analyses. Whenever post hoc analyses are performed there is the potential for chance findings. However, when post hoc analyses are grounded in theory, as was the case in this research, it can still be a useful and meaningful approach to understanding and interpreting data. To avoid the likelihood of chance findings, only theoretically relevant models were considered for post hoc analyses.

Another limitation of this study concerns the independent variable, the empowering intervention. This intervention included many different areas, including small group size, mentors and leaders, skill development, access to resources and immersion in the community. However, these domains were not evaluated separately, but were instead combined in one intervention effort. The results indicated that an intervention with all of the aforementioned components can lead to increased political commitment. However, this research is limited in that the main effects of each component of the intervention and interaction effects cannot be ascertained. While it is important to discover which mechanisms are effective in triggering the development of political empowerment, this research has only tapped into one general approach.

Another concern is that of power. Because the relatively small sample size for the number of variables evaluated, it is possible that some effects were not identified. According to Cohen (1988; 1992), a sample size of N= 133 would have been necessary for an expected medium effect and an optimal level of power (.80). The sample size of N=106 reduced power to .73 for the ANCOVA analyses and

did not yield sufficient power to identify overall model fit. See Appendix A for a more complete discussion of this concern. On a positive note, medium effects can be assumed for the effects that were identified.

The small sample size may reflect other problems as well. For example, the homogeneity of the sample opens up the concern of generalizability. This sample was mostly white, between 18-25 years old, with relatively privileged academic backgrounds. This study included one sample of individuals, at one university, participating in one very specific type of empowerment program. Furthermore, this sample may have been inadvertently "preselected" individuals with some level of political motivation, efficacy, and commitment, leading to restriction of range for some of the measures. It is important to consider the representativeness of this sample when interpreting the results.

It was previously noted that the process of political empowerment is developmental, increasing over long periods of time. This research only spanned a time interim of 36 weeks. With the combined analyses of the intervention effects and the model development, some developmental

implications were noted. However, this study only allowed for the speculation of a developmental model of political empowerment. This is only an initial step toward understanding the developmental process of evolving political empowerment. For example, the short time interim seemed to have a negative effect on the development of Political Competence and Efficacy. It is possible that this is an accurate assessment in the short term. It could be that a new awareness of the social problems can lead to sense of being overwhelmed and feeling less competent. However, it would seem plausible that over time, commitment combined with activism would lead to increased efficacy and competence. This conclusion can only be hypothesized, not born out of this research, however.

Implications for Future Research

One of the major themes implied throughout this research is that articulating a meaningful model of political empowerment is important for social change research and action. A useful model can aid in our understanding of empowerment theory and suggest mechanisms by which social change agents can spark this process in well intentioned citizens. A model was developed for this

purpose. However, while retaining theoretical relevance, the latent model tested in this study was not supported by multiple indicators, as originally proposed. These results suggest the need for more research in the area of model development. Perhaps continued theory development and testing may help to resolve some of these theoretical inconsistencies.

While each of the scales used in this research had acceptable internal consistences, several observed variables would benefit from refinement and reanalysis. In particular, these included the scales measuring creative solutions, system blame, political identity and community involvement. Since these scales were developed specifically for this research project (with some adaptation from other published scales) it is likely that some of the items were not accurately grasping the meaning of the relevant construct. Continued scale development in these areas is essential for future empowerment research.

Part of understanding the process by which political empowerment develops requires an understanding of the mechanisms that activate the process. While this study indicated that empowering interventions can prompt the

development of Political Activism, any specific aspects of the intervention most responsible for the prompting remain unknown. Future experiments should consider the evaluation of different levels of the intervention. For example, one group may participate in small group settings with a leader, while another group may participate in small group settings without an assigned leader. In this way, it might be possible to distinguish between the effects of small group participation and having a leader on the development of political empowerment. In this way, the most salient triggers of the empowerment process may be identified.

It was also noted that the small sample size and specific intervention strategy may have limited the research findings. Political empowerment is a broad concept, but each individual research project can only tap into some of its domains. A larger sample size would allow for the evaluation of many variables, with increased power. Research with other samples and different types of empowering interventions is recommended to corroborate the findings of this experiment.

Quantitative data and experimental designs are useful to establish causal relationships, eliminate extraneous

variables, and to test group differences. However, quantitative analyses can mask different patterns of experiences that may be meaningful for a complete understanding of the process of political empowerment. There may be many different paths to political empowerment. In future research, supplementing experiments with qualitative analyses could add richness and texture to research findings from quantitative analyses. More importantly, qualitative analyses could help to reveal specific mechanisms that trigger empowerment to develop.

Also, different paths of moral development, as well as different stages of cognitive development may have interacted with the effects of the intervention. However, these effects were not investigated in this study. Perhaps future research will be able to flush out the potential influences of moral and cognitive development on the process of becoming politically empowered.

Finally, this project focused on political empowerment as a developmental process. Furthermore, it was noted that the process of political empowerment may include cyclical relationships of change. However, as noted earlier, this study was limited to a pretest-posttest design. Research

projects designed to follow participants over a longer period of time may yield meaningful results concerning the developmental patterns of political empowerment.

Conclusion

This study provided a fresh perspective on the development of political empowerment. It suggested that it is possible for university based courses to be designed to inspire political empowerment to develop. Furthermore, an example of what such an intervention might look like was described. In addition, a theoretically sound and data supported model of political empowerment was offered as a heuristic for understanding the concept of political empowerment.

This study also offered hope to academics and social change agents that a sparked commitment and activist orientation might lead to increased awareness and empowerment in the near future. The results of instigating empowerment may not be immediate. Undergraduate students may not finish a course and proceed to the nearest political event. However, with a new sense of political commitment, undergraduates could become increasingly more politically aware and empowered over time.

There is a major longitudinal implication of this research. By leading to other activities associated with empowerment, sparking a sense of activism and political commitment might be more like sparking a forest fire, that continues to grow, rather than lighting a match, that dies out in a few moments. For researchers, educators, and potentially empowered individuals alike, this is good news. For those of us interested in social change activism and prompting the political empowerment of others, the message obtained from this data is clear. Promote political activism through political commitment. Social change will follow.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Power Analysis

This project had N=106 participants. Post hoc considerations of power revealed that this sample size was limited. According to Cohen's (1988) procedures for MANOVA, a power test for the overall model was computed. Alpha was set at .05, power at .80 and f^2 (standardized effect size) at .25. In other words, a medium effect size was assumed. This analysis indicated that N= 128 participants would be optimal. A reduced sample size of 106 reduced power to .73.

For structural equation modeling, estimating power became more complex. In SEM, power can refer to overall model fit or power to find whether particular path coefficients are significant. The idea of "power" is very new in the area of SEM, and in many respects the literature has yet to adequately address the issue.

There are many ways to test overall model fit. One way is to examine the GFI index (.92). Power is also affected by sample size, alpha levels, and model complexity, however. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) can provide a more comprehensive estimation of overall power

fit. Power for the overall fit was estimated to be approximately .70 with the full measurement model (with multiple indicators). With the reduced model (single indicators and fewer degrees of freedom), overall model fit decreased to approximately .20. The conclusion was that there would have been adequate power with the inclusion of the observed variables in the originally hypothesized model. However, given the sample size and the reduced model size, there was not adequate power to test the overall model.

Another estimation of power in SEM is the ability to find specific significant path coefficients. Again, this is affected by sample size. Simply, this estimate is a restatement of effects sizes. Table 32 reported these estimations. While there was sufficient power to estimate a few path coefficients, overall power was weak. In other words, because there was very little relationship between variables in the sample, there was little power to test the model with each specific path as opposed to without each specific path.

APPENDIX B

Appendix B

MSU ADOLESCENT PROJECT TRAINING MANUAL: PSY 371/372
Department of Psychology: Michigan State University

INTRODUCTION: The primary goal of the project in which you are to be intensely involved over the next several months is to provide quality community-based service to local youth in legal jeopardy with the juvenile justice system. While the juvenile justice system has many components, which we will outline and discuss later, the aim of this project is to keep local youth out of the formal court system.

There are a large number of people involved in the operation of this project. Volunteers, such as yourselves, will furnish the critical ingredients of providing quality service to the youth with whom the project works and of bringing case related material to training/supervisory sessions. Trainer/supervisors will conduct the group meetings for the volunteers. They will, in turn, be supervised by the project director.

Expectations: Each of the training and supervision sessions will last for two and a half hours. One critical component of this project is your attendance at all of these training/supervision sessions. This requirement is not because we are particularly interested in making sure that all good little volunteers go to their meetings. Rather, we have found that the mutual discussion and input we can have as a group will have an important impact on our work with individual youth.

The training/supervisory sessions will consist of several things throughout the course of the year. During the first nine sessions the majority of the time will be spent in training you in effective methods of intervention with adolescents who have come into contact with the legal system. It is important that each one of you have a strong background in the approaches to youth used in this project. Thus, the first nine units will be presented so that everyone will learn the essential information relevant to service for youth. During the first term you will be assigned outside readings and homework relevant to your work in this project. The reading assignments are outlined at the beginning of each unit. Your trainer/supervisors will inform you where the readings are located. If homework is included in the unit, the assignments will be outlined at the end of that unit. They involve either individual or small group work. You will be expected to have mastered the material in the assigned readings and have completed the homework by the time that you come to the class meeting.

When your meeting starts, your supervisor will spend the

first portion answering any questions that you may have had about the reading assignment. You will then demonstrate your understanding of the material from the manual and from the readings. This will be in written and/or oral form, depending upon the structure your trainer/supervisors and the project director have chosen to follow. This may be followed by small group discussion of homework assignment, class exercises, role playing, and/or supervision of the i early cases assigned to the project.

- After Psychology 371, the meetings will be focused on group discussion of the individual cases with which you will be working. The meetings will include the following components:
- You will be asked to present a detailed oral description of your case each week to the group.
- You will be expected to add input to the group discussion of individual cases and attend to suggestions about your case from other volunteers and the supervisor.
- The discussion of each person's case will consist of goal-oriented group problem solving. In short, this method of group supervision consists of outlining the goals or problem areas for each case, the alternative solutions available, the costs and benefits of each alternative, and the selection of a course of action.
- You will be asked to bring a weekly progress report to each meeting (see Appendix A for a sample report).
- You are expected to keep a log of your activities. The specifics of how you are to keep the log and some sample excerpts are presented in Appendix B. The log will summarize all contacts you have made with and for your youth during the entire intervention period.

It is also important that you are clear as to the relative degrees of responsibility that you have to each of the program's components. You should view as your first responsibility the youth with whom you will be working and his/her best interests. This responsibility includes your interactions with him/her as well as your interactions with your friends and others. The importance of confidentiality in your interactions with your friends, and relatives cannot be overemphasized. Your second responsibility is to the project as a whole. It is critical that you are honest with your supervisors about activities relevant to the youth. While they definitely will have positive expectations about your interactions with the youth, do not hesitate to tell them about something that has gone on which you think may have been a mistake. If they and your group know about problems then they can work them out together with you. Your third responsibility is to your fellow students. This includes your input to the group discussions relevant to your own and other

people's cases.

Up to this point we have discussed your involvement in the training/supervision sessions. However, your major involvement in this project, in terms of time, will be working with or on behalf of a young person from the local community. Three general principles apply:

- You will spend six to eight hours per week providing service to the youth to whom you are assigned. This will include direct interaction with the youth, interaction with significant other people in the life of the youth, and preparing for future interactions.
- The intention of this project is to provide individualized service to each of the youths referred. In other words, you will be applying the principles and techniques learned in the training units to each youth according to the characteristics of the individual and his/her situation.
- Your role will become clearer to you as you participate in the project. You will be a negotiator, mediator, change agent and advocate. You will not be a police officer, probation officer, parent, or therapist. It is difficult to prescribe your role or spell it out in any more detail because each individual is unique and each intervention differs. You will need to take an individualized approach. This means that while you will always follow the principles of the models, the specific strategies that you will implement vary. Training/supervision sessions will provide a time and place for you to explore various roles and practice a number of intervention techniques. Further discussions about the planning of an individualized approach, the development of intervention tactics and the use of supervision will follow.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

Brief History of the Juvenile Justice System

Historically, the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency in America was created by the initiation of the juvenile court system at the end of the 1880's. Prior to that time, youthful offenders were handled with varying degrees of formality by adult courts. The initial thrust for the creation of the separate system for handling juveniles came from the desire to protect children from mistreatment while still providing a vehicle for safeguarding society from youthful wrongdoings. The failure of refuge homes, used for wayward youth in the nineteenth century, had resulted in children being severely treated and used as low cost manual laborers. The juvenile court was designed to provide for the care of children in a way which would ideally approximate that provided by "responsible" parents. Other central issues in the formation of a separate juvenile court were that the court per se would operate with a maximum amount of flexibility in

order to allow informal truth-seeking procedures and would provide a format amenable to individualized treatment. In short, it was suggested that the juveniles exchange their constitutional right to a full-fledged trial for the benevolent concern of the court. This exchange was felt to be a fair trade-off for the juveniles, given the good intention of the law.

The court's sphere of influence was quickly expanded. The courts had been created with all the fervor of a publicly supported social movement. For example, Illinois Juvenile Courts, usually cited as indicative of early juvenile court development, were created by the 1899 Juvenile Court Act and given jurisdiction over any youth who violated the criminal code. Its operation was based on the work of unpaid probation officers appointed by the court. By 1901, legislative change expanded the legal definition of juvenile delinquency to include uniquely juvenile offenses such as incorrigibility. In 1905, the Court's mandate was further expanded. Initially it was responsible for the adjudication (judicial decision) and disposition (sentencing or referral of cases). Now it was also to direct supervision of treatment services provided in carrying out its orders. In 1907, legislation further expanded the Court's arena by providing for professional probation officers and court staff.

After the fervor of the first decade of this century, the juvenile courts in this country essentially conducted their mission in a rather dormant fashion. Most other states had followed Illinois in creating separate courts for juveniles by the twenties. Separate Juvenile Bureaus in urban police departments were close behind. Procedural informality, individualized treatment, and provision of services approximating those of a natural home were held as basic operating principles. Such procedures were not thought to require multiple safeguards.

All continued relatively quietly until the middle 1960's. At that time the juvenile justice system, like many other social institutions, became the target of a variety of attacks, both from within and outside its ranks.

1) The <u>first</u> line of criticism attacked the juvenile court's justification for acting with procedural informality while at the same time holding the fate of the individual youth in its hands. In the 1967 Supreme Court decision in the case of Gault, the majority opinion stated that although the juvenile justice system had good intentions, the condition of being a youth did not justify a kangaroo court. It was thought that the system had failed to provide either sound, effective treatment or procedural safeguards insuring constitutional rights, thereby leaving the youth with nothing.

2) A <u>second</u> line of criticism focused on the mistreatment of youth by sending them to highly malignant correctional

institutions. The poor conditions which existed in the juvenile institutions were almost unbelievable. In addition, recidivism rates (frequency with which youth continued to get into legal trouble after receiving treatment) were extremely high.

The juvenile justice system had originally been created to improve conditions and provide treatment for youth; it was now being attacked for not fulfilling its mission.

One major response to these criticisms was the suggestion of more innovative individualized intervention programs. However, since courts typically have been understaffed, alternative sources of personpower have been needed to carry out these individualized plans. This current program is, in part, designed to provide qualified volunteers to serve as individualized change agents working directly with the youth in his/her natural environment.

Basic Principles from Introduction

I. Manual:
   A. Overall goal of the MSU Adolescent Diversion Project (ADP).
   B. Expectations of volunteers.
   C. Components of case supervision.
   D. ADP volunteers' responsibilities.
   E. ADP volunteers' role.
   F. Purpose of the juvenile justice system.
   G. Criticisms of the juvenile justice system

UNIT I: BEHAVIORAL CONCEPTION OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND DELINQUENCY

READINGS:

Goldstein, A.P., Harootunian, B., & Close COnoley, J. (1994). Student Agression: Prevention, management, and replacement training. New York: The Guilford Press. pp. 74-119.

Tharp, R.G., & Wetzel, R. J. (1969). Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, pp. 1-25, 44-51, 54-60, 96-111.

Wilmes, D.J. (1988). Parenting for Prevention. How to Raise a Child to Say No to Alcohol/Drugs. Minneapolis: Johnson Institute Books, 141-150.

In the first two units we will be talking about two relatively distinct rationales with regard to human behavior and delinquency. One is the behavioral approach, which will be discussed first, and the other is the environmental resources approach, which will be presented second. After the theories and traditions of each are examined, a discussion of how the two models fit together to form an effective individualized case approach will follow.

Behavioral Conception of Human Behavior

The roots of the behavioral approaches can be traced to

learning theory and experimental psychology. In addition, it should be noted that the behavioral conception of human behavior and problems is in many ways a reaction to traditional medical model and intra-individual approaches.

The traditional explanations of human behavior often focus solely on internal psychic health or illness. Supposedly, intra-individual characteristics resulting from early childhood experience and genetic background produce observed differences in human behavior and personality structure. Internal states are seen as predictive of actual human actions. The traditional approaches view human problems as individual problems and the individual becomes the focus of therapeutic and change strategies. Great emphasis is placed on professional therapists to initiate this change within the individual.

The behavioral conception differs in several important respects from the traditional approaches discussed above.

1) It emphasizes the importance of an individual's environment in determining actions.
2) It suggests that the focus of change be the environment of the individual rather than the individual per se.
3) It stresses that the target of change include multiple environmental components rather than only the individual via one-to-one therapy. Therefore people other than the professional therapist are viewed as critical to the process of change.
4) It suggests that ongoing human behavior is a function of the principles of learning theory rather than relatively intractable intra-individual characteristics.
5) It stresses that deviance is a function of societal labeling processes rather than a characteristic of individual deviant actions. In other words, behavior is only termed deviant when observed by and defined as such by important others or by the individual.

The behavioral approach suggests that human performances are a function of several basic processes. These processes were initially highlighted in early laboratory experimentation. First, there are five processes for initiating, maintaining, and increasing human behavior.

1) Instruction or Prompting - defining specifically how and what to do; verbal instruction about how to engage in the desired behavior. This strategy is often used to help develop a new behavior.
For example: you could ask the youth you are working with to meet you someplace, telling him/her specifically where you will meet, what you will be doing, the time of the meeting, and how to get there.
2) Modeling - having someone observe another person doing something; providing a behavioral example of the behavior.

This strategy is often used to help develop a new behavior. For example: you might show the parent(s) of the youth a different way of interacting with him/her. You could have the parent(s) watch you and the youth engage in a positive conversation about the youth's activities for that day.

3) Positive Reinforcement - presenting a positive or desired event following the occurrence of some action. Positive reinforcement increases the incidence of the behavior it is contingent upon.

For example: you could set up a situation where your assigned youth would receive an allowance based on performance in school each day.

4) Negative Reinforcement - discontinuing a negative or undesired event following the occurrence of some action. Negative reinforcement increases the incidence of the behavior it is contingent upon. Our program emphasizes the use of positive reinforcement, and generally negative reinforcement is not used in formal behavioral agreements. However, an example of negative reinforcement would be: parent(s) agree to stop nagging or yelling if the youth agrees to do the dishes Monday through Friday by 8:00 pm. The reward would be the reduced/ended complaining of the parents.

5) Shaping - reinforcing successive approximations of the desired behavior. This strategy is used when the likelihood of an individual emitting the fully perfected criterion behavior is low.

For example: a youth who has a history of never doing homework might be reinforced for successive approximations of the desired 30 minutes of study time by being reinforced first for sitting at the kitchen table for 3 minutes quietly with an open schoolbook in front of him, then for 5 minutes, 10 minutes, solving 3 questions and so on.

Second, in addition to the strategies above for increasing and maintaining desired actions, there are two principle methods for decreasing human behavior:

1) Extinction - the reinforcing event which was maintaining the behavior is no longer presented or made available.

For example: a teacher decides to ignore the attention-seeking comments of a student who receives much attention from the class when confronted by the teacher. The process of extinction may lead to two side effects before the target behavior decreases and eventually disappears: 1) the target behavior may increase in frequency for a time before it begins to decrease, and 2) sometimes there is the appearance of frustration behaviors such as crying and aggressive actions. Since extinction does not teach any new alternative behavior, it should

always be used in combination with the positive reinforcement of an acceptable alternative to the behavior being extinguished.

2) Punishment - there are two forms of punishment:

a. Punishment I (negative event) - presenting a negative or aversive event following some undesired action.

For example: you could set up an agreement between the youth and parent(s) such that if the youth returned home late, he/she would have to do extra household chores.

b. Punishment II (loss of positive event) - removing a positive event following some undesired behavior.

For example: under a family agreement a youth might be prohibited from watching evening television each day s/he did not attend school.

Although punishment can be an effective method for reducing undesired behavior, it is not a recommended intervention strategy. Five undesirable consequences are associated with using punishment (Tharp & Wetzel, 1969). These are:

1) Punishment may prompt counteraggressive behavior, which could take one of many forms from a passive refusal to comply to a violent physical attack on the punisher. Such counteraggressive behaviors often cause the initial punisher to retaliate through the use of more intensive punishment, creating a spiraling interaction in which both individuals emit increasingly more aversive/punishing behaviors.

2) Punishment may weaken the relationship between the punisher and the one being punished, who may begin to fear and/or exhibit anxiety around the punisher.

3) Punishment may elicit avoidance or escape behavior. The person who is punished may purposely avoid the punisher. For example, a youth who is always hassled by his/her parent for one thing or another, may "tune out" the parent(s) or never stay around the house.

4) Punishment tends to only temporarily suppress the undesired behavior.

5) Punishment does not teach any new/appropriate alternative behavior. Punishment may decrease the frequency of undesirable behavior, but this does not guarantee an increase in desired behaviors.

Although the use of punishment is not advocated in your intervention activities, you should be aware of how to appropriately use punishment if the family insists on its use. Three conditions should always be observed. First, punishment should only be used in conjunction with positive reinforcement of desired/acceptable behavior. Second, punishment should occur immediately following the undesired behavior. Third, positive

reinforcement removed as a form of punishment should never be reinforcement earned through engaging in desired behavior. For example, if a youth earned 50 cents for every class she/he attended, the youth should not be punished by taking away 50 cents each time she/he skips class.

While this brief overview of a behavior approach to human behavior has summarized the basic processes governing the actions of people, most of these principles are usually conceived of as operating at the individual level. In other words, one person, in control of the reinforcers, is viewed as controlling or influencing the behavior of another individual. In the situations that you will be dealing with as part of this program, it is usually the case that interpersonal interactions define the areas which need attention. These interpersonal exchanges operate in a two-way fashion (rather than one individual having absolute control) according to the principles outlined above. In actuality, the youth and significant other, e.g., parent, teacher, friend, employer, have considerable mutual influence over the actions of each other.

An operant interpersonal view of human behavior applies learning theory principles to the interpersonal situation. Within this framework a number of assumptions are made regarding interpersonal relations between youth and significant others in their lives (Stuart, 1971).

1) The receipt of positive interactions in the interpersonal situation is viewed as something which has to be earned rather than an absolute right. People have to act nice towards others in order to expect positives in return, and vice versa.

2) Effective interpersonal relationships are governed according to the norm of reciprocity. In other words, the adage of "If you scratch my back, I'll scratch yours" turns out to be true.

3) The value of an interpersonal relationship is a function of the range, rate, and magnitude of positive reinforcements involved in that relationship. People value others who treat them positively, on many occasions, and in many ways.

4) Rules can be utilized to create freedom in an interpersonal relationship. When two individuals specify what they can mutually expect from each other it allows a certainty which will increase the chances of positive exchanges, and allow the exploration of additional positive alternative modes of interaction.

Behavioral Conception of Juvenile Delinquency

There have been many theories of juvenile delinquency put forth by social scientists since the early part of this century. Most of them have focused on either pathological or deviant individuals as the cause of delinquency. Other theories have

argued that delinquency was the product of deprived or discriminatory social conditions. Neither of these very prominent sets of approaches have produced adequate explanations of delinquency nor have they suggested helpful intervention approaches.

The operant framework views delinquency as a function of a set of ongoing interactional processes. It is very important to note that the principles which are said to govern the initiation and maintenance of delinquent behavior are the same as those which are said to function in all human actions. Delinquency is not viewed as pathological or deviant in and of itself. Rather, delinquency is socially defined. In fact, the mere commission of the unlawful act is insufficient to identify a delinquent. The act must be observed and formally labeled in order for a youth to become known to the juvenile justice system.

It appears that delinquency is a function of several processes which you will be attempting to change with your assigned youth. It has been observed that the interactions between delinquents and their families are different from those of nondelinquents on a number of dimensions.

1) Families of delinquents disproportionately display (model) and attend to (reinforce) delinquent actions. In other words, the youth have been exposed to and reinforced for the commission of undesired actions by their families.

2) Families of delinquents fail to attend to the prosocial performance of the youth. Academic, social, and vocational accomplishments of the youth are insufficiently attended to by his/her family.

3) Interaction patterns in families of delinquents are generally governed by aversive controls rather than positive relationships. The family you will be seeing during the next few months may often disproportionately use negative tactics such as threats, grounding, and complaining to attempt to get what they want.

4) The peer group of delinquents may similarly disproportionately attend to and encourage delinquent activities and insufficiently encourage prosocial accomplishments. The peer groups of the youth you work with may provide social payoffs for "hell raising" and seldom be interested in the academic, vocational, or recreational accomplishments of the youth.

5) The school personnel which relate to the youth (primarily teachers) will also be overly concerned with the negative actions of the youth and fail to pay consistent attention to his/her accomplishments.

6) Other significant individuals in the life of the youth fail to pay consistent attention to his/her accomplishments.

In short, there are many interpersonal forces in the form of

contingencies which have led the youth towards a path of unlawful activity.

The implications of the operant interpersonal explanation of delinquency described above are multiple. Obviously, interpersonal contingencies form a major component in the development and maintenance of delinquent activity. Thus, the focus of interventions must be the interpersonal relationships within the life of your assigned youth. One major goal for you will be to move these relationships towards the norm of contingent reciprocity, that is, a giving back and forth based on specified rules of behavioral exchange. Positive reciprocal interactions are a central component in averting further difficulty. You will want to work with the youth and his/her significant others to change their interaction patterns, creating a positive quid pro quo ("this for that") relationship. In addition, you need to be aware of the importance of your own relationship with your youth. This relationship should also be based on the positive principles outlined above. The training units will, in part, be spent teaching you how to use these principles in modifying the relevant interpersonal relationships. The importance of assessing and intervening in each case on an individual basis will be stressed.

It must be noted that your interventions will be with both the youth and the various significant individuals in his/her life. Many traditional approaches, particularly those involving volunteers such as yourselves, have placed exclusive focus on the individual youth in isolation.

As can be seen from the explanation of delinquency reviewed above, an important goal for you will be inducing changes in the interpersonal environment of the youth. If you focus solely on the youth it would probably be next to impossible to bring about change, and any change which might occur would not likely continue after you terminate working with the youth. As will be seen in the next unit, it is also critical to focus on the youth's needs and the related environmental resources in order to maximize the relevance and longevity of change.

Basic Principles from Unit I

Manual

A. How the Behavioral conception of human behavior differs from traditional approaches
B. Basic processes for initiating/increasing/maintaining human behavior
C. Basic processes for decreasing human behavior
D. Effects of the use of punishment
E. Assumptions about relations between youth and significant others according to the operant interpersonal view of human behavior
F. The operant framework view of delinquent behavior

G. Interpersonal Processes operative in the lives of delinquent vs. non-delinquent youths
H. Implications of the operant interpersonal explanation of delinquency

Readings

A. Decline of the professional therapist as a viable intervention approach
B. Negative consequences of the medical model
C. Definition and task of contingency management
D. Principles of learning theory
E. The triadic model, its components, and the role of the mediator
F. Strategies for developing new behaviors
G. Effects of the use of punishment
H. Communication skills; active and facilitative listening

UNIT II: ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES CONCEPTION OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND DELINQUENCY RATIONALE FOR MULTIPLE STRATEGY MODEL

READINGS:

Davidson, W.S., & Rapp, C. (1976). Child advocacy in the justice system. Social Work, 21(3), 225-232.

Davidson, W.S., Seidman, E., Rappaport, J., Berck, P., Rapp, N., Rhodes, W., & Herring, J. (1977). Diversion programs for juvenile offenders. Social Work Research and Abstracts, 13(2), 40-49.

Ryan, W. (1976). Blaming the victim. New York: Vintage Press, Intro. and Chapter 1.

Environmental Resources Conception of Human Behavior

The popularized environmental resources conception of human behavior forms the basis for the child advocacy approach and its related techniques. As with most theoretical and conceptual developments in the field of social science, the environmental resources conception of human behavior is very much a reaction to and an outgrowth of traditional conceptions and strategies within academic and professional realms.

The first of these traditional approaches, prominent within the fields of psychology, social science and within society as a whole, is generally characterized as the individual differences tradition. The basic premise of this school of thought is that human behavior is a function of relatively stable, individual characteristics, such as intelligence, personality, and family background. Furthermore this approach maintains that there are some individuals who act and think differently from "normal" individuals. This approach has led to a myriad of techniques to change "undesirable" individuals within a traditional therapeutic format. The basic strategy involves inducing change in the specific characteristics of the individual so that undesired actions disappear or are replaced by desired actions,

self-esteem, and ego strength. Most of the change approaches that you are familiar with, in the fields of psychology, psychiatry, social work, counseling, and education, are aimed at changing individual characteristics as the appropriate route to therapeutic gain.

A second approach to human behavior, very prominent in the field of sociology in the fifties, and at the base of the social action movements of the sixties, is the social conflict theoretical position. The basic premise of the social conflict approach is that human behavior is to a great extent a function of social structures. In other words, formal and informal social structures and forces function to direct an individual and/or group towards behavior patterns considered to be normative or legal. This position suggests that cultures are successful in convincing their members of the desirable goals to obtain. In our own culture such common goals include material wealth, education, and good jobs. However, it also suggests that subgroups within each society are differentially provided with legitimate and illegitimate means of attaining the commonly esteemed goals. In other words, if legitimate means towards the commonly held goals are not available to individuals or groups, they will seek and find illegitimate methods of attaining congruence with society's ideals. Thus, deviance is viewed as an illegitimate means of obtaining a desirable goal and is a function of rather intractable social conditions and structures. The implication of this social structure/social conflict conception of human behavior is that the opportunity structures of American society have to be opened so that all groups have equal access. The social conflict approach is often related to the individual differences ideology by the suggestion that the observed individual differences (low intelligence, criminality, poverty, or a poor work record) are a function of an unequal opportunity structure within the society.

Although the environmental resources conception of behavior developed out of (and therefore shares some perspective with) the social conflict model, it is very different from the earlier model in some important respects. In fact, theorists of the environmental resources approach criticize two major weaknesses which they see as common to both the individual differences and the social conflict models:

1) Both of these earlier models view the differences between people or between social groups as the major source of social problems. Both approaches focus on differences, and seek to eradicate these differences between people and groups. In contrast, the environmental resources approach suggests that the individual and cultural differences which exist between people in a pluralistic society are desirable. The importance and integrity of each and every individual is

seen as paramount. This approach, rather than seeking to do away with the differences between people, instead upholds and supports each person's right to express and fulfill themselves as a distinct individual. This is not to condone the continuation of social structures that deny certain groups equal access to resources. The point is that rather than focusing on differences, the environmental resources approach focuses on the right of each individual to have their needs fulfilled.

2) Both the individual differences and the social conflict models are criticized for their fixed, static natures. They both suggest that relatively stable characteristics are predictive of human behavior. The environmental resources position in contrast proposes that human behavior is much more likely to be a function of ongoing social processes -- like those within the family, the government, the school system which by their very nature cannot be captured by a static model. Furthermore, it argues that the two other approaches, with their focus on static individual and social characteristics, provide an excuse for not being involved in the social process. The alternative suggested by the environmental resources conception is one of involvement, in which the basic right of each individual to society's resources is highlighted. This position was most elaborately delineated by the Joint Commission on Mental Health in Children during the early 1970's. The Commission stated that each individual in our society has a basic right to resources, in all life domains, which society has available. The constitutional rights to life, liberty, and happiness were reasserted as a systematic position about how to deal with human difficulty. In short, each individual has a right to have his/her needs fulfilled through education, vocation, recreation, interpersonal relationships, and upbringing.

The implications of the environmental resources conception of human behavior are that advocates need to work for various individuals and social groups, to insure that the society and local community respond to the needs of all their members. The advocacy approach is hardly new to our society. In fact, advocates have existed in a number of naturally occurring and professional roles for some time. Parents are construed as advocates for their children, lawyers for their clients, professional associations for their constituents, and labor unions for their workers. This conception also suggests that the role of the advocate needs to be more widely dispersed among various demographic, developmental, and professional groups. The advocate needs to intervene within the ongoing social processes which are relevant to the life of the individual or

group. Thus, an advocate will insure that each individual receives the full gamut of resources to which he/she has a right, and which are needed to fulfill individual needs.

Environmental Resources Conception of Juvenile Delinquency

Initially the environmental conception was applied to the problem of juvenile delinquency due to a growing recognition that the traditional approaches failed to provide any productive strategies for dealing with youthful law violators. The traditional explanations of delinquency failed to account for the widespread incidence of illegal behavior by youth among all social and demographic groups. In addition, the traditional approaches to treatment had resulted in the apparently malignant conditions prevalent in the nation's juvenile justice system and in the programs designed to rehabilitate delinquent youth.

The basic position of the environmental resources conception of juvenile delinquency is this:

1) Illegal youthful behavior is widespread among all youth groups.
2) A subset of the youthful law violators are identified by police, parents, and school officials as being official juvenile delinquents.
3) If sufficient material and personal resources are not exerted, the youth will in fact become officially labeled delinquent.
4) After a youth enters the system, access to important resources is further reduced.

The environmental resources conception suggests that delinquent youth are very much like all other youth (many of whom commit illegal acts), except that the material and personal resources which could have been used to keep them out of the juvenile justice system were not utilized. This subset of youthful violators that are identified often reflects the oppression of members of society who do not have privileges based on race or economic standing. Once a youth enters the system, his/her access to important resources is further reduced. The environmental resources model stresses the value of the individual. A youthful offender is seen as having unfulfilled personal and material needs. Thus, each youth must be respected and his/her rights to the community's resources guaranteed.

The acceptance of the fact that juveniles have a right to community resources has been a function not only of theorizing in the social sciences but also of events in the legal and political spheres. As was mentioned earlier in this manual, most "people helping" approaches progressed in relative solitude from the early 1900's to the early 1960's. During the mid-sixties the rights of those being served by various social agencies were reasserted in the streets and in the landmark decisions of the United States Supreme Court. For example, the decision in the

Gault case indicated that juvenile offenders have a right to the nation's legal resources in the defense of their cases. This basic philosophy was expanded to other social service fields, and the basic rights of individuals to be involved in and have some control over their own destinies was stressed.

In the area of treatment of juvenile offenders, this individual rights/child advocacy approach has recently been recommended as a general intervention strategy. Success in American society, both material and personal, can be viewed as a function of one's ability to manipulate society's resources for one's own benefit. Children have lacked advocacy groups and hence have probably received less than their fair share of the community's resources. Youth identified as delinquents have obviously received even fewer of the resources to which they have a right. Thus, the child advocacy approach suggests that the scales should be balanced so that the law violator has an equal chance of gaining the resources necessary to fulfill his/her personal and material needs.

The advocacy intervention used in the ADP involves a multiple-strategy, problem-solving process proposed by Davidson & Rapp (1976). The steps of this intervention model are interrelated and contain feedback loops. The process is classified into three general phases: 1) primary assessment, 2) strategy selection, and 3) implementation. Each phase will be discussed in detail in subsequent units. Here you are provided with a brief overview of this advocacy intervention model.

During the first phase, primary assessment, the advocate: a) assesses the unmet needs of the youth; b) generates a list of all possible resources that could be used to fulfill those needs: c) identifies who controls the needed resources; and d) assesses the vulnerabilities of those who control needed resources; that is, those factors to which the target individual/institution would be most responsive and which would lead to the procurement of desired resources.

The second phase involves selecting a strategy that will produce the resources needed. Strategies are multiple and can be viewed as varying along two continuum, a positive-to-negative continuum and an individual-to-policy level continuum. With respect to the first set of strategies, at the positive end the advocate attempts to gain good favor of the person or agency in control of the needed resources. At the midpoint, the advocate maintains a neutral position and provides information to critical individual or agency about the unmet need. At the negative end, the advocate takes direct aversive action against the critical individual or agency. The second set of advocacy strategies involves a continuum with points representing the individual, administrative, and policy level. At the individual level, the advocate identifies the critical person in control of the needed

resources and directs one of the above strategies toward that individual. At the administrative level, the advocate identifies a critical agency in control of the needed resource to which advocacy strategies are directed. At the policy level, the advocate identifies some political or social system that was responsible for the lacking resource and works toward bringing about policy/system changes. These two sets of strategies interact. Each can be combined with each other producing nine distinct advocacy strategies.

The last phase of the advocacy intervention model is implementation. This involves carrying out the selected advocacy strategy and monitoring the outcome to insure that the needed resources are obtained.

Within the context of this intervention model, three general roles and responsibilities of the child advocate emerge:

1) The advocate needs to take on the role of identifying, mobilizing, and generating the necessary community resources to meet the needs of the individual or group which is his/her constituent. The unmet needs of the individual are to be identified by the advocate together with the constituent individual or group. The advocate is called on to use the existing resources of the community. In general, a wide variety of resources exist which are little known to or used by the population in question relevant to their personal and material well-being. The advocate must also meet the needs of the individual through the creation of community resources which may be non-existent.

2) The advocate must devise an individualized advocacy strategy to mobilize or generate community resources. Obviously, multiple tactics are available and none are universally applicable or predictive of success. The advocate is called upon to carefully consider the various strategies available, the idiosyncrasies of the individual and the situation and resources to be targeted, as well as to make a decision about a course of action likely to lead to the desired goals. At the very heart of the child advocacy approach is an individualized strategy rather than a set of carefully specified steps to follow in all instances. Obviously, the child advocacy approach relies a great deal on the individual resources and capabilities of the advocate.

3) The goal of the advocacy effort is to teach the individual being helped to assume a self-advocacy position. Since the approach is based on the sanctity of the individual and his/her rights to resources, it is critical that the individual be involved in the advocacy effort, so that he/she will be able to assume self-advocacy at the close of the intervention. Obviously, the aim of the

intervention is not to require that the person need a formal external advocacy system to maintain his/her well-being. The individual needs to be directly taught the methods and organization of self-advocacy efforts and/or the option of organizing others to join in the approach.

Rationale for the Multiple Strategy Model: A Combination of Two Approaches

In the first two units of the training manual we have discussed the fundamental concepts of the behavioral and environmental resources approaches. Although the application of these theories is distinct, we will be using a combination of these two concepts in dealing with the youth involved in this project. It is crucial that you understand the reasons for presenting both approaches within the same manual. This summary will provide the rationale for promoting the multiple strategy model and will show how the two models will fit together in the remaining six units and in the actual intervention period:

1) Each method of mediating change for the youth has been selected for its soundness in theory and in practical application. In the Illinois Delinquency Project (University of Illinois, Champaign/Urbana) there were no major outcome differences in number of police contacts, number of court petitions, and seriousness of police contacts between the group using the environmental resources model and the group using behavioral agreements. However, there were significant differences between youths who were involved with the Project and those who received normal court services. The latter group had a greater number of police contacts and court petitions than those who participated in the Project, regardless of which intervention model they received. In other words, <u>both approaches were very effective</u>.

2) Although both groups did better than those not receiving the new strategies, it was clear that because of a special need or situation a particular youth might have done better if another strategy had been permitted. As a result of in-depth assessment you will become knowledgeable about the needs and special problems of your youth. Each of the youths assigned will of course differ in many respects. Behavioral and environmental resources initiatives are presented together so that <u>options are expanded</u>.

3) The use of a tailor-made program will help to eliminate the tendency to make assumptions about the youth's problems. While guidelines for implementing each model are given, the youth and family need to determine which areas will be targeted for intervention. Obviously, how you use the methods must be largely determined by the individual's circumstances. <u>Individualized programming is a major</u>

advantage of this approach.

4) The combination of these models will help to insure the stability and durability of the changes you plan and execute. When considered together, a combination behavioral/environmental resources approach covers more of what may be significantly affecting the youth's life. A multi-level intervention provides flexibility and mutual backup systems rather than total dependence on a single technique.

5) Having the opportunity to plan a strategy and pick your own methods will allow you the freedom to be more than a technician following a routine. You will have the freedom and flexibility to be innovative in implementing your plans. Innovation will provide good role modeling for your youth and will lead to creative solutions.

What does individualizing an approach in working with a youth entail? How does one devise practical plans and how do both models fit together in doing so? These questions and others will be directly addressed in the remaining training units. Future sessions will be designed to show how the multiple strategy model can be practically applied to the situations you encounter.

Basic Principles from Unit II

Manual

A. Basic premises of the individual differences model and the social conflict model
B. Criticisms directed at these two approaches by the environmental resources conception, and how E.R. differs from these.
C. Rationale and implications of the advocacy (E.R.) approach
D. Environmental resources conception of delinquency
E. The three general phases of the problem-solving process proposed by Davidson and Rapp
F. The roles and responsibilities of the child advocate
G. Multiple strategy rationale

Readings

A. Rationale for the advocacy approach, specifically for delinquent youth
B. Roles and responsibilities of the child advocates
C. Beliefs and values leading to the initiation of the Illinois Project
D. Assessment, evaluation procedures, and the determinants of success of the Illinois Project
E. Steps in blaming the victim
F. Rationale for the victim-blaming approach
G. Hiding the victim-blaming approach

UNIT III: INITIAL PHASE
ASSESSMENT AS A PRELUDE TO INTERVENTION

READINGS:

"Some things to think about when working with juveniles".

DeRisi, W.J. & Butz, G. (1975). Writing behavioral contracts. Champaign: Research Press, 9-25.

Price, J.R., Levine, A. H., & Cary, E. (1988). The rights of students. Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press, (Preface, Introduction, & pp. 3-10).

The interventions that you will implement with and on behalf of your youth will have several phases. You will spend the first few weeks primarily getting to know the youth. During this period you will also be doing an in-depth assessment of the youth's situation, available resources, and significant others. You will then be making some decisions about what areas to change, and which model and techniques to implement to bring about the desired changes. Next you will initiate and implement your chosen strategy. Actually, you may be intervening in several different areas of the youth's life at the same time. After you have implemented a strategy you will monitor its outcome. You need to continually evaluate your success in achieving goals and be sensitive to sources of feedback. Information secured from your monitoring efforts may indicate the need for intervention modifications. You may need to adjust your original plans, and/or additional areas may be targeted during the eighteen week intervention period. By the time you terminate your involvement you will have helped to foster durable, meaningful change in the youth's life by strengthening the youth's and significant others' abilities to renegotiate interpersonal contingencies and act as their own advocates in accessing resources.

The flowchart on the following page provides an overview of the entire 18 week intervention process. As you can see, there are a number of steps and paths that you can take over the course of your intervention. All interventions, however, will pass through five general phases: 1) assessment; 2) implementation; 3)monitoring; 4) adjustment; and 5) termination. This unit and the one which follows focuses on the first phase -- **assessment**.

Initial Phase

Your initial introduction to a youth and his/her life situations will actually involve several sequential steps. After a youth and his/her legal guardian have agreed to participate in this program, the project director assigns the youth a volunteer. Your supervisors will begin assigning cases somewhere around week four or five of training. When assigned a case, you will be provided with some basic facts about him/her such as name, address, age, and interests. It is critical that

you make contact with the youth as soon as you are assigned. This contact will generally consist of a telephone call to the youth to set up a mutually agreed upon time and place to get together. You should introduce yourself by name and identify yourself as being from the "MSU Volunteer Project". Often a commonly agreed upon activity will provide an opportunity for the youth and volunteer to begin to get acquainted. Be very specific about the time and place, and live up to the arrangements precisely.

You will spend the first few weeks primarily getting to know the youth and his/her situation. These initial meetings should be fairly relaxed so that you and the youth can become acquainted and feel comfortable with each other. In addition, you should use this opportunity to begin the very important process of assessment. Exactly how you do this is critical. On the one hand, while you want to find out the maximum amount of information about the problematic interpersonal interactions which the youth encounters and the unmet resource needs the youth has, you do not want to be exclusively "problem" oriented. These youth will likely have been "problemed" to death in the past and may be turned off by such an approach. Instead, during the first weeks you want to focus your early discussions on what the youth does and inquire specifically about each area discussed. In this manner, "problem" areas will emerge as one component of the youth's life and can be attended to as such. Important areas to discuss include family, school, friends, employment and free time activities. You will probably think of other appropriate areas as you talk with your youth.

The interpersonal atmosphere in which the early conversations are conducted is very important. You should attempt to foster a feeling of genuine concern toward the youth and a sincere interest in his/her situation. However, you should avoid playing social worker or attempting to force an emotional bond where one does not exist. At the same time, you must gather necessary information about the youth and be constantly sensitive to possible information about interpersonal relationships and/or unmet resource needs. Once again, this must be done with sincerity and some tact. The last thing you want to do is come on like the local cop or an investigative reporter. To summarize, while your initial contacts with the youth will be similar to getting to know any new acquaintance, it is essential that you be aware at all times of the need to gather pertinent information about the youth and his/her social and environmental situation. In other words, you are to begin the phase of assessment.

The Assessment Phase

Keeping in mind the multi-level intervention approach which this course emphasizes, you must obtain enough information to

enable you to develop a comprehensive intervention plan. In order to allow yourself the flexibility to utilize an appropriate combination of behavioral and environmental resource (advocacy) strategies, the necessary background information about the youth and his/her situation must be gathered. Only after you have made this comprehensive assessment can an intervention plan, tailored to the needs and potentialities of your youth, be developed and implemented.

In the actual assessment process, you should be simultaneously gathering information that could be used for either behavioral or environmental resource oriented interventions. However, for the purposes of this manual, it may be most clear to discuss the assessment requirements of each methodological approach separately. Once the requirements of each method are clear to you, it should be possible to encompass both methods when your actual assessment takes place.

The Behavioral Approach

When doing behavioral assessment it is important to understand the factors which control the observed behaviors. Kanfer and Saslow (1969) have identified the following factors to be aware of when conducting behavioral assessments[1]:

1) People operate within multiple systems, including biologic, economic, social, and psychological.

2) Most interpersonal interactions are operantly controlled.

3) The range of behavioral repertoire is limited by the individual's biological, social, and intellectual competence, by past history of reinforcement for behaviors, and current norms of membership groups.

The implications of these factors for assessment are that individual assessment is essential and that all systems that individuals operate within are open to targeting for modification.

In using the behavioral approach, you want to set the stage for yourself to facilitate negotiations between the youth and various significant others in his/her interpersonal network and to work with them toward interpersonal agreement. To be able to accomplish such a task, you must obviously first gather the necessary information about the youth's interpersonal network. This information includes:

1) Who are the important persons in the network, such as parents, teachers, and employers.

2) What are the present contingencies operating in the network, such as what are the reinforcers that are maintaining the behaviors, and who are potential mediators.

3) What are the problem areas in the network.

As soon as feasible in the relationship you should identify with the youth and family members the interpersonal contingencies you would all like to work on. A cardinal rule is that **YOU WANT TO SELECT GOAL AREAS IN TERMS OF IMPROVEMENT RATHER THAN ONLY STOPPING OR REDUCING HASSLES**. Your role now includes facilitating negotiations, for the purpose of establishing and monitoring interpersonal agreements.

At this point the assessment phase moves into a more advanced stage. Now assessment will be intermixed with specific action steps. Once you have established rapport with the youth and identified areas in which you will be working, the next step is to set up meetings between yourself and the important people you have mutually identified. While the range of important persons who might be identified should be based on the individual youth and the situation, you will generally be most heavily involved with parents, teachers, and employers. The purpose of the initial meeting with the youth and each of the significant others identified is to establish what each party would like to see improved in their mutual interaction. After setting up such meetings, and making necessary introductions, your task is to identify what each party would like changed in the most exact terms possible. The best way to gain such information is to ask each party that question directly, and then further question them in order to get their desires more clearly specified and translated into positive rather than negative statements.

For example, a common thing that teachers want is for the youth to do his/her "school work". Your response would be to find out <u>exactly</u> what the school work entails in terms of daily and weekly tasks. A common request by parents is for the youth to "follow household rules". Your response would be to ask <u>exactly</u> what those rules are. Kids often want to get parents "off their backs". When inquiring specifically as to what that means, you might find out that the youth wants to be able to go out with his/her friends without a 30-minute lecture about why he/she shouldn't. Your response here would be to find out exactly what the youth would like the parents <u>to do instead</u>.

To properly specify the behavior(s) that is to be changed, you should be able to answer the following two questions:

1) Do you <u>know exactly what each party is asking for</u> so that all concerned would agree on whether the change had taken place or not?

2) Can each <u>request be stated in positive terms</u>, rather than in terms of what each would like the other to stop doing?

Seeking the answers to these two questions should guide your assessment interactions with your youth and his/her significant others. <u>It is imperative that behavior is specifically defined</u>

and that only positive behaviors are targeted for intervention. After identifying the desired changes of each party you are ready to negotiate an agreement. Details about the negotiation process will be provided in the coming units.

The Environmental Resources (Advocacy) Approach

In using this approach you will want to set the stage for yourself to assume the role of advocate for the youth and his/her situation in areas of personal or collective need. This will involve gathering information from the youth and significant others in his/her life, as well as familiarizing yourself with resource options potentially available. In other words, you will want to begin to identify the critical interfaces between the youth and the social systems of the local community. The components of this process include: 1) the unmet needs of the youth; 2) the resources desired; 3) the various community resources available to meet those needs; and 4) the vulnerability of those who are in control of the resources.

1) As soon as possible you should identify with the youth and family the areas of unmet needs that you would all like to work on. A cardinal rule in the advocacy approach is that **YOU WANT TO IDENTIFY AREAS OF UNMET NEED WHICH WILL RESULT IN POSITIVE CHANGES RATHER THAN ONLY BEING CONCERNED WITH STOPPING AREAS OF HASSLE**. Talk not only to the youth about what resources he/she would like to have, but also speak to significant people in his/her life. Parents, teachers, employers, and others add new dimensions and ideas.

2) After you have gotten to know the youth you are working with and assessed with him/her and relevant others the individual needs to be focused on, the next step is to decide what resources are needed. This step is frequently overlooked because several resources may be identified immediately. However, the most obvious resources might not include all the options, and they might not be the best ones for the youth. It is crucial for you to brainstorm and generate as large and complete a list of alternatives as possible. In addition, it is important to assess the probability that once acquired, the resources will actually fulfill the needs of the youth.

3) Next, you must identify the critical individuals at the interfaces between the youth and the social system who can provide the resources to fulfill his/her unmet needs. It is insufficient to merely target a system for advocacy. You need to identify and isolate the individual who is in control of the desired resources. For example, it is not appropriate to target the local school system as failing to provide your youth an adequate education. What you must do

is to identify the individual administrator, principal, secretary, or teacher who can provide the targeted resources. In other words, each area targeted for change that you mutually select must include the specific resources that you would like to obtain and the individual who has control over those resources. Similarly, it is insufficient to indict the local employment field for failing to provide your youth with meaningful and rewarding employment. What must be done is to select what kind of job(s) would meet the individual need, what rate of pay is reasonable and needed, and exactly who is in the position to provide the youth with the employment situation desired. For the resources that are not presently available or accessible, the individuals or organizations known to be interested or involved in the general area may prove to be a useful starting point.

4) Finally, you need to determine how the individual that you targeted can be influenced by assessing her or his idiosyncracies. An assessment must be made of the factors to which the individual would be most responsive, and of the strategies that would most likely lead to attainment of the resource. Obviously, you will need a good deal of information about the target individual in order to make decisions about the strategy to be used during the advocacy effort. Quite like the attorney taking a case to court, you have to have your case together, know the issues involved, and understand how the judge and jury can be persuaded.

In the coming units some of the strategies involved in the advocacy method will be discussed in greater detail.

Multiple Strategy Model

The process of assessment is an essential starting point for both the behavioral and the advocacy methods. The needs of the youth, the significant others in the youth's life, the resources possessed by the youth and his/her family, and the external resources available in the community all must be assessed and considered in formulating an intervention strategy. This assessment should cover all aspects of the youth's life (home, school, friends, free time, employment, and legal situations). In addition, it should include specific information. General, unsupported findings are unacceptable as the following examples illustrate:

Examples:
Unacceptable: Youth says her parents hassle him.
Acceptable: Youth agrees to be home by 11:00 for privelege of going out the following night.
Unacceptable: Youth says school is OK.
Acceptble: Youth says he likes all his classes except math. His report card indicates that he received a D in math and C's or

above in all other classes. Both he and Mom report regular attendance, as is confirmed on report card.
Unacceptable: Youth wnts to participate in work study program but was told that she would have to wait 6 months.
Acceptable: Youth was told by a secretary that she would have to wait 6 months. The Director was found and a copy of the rules was obtained.

Finally, although assessment is especially crucial in the early phase of your contact with the youth, you should remain attentive to any new information or changes in the need or resource situation throughout your work with the youth. Assessment is a continuous process that will begin with your first contact with your youth and continue throughout the 18 week intervention.

NOTE: UNIT IV REQUIRES SEVERAL DAYS OF PREPARATION BEFORE THE GROUP MEETING. REMEMBER TO PLAN AHEAD.

Basic Principles Unit II

I. Manual
   - A. Five general phases of the intervention
   - B. Initial contact with youth
   - C. Interpersonal atmosphere and strategies in the initial phase
   - D. Need/Rationale for assessment
   - E. Factors which influence behaviors and their implications for assessment (Kanfer & Saslow)
   - F. Assessment of interpersonal network and existing behavioral contingencies
   - G. Cardinal rule of behavioral model
   - H. Choosing target behaviors for behavioral agreements
   - I. Assessment of unmet needs and potential resources
   - J. Cardinal rule for advocacy model
   - K. Length of assessment

II. Readings
   - A. General guidelines for interacting with juveniles
   - B. Choosing behaviors for behavioral agreements
   - C. Roles and characteristics of mediators
   - D. Importance of exercising rights and challenging violations
   - E. The rights to an education

UNIT IV: ASSESSMENT IN PRACTICE

READINGS:

Guggenheim, M. & Sussman, A. (1985). Courts and fact-finding procedures. In M. Guggenheim & A. Sussman, The rights of young people. New York: Bantam Books, 28-63.

Patterson, G.R. (1973). Families. Champaign: Research Press,

47-57.
Tharp, R.G. & Wetzel, R.J. (1969). Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, 69-96.

Last unit discussed your roles and responsibilities during the assessment phase. The unit highlighted the general assessment requirements for each intervention approach. This unit will elaborate on these requirements and discuss some specific assessment methods that will assist you in collecting important information essential for formulating an effective intervention plan.

The Behavioral Approach

As a point of review, in conducting a behavioral assessment your objective is to gather information about the youth's interpersonal network. This information includes: 1) who the important persons are in the network; 2) what contingencies are operating in the network; and 3) what the problem areas are in the network. In addition, it is imperative that the behavior targeted for change is clearly defined and stated in positive terms.

Tharp and Wetzel (1969) have divided the assessment process into five specific tasks.[2] These tasks involve the assessment of:

1) The behavioral repertoire of the youth.
2) The antecedent events, which are the conditions leading to the targeted behaviors.
3) The stimulus maintaining or reinforcing the behavior.
4) The reinforcement hierarchy.
5) The identification of potential mediators.

The first task involves identifying and selecting of the behavior(s) targeted for intervention. Behaviors can be classified into three general categories. These three categories are[3]:

a. behavioral excess: behavior that is problematic because it occurs in excess frequency, intensity, duration, or under conditions when it is socially unacceptable/sanctioned. For example: habitual truancy, cursing.
b. behavioral deficit: behavior that is problematic because it fails to occur with sufficient frequency, with adequate intensity, in appropriate form, or under socially expected conditions. For example: illiteracy, social withdrawal.
c. behavioral asset: Kanfer and Saslow define this as

nonproblematic behavior. Assets can also be defined as strengths, such as what the individual does well, appropriate social behaviors, special talents, assets, and/or skills. For example: a youth's tendency to come home by set curfew, mechanical skills, musical abilities.

You will want to focus your assessment efforts on identifying and selecting behavioral assets (positive behaviors) for intervention purposes. You will need to assist your youth and those in his/her interpersonal network in pinpointing specific positive behaviors. Behavior should be defined in terms such that it can be easily observed and counted. If the behavior cannot be counted reliably, it has not been properly pinpointed and efforts at bringing about positive change will be unsuccessful. For example, targeting an increase in "responsible behavior" as the focus for change, is a poorly pinpointed behavior. Rather, specifying what the party involved means by "responsible behavior" would be more satisfactory. For example: son comes in by designated curfew hour, son does dishes on specified day, and parent follows through on giving son the use of the car for maintaining his curfew. In the latter examples, "responsible behavior" has been clearly specified. The behaviors can be observed and counted and, consequently, all involved would reliably agree whether or not the behaviors have occurred.

The second task involves identifying antecedent events. This means identifying the conditions under which the targeted behavior occurs. You are to ask yourself: "what conditions or what events set off the target behavior"? For example, does the youth's parent start nagging at him when he begins playing his stereo? Identifying antecedents events is a difficult assessment task and consequently has not been incorporated to a great extent in behavior modification techniques. You will spend most of your efforts engaged in the other assessment tasks, however, it is important that you are aware of the influence of antecedent events on behavior.

Carefully assessing the events which are maintaining the behavior is the third assessment task. You will need to identify the functional relationships between the targeted behavior and the consequences of the behavior. The consequences could occur naturally or they could be purposely arranged in order to bring about desired change. An example of a naturally occurring consequence would be a teacher who praises a student for providing a correct answer. The teacher's social praise may be the maintaining stimulus for the student's study behavior. An example of a consequence purposely arranged to maintain a desired behavior is a parent who gives her son the use of the car Saturday afternoon for having babysat his four year old sister.

Much of your behavioral intervention will involve you being

a contingency manager. You will teach the family you are assigned how to arrange environmental rewards for the purpose of bringing about desired change. During the assessment phase, however, it is important that you identify those naturally occurring events operating within the youth's interpersonal network that are maintaining desired and undesired behaviors. Only after proper assessment will you have gathered the pertinent information to be able to rearrange contingencies so that undesired behavior is no longer rewarded and desired behavior is rewarded.

The fourth assessment task involves assessing the reinforcement hierarchy of the youth. This is simply identifying the rank order of the youth's reinforcers. Although many events may have reinforcing properties, some reinforcers are more powerful than others. For example, perhaps a three day suspension from school and the associated chance to sleep-in late and watch morning television, is more reinforcing than parental social praise for attending school. To some youths an extended curfew to 3:00 a.m. is a stronger reinforcer than a five dollar allowance. This assessment task can be accomplished by asking the youth about the strength of potential reinforcers, asking the parents and significant others, and through direct observation.

The number and diversity of potential reinforcers is virtually limitless. Some of the major categories include: material reinforcers, token reinforcers, social reinforcers, people reinforcers, and activity reinforcers. Further, it is important to keep in mind what may serve as a strong reinforcer for you may not be a reinforcer for your youth and vice versa. Although any event which increases the behavior upon which it is contingent is considered an effective positive reinforcer, not all potential reinforcers can be used in your behavioral interventions. Any reinforcer you select to manipulate must conform with two criteria. First, it must be available in the youth's natural environment for dispensing on contingency. Second, it can not be anything that is socially considered antisocial, illegal or immoral. For example, no matter how strong the potential reinforcing power of marijuana, skipping school, or driving without a permit, such things cannot be used as reinforcers.

The fifth and final assessment task is identifying potential mediators. An effective mediator must have three qualities:

1) Possess strong reinforcers for the youth.
2) Be able to dispense reinforcement on contingency.
3) Be in the youth's environment and frequently around when the target behavior occurs.

The dispensing of positive reinforcers has the effect of increasing the positive value of the dispenser, and consequently, can increase the emotional bond between the mediator and target.

The intervention strategy of using behavioral agreements is based on this principle. Therefore, through the application of this principle you will help your youth improve and strengthen his/her interpersonal relationships. Specifically how you will structure such interactions is the topic of the next unit.

Observation, Counting and Recording

The activities of observing, counting and recording targeted behaviors go hand-in-hand with assessment. Whether for initial preliminary assessment purposes or for monitoring implemented intervention plans, observing, counting and recording targeted behaviors are essential components of the intervention process. These activities are important for five major reasons:

1) Behavior change is usually a slow process. Some behavior may require several weeks before significant change is noticed. By systematically observing, counting and recording the behavior one can see small improvements as they occur.

2) Rectifies misperception or unvalidated assessment of targeted behavior. For example, the school attendance officer informs Mr. Sidewell that his son, Terrance, has been absent every day for the past week. The class attendance monitoring sheet that the volunteer helped Terrance and his father create indicates that Terrance attended all but one of his five class every day last week. The school attendance record was incorrect. Terrance's school bus was late each day causing him to miss homeroom where attendance is taken.

3. May reinforce desired behavior. The mere act of observing and/or recording improvements in targeted behaviors has been found to have reinforcing value for some, bringing about behavioral change without other forms of intervention.

4) Serves as a prompt to the mediator to administer social praise and/or to deliver other reinforcers.

5. Provides a means of continuous evaluation. These activities allow one to systematically evaluate the outcome of implemented intervention strategies. They provide a valid assessment of the effectiveness of the intervention and indicate if changes are needed.

The Advocacy Approach

In order to plan a comprehensive advocacy intervention you will need to identify: 1) the unmet needs of the youth; 2) the resources that will fulfill those unmet needs; 3) the critical individual(s) in control of the needed resources; and 4) the idiosyncracies of those in control of the needed resources.

Your assessment activities will include you directly asking the youth about his/her unmet needs. Although we advise you not to ask directly the question "What are your unmet needs?", other

forms of questioning will provide you with useful assessment information. Such questions include:

What are your interests?

What would make going to school better or more pleasant?

What do you do in your free time?

What would you like to do?

In addition to asking the youth, talking with others in the youth's life such as parents, teachers, and employers, is likely to add additional information. Observation is another method of collecting information about youth's unmet needs. This would include observing naturally occurring behaviors as well as asking your youth to try a new behavior and watching his/her response. For example, if your youth wants a job you could secure a sample application, have him/her complete it, and review the form with him/her. This will provide you with information on your youth's reading and writing abilities, whether s/he has all the necessary information such as social security number and references, and the type of job youth would like.

In your search to identify resources you will engage in such activities as brainstorming as many alternatives as possible, interviewing community members, and doing investigative research. Similar tactics are used to identify the advocacy target which is the individual in control of the needed resources. Assessment of the target's idiosyncracies is a more difficult task. Some questions that will help guide your assessment of the target's idiosyncracies
include:

1) Does the target have an ideology that would resist or encourage the provision of the resource for the youth?

2) Is there any relationship between the advocate and the target, or between the youth and the target?

3) Does the target view the relationship as positive or negative?

4) What are the target's self-interests?

5) To whom is the target most responsive -- supervisors, taxpayers, consumers, legislators, pressure groups?

6) How accessible is the target?

7) Does the target have direct control over the provision of the needed resource or is the target only one part of the decision-making process?

8) Does the target have many potential allies and how influential are they?

Once you have gathered the pertinent assessment information, you will be prepared to select a specific advocacy strategy to secure the needed resource. Details of these strategies are the topic of the following unit.

Basic Principles from Unit IV

I. Manual
   A. Five assessment tasks in the behavioral model
   B. Assessment and classification of behaviors
   C. Pinpointing behaviors
   D. Criteria for selecting reinforcers
   E. Characteristics of effective mediators
   F. Reasons to observe, count, and record behaviors
   G. Questions which gather advocacy assessment information
   H. Methods for collecting advocacy assessment information
   I. Assessing the vulnerabilities of the advocacy target

II. Readings
   A. Rights of youth in juvenile court system
   B. Importance of observing and counting behaviors
   C. The behavioral assessment tasks
   D. Availability of reinforcers
   E. Potential Mediators
   F. Intervention effects of assessment
   G. Type of potential reinforcers

UNIT IV: HOMEWORK

Objectives:

A. Provide you with experience in conducting some of the tasks associated with behavioral assessment, in particular, provide you with practice in observing, counting and recording targeted behavior.

B. Provide you with experience in the advocacy assessment process.

MEANS TO OBJECTIVES:

A. Behavioral Assessment

Part of your skill in assisting others to change their behavior comes from your understanding of how behavior change works in yourself. Therefore, this week you will initiate a self-management program by monitoring your own behavior for a period of several days.

1) Target/select a behavior you would like to change. When selecting a behavior, keep in mind the rules associated with properly pinpointing behaviors. Ideally you want to select a positive behavior and define it in specific terms. State the behavior and write a clear definition, one that describes the behavior in observable terms.

2) Devise a method of recording/counting the targeted behavior. Make sure to show your method.

3) Collect data on the occurrence of the behavior for a minimum of 5 days. Make sure to show your data.

4) Bring to class your written definition of the targeted behavior, your recording chart/system, your data, and complete answers to the following questions:

   a. Did you adequately pinpoint the behavior? Why do you

think so?

b. How easy was your recording system?

c. Could someone else have been able to observe the targeted behavior and have reliably recorded its occurrence using your system?

d. Could your system be improved? If so, how?

e. Did you notice any patterns or changes over time?

5) This homework assignment will be collected and graded.

B. Advocacy Assessment

This assignment is designed to provide you with practice in identifying and gathering information about potential advocacy resources.

1) Choose one advocacy area that you would like to investigate. Examples include recreational resources, substance abuse resources, employment resources, and reproductive health resources.

2) Generate a list of at least 10 possible resources in this one area. Ideas for available resources can be generated from a variety of sources, including your common knowledge of available resources, the yellow pages, the Community Resource Guide, referrals or suggestions from other agencies, friends, co-workers, or relatives. Make sure you are selecting resources that would be accessible to young people living in Ingham County. You will not receive credit for resources outside of this area (unless they are accessible to our youth) and will be required to redo any non-local sheet. Also, many MSU services are not available to youths, so look elsewhere for resources.

3) Select three resources from your list of 10. Call these three and collect pertinent information as outlined on the Community Resource Sheet on the following page. Supervisors will provide three copies of this sheet. Use one sheet per source.

4) Bring list of 10 resources and completed Community Resource Sheets to class. The assignment will be collected and graded.

UNIT V: SELECTION AND INITIATION PHASE OF THE INTERVENTION

READINGS:

Tharp, R. G., & Wetzel, R. J. (1969). Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, 111-147.

Stuart, R.B. (1973). Behavioral contracting within the families of delinquents. In J.S. Stumphauser (Ed.), Behavior therapy with delinquents. Springfield: Thomas, 334-350.

After establishing a relationship with the youth and assessing his/her situation from both the advocacy and behavioral perspectives, it will be necessary to execute your plans of action. Again, although you may very likely employ both methods

simultaneously, the two procedures will be described separately for the purpose of clarification. Keep in mind that assessment will continue throughout the entire intervention in order to further your understanding of the youth and to be sensitive to changes in the youth's life.

The Behavioral Agreement

There are several general rules which you should keep in mind when you are in the process of negotiating a behavioral agreement.

1. Every item in an agreement must be monitorable. It must be specific and observable by both parties involved, otherwise there's no way to deal with it. A common mistake is to be concerned with things over which you can have no influence. For example, parents frequently want to decide where their child goes and with whom he/she associates. Given that they can't follow the youth around when not at home, it's better to focus on whether or not the youth returns on time and informs them of his/her whereabouts.
2. A request for change by either party must be capable of generating reciprocal change by the requester. The agreement should involve an equal exchange of responsibilities and privileges.
3. Work on a few things that appear important to both the youth and the other party involved. You obviously don't have time nor can you change everything right away. The intention is to get a pattern of positive interaction initiated by focusing on a few important events.
4. The terms of the agreement must be clear, specific, and written in common language.

How you introduce agreements to the youth and his/her family is important. To begin, meet separately with each party. Discuss what each person would like to see changed, or would like to receive from the other person, along with what they would be willing to give in exchange. An agreements should then be discussed as a tool to help them make these changes. You may need to meet more than once with each party to clarify potential ideas.

After discussing the desired privileges and responsibilities with each party, you will then meet with all the parties involved. The purpose of this meeting will be for you to select the responsibilities, privileges, and bonuses to be included in the agreement. This will involve extensive discussion in which you will facilitate negotiations. During this process, it will be important for you to keep the above rules in mind. A further task for this meeting is the establishment of a mutual monitoring system of each person's performance under the rules of the agreement. More specifically, you will develop, in writing, an interpersonal agreement between the youth and the various others

you have identified as important. The agreement should include the following components:

1) Privileges: Specific things which each party desires such as free time with friends, spending money, or use of the family car.

2) Responsibilities: Specific things which each party agrees to do for the other such as attend school, maintain curfew, or complete household chores. (NOTE: The number of responsibilities should equal the number of privileges that could be earned, e.g., if three responsibilities are specified, the agreement should contain three privileges.)

3) Bonuses: An extra desired event that the youths can expect if they do especially well while performing their responsibilities such as permission to stay out longer than usual, extra spending money, or the opportunity to have a party.

4) Monitoring: A method for monitoring the performance of each party on each of the above components which can be verified by both parties. Common examples include diaries, checklists, charts, and grade cards.

We do not recommend the use of sanctions in agreements. If the terms of the agreement are fair and the rewards earned are strong incentives, then sanctions are not necessary. Do not suggest the use of sanctions to the family. If a parent insists on including sanctions, discuss this with your supervisors. If sanctions are included, make sure that the youth is not losing privileges already earned.

SAMPLE AGREEMENTEFFECTIVE DATES: From November 5, 1990 to November 25, 1990.

IF MARK AGREES TO:	**THEN MOM AGREES TO:**
Come home for dinner by 5:00 pm (Mon-Fri)	Give Mark $.15 a day ($.75 possible per wk)
Complete homework before going out after dinner (Mon-Fri)	Give Mark $.15 a day ($.75 possible per wk)
Come in at specified curfew (Sun-Thur 9:30; Fri & Sat 10:00)	Give Mark $.15 a day for Sun-Thurs and $.40 a day for Fri & Sat ($1.55 possible per wk)

BONUS: If Mark comes home on time every night (7 days) in any given week, then he earns a one hour out extra, to be used one night of his choice the next week.

This agreement will begin on Monday, November 5, 1990 and will run until Sunday, November 25, 1990.

Both Mark and his mother will monitor the above conditions by each initialing the prepared monitoring chart.

We will meet on Sundays to discuss how it is going and figure out what privileges and bonuses Mark will receive.

We will renegotiate this agreement in three weeks, on Sunday, November 25, 1990.

_____ _____

(Youth) (Parent/mediator)

_____

(Volunteer)

MOM AND MARK WILL INITIAL THE BOX IF MARK DOES THE FOLLOWING:

	Sun	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thur	Fri	Sat
Home for dinner (5:30 Mon - Fri)							
Completed homework before going out (Mon - Fri)							
In by curfew (Sun - Thurs: 9:30; Fri & Sat: 10:00)							

TOTAL AMOUNT EARNED? _____

DID MOM PAY THIS AMOUNT AT END OF WEEK? _____

WAS BONUS EARNED? _____

IF YES, WHAT NIGHT OF THE WEEK WILL MARK TAKE HIS ADDITIONAL HOUR OUT? _____

Under the principle of reciprocity, one party's privileges become the other's responsibilities and vice versa. The agreement should be presented to the parties involved as a selective set of their concerns which they agree to work on as a beginning step in producing change. You should be ready to acknowledge that the first agreement cannot focus on everything; rather it provides a place to start. The agreement should be signed by each of you. You will need to check back quite frequently initially to monitor the progress of the agreement. If you have selected contingencies which are truly important to each party, in other words, contingencies that function as reinforcers, the agreement should be successful. The importance of carefully watching, listening, and inquiring about important changes for each party will become very clear at this point.

Advocacy Strategies of Intervention

As you may recall, previous units provided an introduction to the various advocacy strategies. This unit will provide details on nine specific advocacy intervention strategies. Strategies available in child advocacy are multiple and might be thought of as varying along two continua (Davidson & Rapp, 1976). The first describes various advocacy strategies ranging from positive to

negative approaches to change. Points on this continuum include the following:

1) At the positive end, the advocate can attempt to gain the good favor of the person or agency in control of the needed resource.

2) At midpoint, the advocate could select a neutral strategy in which information would be provided to the critical individual or agency about the youth's unmet needs.

3) At the negative end of the continuum, the advocate could take, or threaten to take, direct aversive action against the critical individual or agency.

The second set of strategies available to the child advocate consists of a continuum of approaches to bring about change that ranges from the individual level to the societal level. The points on this continuum include the following:

1) At the individual level, the advocate identifies the critical person in control of the needed resource.

2) At the administrative level, the advocate identifies a critical agency in control of the needed resource.

3) At the policy level, strategies include situations in which the advocate identifies some political or social system that is responsible for the resource that is lacking.

As can be seen, the two sets of strategies interact. In other words, you will select strategies that are positive or negative and identify systems or individuals that must be changed.

I. Positive Strategy at the Individual Level. One common situation is that young people's needs for education are not being met because of inappropriate or irrelevant aspects of their curriculum. Taking a positive-individual strategy, the advocate would identify individual teachers and seek their agreement to try to make adjustments in the classroom curriculum that would be more conducive to the needs of youths.

II. Positive Strategy at the Administrative Level. The absence of adequate recreational activities and facilities constitutes another typical area of unmet needs for youths. Taking an administrative-positive approach, the advocate would contact the city commission with a proposal for drafting an application for a community development grant to generate additional recreational facilities and programs.

III. Positive Strategy at the Policy Level. Many youths who are seen in delinquency programs are unemployed. Taking a positive approach at the policy level, the advocate would lobby state legislators to amend irrelevant restrictions on the types of employment for which young people could qualify and try to initiate legislation to provide jobs in the public and private sectors.

IV. Information-Provision Strategy at the Individual Level. Another example of unmet recreational resources could be a particular youth's desire to participate in organized athletics. Taking an individual-information approach the advocate might tell the coach of a local football team that the youth in question wanted to join the league.

V. Information-Provision Strategy at the Administrative Level. In the area of employment, the advocate taking an administrative-information strategy would present information about potentially available employees and rates of unemployment to the director of the local youth employment service and would see that such information was highlighted by the media to influence policy-makers.

VI. Information-Provision Strategy at the Policy Level. Educational resource are a common area of need for all young people. In fact, current educational systems fail to deal effectively with one-third to one-half of American youths, many of whom consequently come into contact with the juvenile justice system. Taking an information strategy at the policy level an advocate would present the state board of education and state superintendent of schools with dropout rates and preferences for educational alternatives and would highlight the right of all students to a public education.

VII. Negative Strategy at the Individual Level. Youths are sometimes denied access to employment because of the employer's knowledge of past deviance. Taking an individual-negative approach, the advocate would have the local media cover the story about a young person's being denied a job by the particular employer.

VIII. Negative Strategy at the Administrative Level. Youths are often denied access to alternative education because of the lack of resources. Taking a negative strategy at the administrative level, the advocate would initiate a class-action suit against the school district for failing to meet its legislative mandate to educate all youth.

IX. Negative Strategy at the Policy Level. Frequently, youths are not employed because of discrimination on the basis of race, sex, and/or economic status. Taking a negative-policy strategy, the advocate would enjoin a legislative committee to investigate the Department of Labor's enforcement of policies prohibiting discrimination.

The actual combinations of strategies that could result are practically endless and depend on the situation, the people involved, the resource in question, and the person controlling

the resource.

A critical step is to assess the potential impact of alternative strategies. You will want to select the most promising advocacy strategy based on the following factors:

1) What you know about the target individual(s) and where they are vulnerable to change efforts. Anything we jointly know about the target individual and previous attempts to institute change should provide us clues as to what type of strategy and level of intervention holds the most promise.

2. What intervention strategy is likely to produce the most durable change. There's no sense in following exclusively short-term approaches. Many unmet needs may call for policy level changes in the handling of various community resources rather than only a decision relevant to a particular case.

During your involvement you will carry out advocacy efforts for and with your youth. To the greatest extent possible, your efforts should be directed towards advocacy with your youth. This will minimize the amount of time spent in doing things for your youth. Your purpose is to teach the youth the advocacy skills that will enable them to create positive change in their own lives, long after you are gone. The experience the youth will gain through observation and participation is invaluable. If it is necessary to conduct efforts on behalf of your youth, you must verbally review with them how you gathered the information in order to further their advocacy skills.

The actual advocacy effort is governed by the general principle of action. You are to be very outgoing, persistent, and insistent in your efforts to mobilize the community's resources for your youth. Advocacy efforts will include personal contact with the target individual or individuals. Several things are important about how you should approach the target individual.

1) Do not present the youth you are working with in a negative light as an excuse for why he/she needs a certain resource. Each individual has the right to community resources, therefore no excuse is necessary. Other people will have identified your youth as having problems. Being problem-focused will not help your youth gain access to resources. Focusing on your youth's strengths and assets will help gain access to resources.

2) It is important that you are well aware of the style of the target individual you will be trying to persuade, so that your entry into the system can be facilitated. This does not mean that you need to agree with or be co-opted by the local school, employment, recreational, or social systems. However, you will need to be intricately aware of their modes of operation so that you can use their existing resources to the best advantage of the youth. The initial phase of assessing

the target individuals and systems provides you with a critical base for gaining entry to the community's resources.

3) Do not jeopardize the credibility or integrity of the youth you are working with, yourself, or the program. Be positive, diplomatic and knowledgeable in your interactions with others. For example, if there is a problem at school, talk thoroughly with the youth and parents before you approach the school personnel. Be diplomatic and positive with the school personnel even when conflict occurs.

In addition to direct advocacy efforts via personal contact, you may also be involved in indirect advocacy efforts which involve phone calls, correspondence, and contacts with others closely related to the target person. In addition to trying to convince the target person of the unfulfilled need of your youth, another effective route for advocates is to bring indirect pressure on the target individual through other people. For example, suppose the targeted individual was the director of a local youth employment program. In order to get a useful job for your youth you might also want to contact the local Board of Directors and/or funding source of that program to bring additional influence on the targeted individual. Indirect advocacy efforts will be accomplished as a supplement to the direct advocacy effort. It is critical that a single individual be targeted for the advocacy effort so as not to engage in amorphous system blaming as an alternative to action.

Multiple Strategy Model

Again, it should be emphasized that the behavioral and child advocacy methods are not mutually exclusive. A given area of the youth's life might call for the use of one or both methods. The success of your intervention will be considerably dependent upon your ability to creatively respond to each situation on an individual basis and apply the technique that is most appropriate. In other words, you should not decide which technique you like the most from the readings and use that method indiscriminately, but rather you should let the nature of each situation dictate the appropriate action.

Basic Principles from Unit V

I. Manual
   - A. General rules for negotiating a agreement
   - B. Components of a good agreement
   - C. The principle of reciprocity
   - D. The nine general advocacy strategies
   - E. Factors in selecting an advocacy strategy
   - F. Considerations when approaching an advocacy target
   - G. The role of indirect advocacy

II. Readings
   - A. Resistances to the Behavioral approach (individual, family, school, and community); examples; proposed solutions

B. The use of common market or token economies in behavioral agreementing
C. Relationships with mediators
D. Stuart's view of family interactions and relationships
E. Stuart's 4 assumptions of behavioral agreementing
F. Components of behavioral agreements

UNIT VI:SELECTION AND INITIATION OF INTERVENTION: APPLICATION
READINGS:

Transcript: The Process of Negotiation. (1984). pp. 1-12.
Cormier, S.J. (1983). Approaching School Personnel: Considerations for the Effective Advocate, pp. 1-3.
Handout: Pointers on Making Initial Contact with Community Members, pp. 1-2.
Saxon, W. (1979). Behavioral contracting: Theory and Design. Child Welfare, 58 (8), pp. 523-529.

The format for this unit will be different than those up to this point. Although you will not be quizzed on the reading material, you are expected to read this material before you attempt your homework. The readings for this unit are very practically-oriented and are designed to provide you with some suggestions/pointers on initiating your behavioral and advocacy interventions. They are also intended to assist you with your homework assignment.

HOMEWORK

OBJECTIVES: Provide you with practice in initiating behavioral agreements and advocacy strategies.

MEANS TO OBJECTIVES: Your supervisors will divide your class up into two smaller groups of 3-4 students. Your group will be assigned either the behavioral role play situation or the advocacy situation (see following pages). You are to schedule a time for **your group to meet before next week's class to role play** the situation your group has been assigned. Your role plays are to be tape-recorded and the tape is to be brought to class. The tapes will be part of the class exercise. (Check the sound level and quality of your tape when recording.) Each tape will be played and reviewed by your supervisory group for feedback and to serve as a prompt for further role plays. Flawless performances are not expected, so please do not worry about rehearsing or perfecting interactions. Review of the tapes are to serve as a means of identifying effective actions/responses, suggesting alternative actions, and resolving/practicing difficult situations. In other words, it is a **learning** technique and not a means of individual evaluation.

UNIT VI: ROLE PLAY:
INTRODUCING THE TECHNIQUE OF BEHAVIORAL AGREEMENTS

Situation: It is the third week of your intervention. The assessment information you have gathered indicates that your youth, Derek Smith "wants": money, to stay out later, and not get bugged all the time by his parents. Derek is 15 years old and is in the 9th grade. You have also discovered that Mom and Dad "want": Derek to do chores around the house, come in on time, and "shape up" and "grow-up".

Objective: Introduce the concept/technique of behavioral agreements to the parties involved.

Task: Your group is to conduct three separate role plays. Each member of the group should role play the volunteer at least once. These are to be:

1. Introducing agreements to the youth.
2. Introducing agreements to the parents.
3. Bringing both parties together and re-introducing the idea of agreements to them for the purpose of setting the stage for a negotiation session.

NOTE: You are not to conduct a negotiation session (that you will do in the upcoming weeks); rather, you are to just introduce/explain the technique of using agreements to those who will be involved.

Important Points to Keep in Mind:

1) Do a preliminary assessment identifying what each party specifically wants. Attempt to pinpoint behaviors, remembering to get behaviors stated in specific, positive terms. This is an opportunity for you to practice the skill of probing.

2) Propose the idea of agreements to each party separately first, in attempt to persuade them to enter an agreement negotiation session.

3) Explain agreements in a simple and clear manner. Avoid jargon and psychology related terms/phrases. Use everyday examples to get points across.

4) Think of effective replies if confronted with resistances, such as the bribery issue.

5) Point out the importance of reciprocity.

UNIT VI: ROLE PLAY: INITIATING ADVOCACY STRATEGIES

Situation: It is the third week of your intervention. Your 15 year old youth, Sarah Smith has just received a classroom suspension from her 6th hour math class. A meeting between Sarah, her mother, and the Assistant Principal for Discipline has been set for the day after tomorrow. Until then, Sarah is to remain in a 6th hour study hall.

Sarah states she doesn't know why she was suspended from her math class, but suspects that it may have something to do with Ms. Thompson, her teacher not liking her because they always

argue. Consequently, Sarah says that sometimes it is easier to just skip that class.

Objectives: Identify the specific ground for Sarah's suspension and plan an advocacy strategy that will fulfill Sarah's needs.

Task: Your group is to come up with examples of how advocacy strategies could be used. Role play three separate situations/interactions suggested from the scenario presented above. Examples include clarifying the incident with Sarah, approaching the teacher, approaching the Assistant Principal, and attending the scheduled meeting with mom and school officials.

Important Points to Keep in Mind:

1) Always keep in mind the purpose of your meeting with whomever, in order to enhance the likelihood of accomplishing your goals.

2) What specific advocacy strategy(s) did you select? Which strategy has the greatest likelihood of achieving desired outcomes?

3) How do you plan to introduce yourself to school personnel?

4) To what extent do you plan to involve the youth and/or her mom in your advocacy efforts?

UNIT VII: BEHAVIORAL AGREEMENTS AND ADVOCACY INTERVENTIONS IN PRACTICE: CASE STUDIES

READINGS:

Becker, W.C. (1971). Parents are teachers. Champaign: Research Press, pp. 47-49, 85-91.

DeRisi, W.J. & Butz, G. (1975). Writing behavioral contracts. Champaign: Research Press, 37-55.

The Negotiation Process, pp.1-3.

Patterson, G.R. (1977). Families. Champaign: Research Press, 59-72.

Beyer, M. (1980). Community and school partnership: Youth rights and the role of advocates. In Jordan, J. B., Sabatino, D. A., & Sarri, R.C. (Eds.), Disruptive Youth in School, pp. 51-67.

Transcript: Negotiation Session, pp. 12-32

As you read through the following case studies[4] look for areas of intervention. What advocacy efforts could you have performed in the behavioral agreement case? What kind of agreement could you have drawn up in the advocacy case? What would you have asked or done differently if you had been the volunteer?

The following case study highlights the principles, activities, and anticipated outcomes of the behavioral agreement method of intervention.

Behavioral Agreement Case

Joe was a sixteen-year-old who had come to the attention of the court's juvenile division for possession of marijuana and violation of the municipal curfew laws. Prior to the referral to the Adolescent Diversion Project, Joe had contacts with the police, including possession of controlled substances, truancy from school, and curfew violation. Joe lived in a middle-class area of Urbana-Champaign and both of his parents were employed. His father worked as a maintenance department supervisor and his mother was a bus driver for the city transit system.

After being assigned to Joe, the volunteer called Joe at home and set up a time for them to get together. They arranged to meet at the youth's home. At that initial meeting, the volunteer explained the project briefly to Joe and his parents. He and Joe were then left alone by Joe's parents. Although Joe had been rather quiet initially, particularly in the presence of his parents, he gradually began to discuss his own situation. The volunteer asked open-ended questions about various areas of Joe's life.

Joe indicated that he was in high school but was not interested in school. He said that he skipped whenever he got the chance. He talked of his interests in sports, particularly the Babe Ruth baseball team he pitched for, and the Sunday afternoon football group he hung around with. In discussing his home situation, Joe said that he didn't really mind it at home, but that "I spend as much time as possible away from home, with the guys or my girlfriend. The initial contact ended with Joe and the volunteer making plans for the upcoming weekend, either to go to a football game or to play football together.

During the remainder of the initial two weeks Joe and the volunteer went to a movie, played football again, had dinner together and talked on the phone several times. The volunteer began to work on assessing Joe's situation more specifically in order to initiate an agreement between Joe and his parents. The volunteer set up separate meetings with Joe and his parents to discuss what they would like to see from the project and each other. The volunteer explained the idea of behavioral agreements and what was required by both parties. The volunteer then arranged an initial agreement negotiation session. Joe's parents thought Joe should show more responsibility around the house, keep better hours, and improve his appearance. Joe wanted to get his parents off his back and get a component stereo set. At the conclusion of this session, the volunteer asked both Joe and his parents to specify these changes in greater detail prior to the next meeting.

At the next meeting, the volunteer prompted the parents to specify some responsibilities they would like from Joe. They felt he should: 1) inform his parents where he was after school

and return home before 5:00 p.m.; 2) make his bed and clean his room daily; 3) put out the garbage on Wednesdays and Fridays; 4) set the table for dinner each night; 5) mow the lawn or shovel the snow as needed; 6) cut his hair; and 7) improve his grades in school. Joe specified that he wanted to: 1) be allowed to earn at least $5.00 per week toward the stereo he wanted; 2) be allowed to go out four nights and two weekend nights; and 3) be allowed to choose his friends without interference or harassment from his parents.

On the basis of this information, the volunteer helped Joe and his parents to negotiate the following agreement:
Joe Agrees: Return home by 5. (Mon-Th)
Parents agree: Let Joe go out from 7:30 to 9. (Mon-Th)
Joe Agrees: Home by Midnight (Fri-Sat)
Parents agree: Joe goes out following night.
Joe agrees: Make bed daily
Parents agree: $.50 per day
Joe agrees: Set the table for dinner daily
Parents agree $.50 per day.
Bonus: If Joe performs at 80% or better in #1 through #4 above for a week, his parents will deposit an additional $3.00 in his account.

At this time the volunteer also set up daily checklists on each of the terms of the agreement to be jointly used by Joe and his parents to record each other's performance.

Following the implementation of the initial agreement, the volunteer monitored the agreement by checking the checklist every time he was at the youth's home. He called to prompt the youth and parents to fulfill their responsibilities and praise their efforts. In addition, he met weekly with all parties to review their progress. It was an excellent opportunity to model, prompt, and praise positive behaviors. In addition, the volunteer and Joe spent three to five hours per week in various recreational activities. These included sports events, going to the local Boy's Club, and playing Nintendo.

Joe's performance on the agreement was consistently 90% or better. Two weeks after it began, Joe received grades for the term. The volunteer's earlier visit with Joe's teachers had indicated that Joe was having some difficulty, but passing his courses. He received an F, one D, one B, one C, and an incomplete. This report card created considerable controversy between Joe and his parents. The volunteer suggested that school performance be included in the agreement. Daily checklists for completing assignments were established with Joe's teachers and he was able to earn additional savings towards his stereo.

Soon, Joe was consistently performing at 100% on all agreement items and both he and his parents reported to the volunteer that they were more satisfied with the situation. In addition, Joe

had been in no further difficulty with the police, and his next report card contained one A, one B, and three C's.

During the last weeks of the intervention, the volunteer engaged in termination activities with Joe and his parents. They discussed the agreement approach and its use on an ongoing basis. They role-played negotiations of several situations in which agreements would be useful. The volunteer coached them in specifying what each party wanted, stating requests in positive terms, negotiating reciprocal agreements, and monitoring the agreement. The volunteer reported that they parted on a very friendly basis and that Joe had spontaneously called several times during the months following termination.

In summary, the behavioral agreement model involved the following activities on the part of the volunteer:

1) During the first weeks of contact the volunteer attempted to assess areas of interpersonal conflict. Attention was focused on the home and school, on selection of behaviors to be modified, and critical persons to be involved.

2) The following week the volunteer involved the youth and the family in a process of specifying the behaviors each would like changed.

3) Sometime near the fourth week the volunteer helped negotiate the written agreement between the parties. The agreement specified what each person would change in the relationship and what each could expect.

4) After implementing the agreement, the volunteer closely monitored the agreement with both daily prompting and weekly reviews sessions. The volunteer praised their efforts and progress and prompted them to do the same. After four weeks, the volunteer also assisted the family in renegotiating the agreement.

5) Approximately four weeks prior to termination, the volunteer intensified his instructions to the youth and family in how to negotiate and monitor agreements.

The following case study exemplifies the principles, techniques, activities, and possible outcomes of the child advocacy method of intervention.

Child Advocacy Case

Donna was a twelve-year-old who had four previous contacts with the police. Her previous contacts included arson, theft, and incorrigibility. Donna was in the seventh grade and an A and B student in school. Donna's mother worked as an air traffic controller. At the time of referral, Donna was being charged with theft from her neighbor's house.

The volunteer made the initial contact with Donna by phone, explaining that she was with the Adolescent Project and that she would like to get together with Donna. By the volunteer's report, Donna sounded rather disinterested, but a "very

intelligent kid." Their initial meeting was at Donna's home, and the volunteer met Donna and her mom. She and Donna talked for an hour about the project and the youth's activities and interests. In the next few weeks Donna and the volunteer went to soccer games, a local museum and had lunch at a restaurant.

The volunteer also met with Donna's mom. She was quite intent on explaining Donna's problems as resulting from her parent's divorce. She felt Donna's current delinquent acts were due to the divorce. The volunteer prompted mom to think about areas of advocacy in which she would like to see Donna become involved.

Later that week, the volunteer initiated a meeting with Donna by explaining the general principles of child advocacy. She expressed to Donna that they needed to be concerned with ways in which Donna would be able to obtain the kinds of things she wanted. She went on to explain that these might involve programs, activities, or employment that Donna felt would be useful. She further suggested that what she and Donna might do together could be included. This precipitated a series of discussions surrounding Donna's interests and the activities she would enjoy. Donna and the volunteer continued their activities over the next two weeks, attending an intramural football game and going on a nature hike while still discussing Donna's needs. These discussions culminated in an agreement between Donna and the volunteer to focus on the following activities:

1) Earning her own money.
2) Joining an ice hockey club.
3) Getting involved in a recreational group, particularly those involving swimming and gymnastics.
4) Joining a nature study group.

Following this initial assessment, Donna and the volunteer set about determining what community resources existed for meeting their objectives, what strategy they would follow in obtaining each, and when they would follow through. They went together to the library to look through the county directory of social services, and called the local park department and the Girl Scout agency. After determining the availability of the needed programs and activities, Donna and the volunteer then constructed the following set of strategies and responsibilities:.

1) Employment: Donna and the volunteer discussed the realities of a 12-year-old gaining formal employment. They realized that more informal ways of earning money would have to be sought and decided that Donna would circulate among her neighbors a flyer indicating her availability for odd jobs such as gardening, leaf raking, garage cleaning, and window washing. This would be followed up by personal contacts with each family on her block.
2) Ice Hockey: Donna and the volunteer contacted the head of the local youth hockey club for information and determination

of eligibility requirements, time commitments, and fees.

3) Gymnastics: Their earlier search for information had indicated that the local YWCA had a weekly gymnastics instruction program Wednesday after school. Donna agreed to go and sign up. The volunteer agreed to ask Donna's parents for the $10 registration fee.

4) Swimming: Donna agreed to sign up for the Saturday swimming program at school.

5) Nature: Donna and the volunteer were to go together to an organizational meeting for the neighborhood Girl Scout Troop.

Although Donna indicated that she had been interested in these activities for some time, her mom had been more interested in her staying around the house. The volunteer talked more with mom about the rationale for involving Donna in these activities and how the activities were selected. According to the volunteer's report, mom agreed to provide transportation and half of the fees if Donna would pay the other half with her own money.

Donna and the volunteer were successful in accomplishing each of their stated goals except the ice hockey which wouldn't start for two months. Donna worked up her small business to where it kept her occupied two afternoons per week; by the end of the project she had even opened a savings account. She was also involved on a regular basis in the other activities. Her mother reported "she's been extremely responsible lately."

About midway through the project, Donna's mom decided that they would be moving out of state after the first of the year. Donna and the volunteer turned their attention in that last month to preparing for the move. This took the form of having Donna get information from her new community about the potential for similar activities there and planning strategies for how she would involve herself in the new community. According to the volunteer's report, Donna even wrote a plan of action for herself after receiving information about the new community in the mail. They spent their last two sessions together with Donna's mom explaining the importance of the advocacy strategy for future situations.

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Many youth wish to find a way to earn spending money. As an advocate, there are generally two strategies by which you can help your youth earn extra money. These include helping him/her secure a formal job or assisting them in finding less formal or temporary types of work he/she can do for money.

I. Informal or Temporary Employment

Less formal ways of earning money have proven to be an excellent way for younger youth to earn money and for all youth to develop business or job references for future employment. Informal jobs include babysitting, lawn care, dog walking, trash removal, running errands, paper routes, and

domestic services. Youth who engage in such activities are not restricted by age requirements and can dictate the amount of work they wish to do in order to meet their particular level of monetary need.

Explore with your youth who could provide work for your youth such as family, friends, and neighbors. Has the youth worked for any of these people before? What type of jobs is the youth willing to do? Does the youth have the necessary equipment? Can they borrow it? These are all questions which must be addressed when considering potential options with your youth.

A very effective strategy is helping a youth set up a small, ongoing business by establishing a regular clientele. Canvas the youth's neighborhood for individuals who could supply work for your youth. One very efficient method of doing this is to help your youth draw up a flyer which outlines what kind of work your youth is interested in doing. Distribute these with your youth in his/her neighborhood and post them at local businesses.

Above all, be **creative** in helping your youth secure temporary employment. Look beyond the more traditional paper route jobs to areas such as pet care, craft sales and selling cookies.

II. **Formal Employment**

For the older youth, or one who wishes to secure a more stable means of earning money, a regular job may be more appropriate. The components of securing formal employment include preparation activities and the selection and implementation of job search strategies.

A. Preparation: The volunteer's primary task in the preparation phase is to expose his/her youth to situations they will encounter when actually looking for work. Intervention activities will include: 1) Coaching your youth on demeanor and attire; 2) Compiling references and gaining practice in filling out applications; and 3) Role playing job interviews.

1) Demeanor and Attire: The volunteer will need to coach his/her youth on appropriate dress for the job search. The youth should be dressed in clean, casual clothes. Tennis shoes, T-Shirts and jeans, are not appropriate interview clothes. Simple pants or skirts, blouses or dress shirts are a must for the successful applicant. Hair should be groomed, clean and out of the face. Excessive jewelry and makeup, as well as gum or food, should be avoided.

Equally important is the demeanor of the aspiring applicant. Instruct your youth to be attentive, ask questions, and indicate that they are interested in working when interviewing with managers. Youth need to be coached in being courteous yet persistent in their requests to

submit applications and speak with managers.

2) References and Practice Application: Initially, it will be helpful for you to pick up a number of practice applications from a variety of businesses which hire kids. Look these over and be ready to sit down with your youth to discuss their content. There will be standard personal information asked for along with a request for school, personal, and business references. Use the phone book to get complete addresses and phone numbers. Brainstorm with your youth who they would use for personal and business references. Keep in mind that personal references do not include relatives and past employers. Be creative in generating potential business references. Keep in mind that this includes informal employers. Is there a neighbor the youth has babysat or done lawn work for in the past? Since most kids will be applying for entry-level positions prior work references are not a must, but particular interests, experiences or work-related aptitudes are a plus.

Have your youth write down this personal, school and work-related information on an index card and have them take it with them while applying for jobs. Not only will this expedite the process of submitting applications, but complete references will also impress potential employers.

Next, have your youth fill out these applications; the more the better. Practice will increase the speed at which your youth will be able to fill out applications, will allow you to assess their writing and reading skills, and will give the youth a sense of competency in one aspect of the process of getting a job. A complete, positive and neat application will put your youth at a definite advantage over the other kids looking for jobs.

3) Role Play Interviews: Another important phase of the preparation process is role playing of interviews with potential employers. Youth must learn to speak with managers while submitting applications. This will enable the potential employer to associate a face with the name of a particular applicant.

Be the "employer". Give your youth a taste of what questions they might expect to encounter in an interview. Why do you want to work here? What hours would you be available-? When could you start? Why should I hire you over these other kids? Switch roles. Model for your youth how to be persistent, positive and to ask necessary questions regarding when decisions to hire will be made.

B. Selection and Implementation of Job Search Strategies:

1) Where to Apply: Once you have prepared your youth for the actual job search, the question becomes where he/she

should apply. Youths often express a desire to work in the highly visible fast food franchises, ice cream parlors or convenience stores. These places receive large number of applications due to their highly visible nature. Though your youth may want to work at these places, encourage your youth to submit applications to less visible places as well. They may have less openings, but due to their lower visibility, they receive less applicants. Have your youth **submit applications everywhere**. Cover an area of businesses, having your youth ask for and submit applications at each and every store, shop or restaurant.

2) Follow-up: Have your youth write down in a job logbook where, when and who they talked to. Devise a follow-up plan, wherein your youth will periodically recontact these prospective employers in order to see whether openings have occurred. Recontacting each and every employer, either by phone or in person, every week is not too often. In fact, this persistence on the part of your youth will demonstrate motivation, a sincere interest to work and will single out his/her application from all others.

**** Obtaining a job for your youth is a simple matter of the number of applications submitted and the frequency at which they follow-up on these regularly.****

The Advocate's Role in the Formal Job Search

In helping your youth to find a job, you must be creative and supportive. Finding a job is hard work, and at times, a demeaning experience for youth. You must be positive, upbeat and enthusiastic in helping your youth secure employment. Make the job search as rewarding as possible for your youth. Submit applications, then engage in some pleasurable activity with your youth Involve significant others in the job search effort. If you are able to make the process of getting a job as positive and pleasurable as possible, your youth's chances of obtaining employment will be enhanced.

Basic Principles from Unit VII

I. Manual
   - A. Applications of the intervention strategies: Areas for using agreements in the child advocacy case; areas for advocacy in the behavioral agreement case
   - B. Informal employment
   - C. Formal employment
   - D. Advocates role in the job search

II. Readings
   - A. Guidelines in the negotiation process
   - B. The criticism trap - the steps involved and parties affected
   - C. Sample agreements
   - D. Use of social reinforcers
   - E. Use of checklists and written agreements

F. Obstacles to effective advocacy for educational needs
G. What the advocate should know or do to pursue advocacy within the school bureaucracy

UNIT VIII: MONITORING THE INTERVENTION

READINGS:

DeRisi, W.J. & Butz, G. (1975). Writing behavior contracts. Champaign: Research Press, 57-66.

Price, J.R., Levine, A. H., & Cary, E. (1988). The rights of students. Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press, pp. 46-90; 97-106; 135-146.

Breggin, P. (1991). Toxic Psychiatry, Capters 12 & 13. St. Martin's Press: NY.

Guttman, M. (1995). The ritalin generation. USA Weekend December 27-29, 1995.

Once you have put into effect the strategies discussed in the past units, you must immediately begin the important process of monitoring your intervention. Indeed, a critical part of the agreements you negotiate and the advocacy you conduct is the monitoring systems which you build into the overall strategy. The monitoring procedures for the behavioral and the advocacy interventions will be discussed separately. Keep in mind that you will be simultaneously carrying out and monitoring interventions of each type in your work with your youth.

Monitoring the Behavioral Intervention

One of the most important facets of any agreement you negotiate and execute is the system you design for monitoring the agreement. The monitoring system for a behavioral intervention will include a chart which provides spaces for recording the occurrence of the desired, agreed-upon behaviors -- both responsibilities and privileges. A good monitoring system will have the following characteristics:

1) It should be simple and easy to understand in format.
2) It should be easy to use. For example, it should involve checks and initials rather than written out descriptions of what occurred.
3) It should require mutual monitoring. Both parties should be involved in recording the information.
4) It should be stated in terms of specific positive behaviors, as the agreement is. Do not include space for other comments. That just invites the inclusion of irrelevant and negative information.
5) The monitoring system should be designed so that the information is recorded immediately following the desired behavior. This reduces the likelihood of inaccuracies and also increases the probability of positive interactions between the parties involved.
6) The system should provide a built-in incentive for monitoring. If the system has the above characteristics, this

will be achieved. If monitoring is easy and results in positive interactions and consequences for both parties, it will continue.

A sound monitoring system is important for primarily three reasons. First, and most importantly, the monitoring tasks will initiate frequent, positive, goal-oriented interactions between the youth and the significant people in the youth's environment. Since **the development of these interactions is the primary goal of using behavioral agreements**, the monitoring phase is a crucial component of this process.

A second important reason for implementing a monitoring system is that it provides accurate and specific feedback about the effectiveness of the behavioral intervention. By carefully reviewing the information from the monitoring system with the parties involved, everyone will achieve a clear picture of what progress is being made and, specifically how they are enacting the agreement that was negotiated. Without the monitoring system, this would be a matter of recollection and subjective opinion.

Finally, a sound monitoring system is important because it helps everyone involved to maintain a constructive focus and to avoid irrelevant arguments. Since the monitoring system describes <u>mutually</u> monitored accomplishments, it removes the possibility of disagreements over what has or hasn't occurred. It also provides a current and proactive focus, thereby reducing the likelihood that either party will bring up unrelated accusations from the past.

Your role during this monitoring phase of the behavioral intervention will require that you maintain a <u>very active</u> involvement with all of the participants in the agreement. Any newly negotiated agreement requires that both parties develop new behaviors. Negotiating an agreement, while important, is only the beginning. Actually living out the agreement on a day-to-day basis is the more demanding part. During this phase your involvement will be <u>crucial</u> to the success of the intervention.

Your activities while monitoring a behavioral intervention will fall into two major categories. First of all, you will arrange <u>weekly review sessions</u> with the parties involved in the agreement to review the monitoring charts and discuss the progress that has been made. You should schedule a minimum of two such meetings during the first week that a new agreement is in effect. After that, meetings at weekly intervals are sufficient. These meetings should continue regularly throughout the intervention. Since you may have difficulty in coordinating everyone's schedules for these meetings, the best approach is to agree upon times for the weekly review sessions during your agreement negotiation session. There are several important considerations to keep in mind concerning these weekly review

sessions.

1) The meetings should always include all involved parties.

2) Your overall goal for these meetings is to keep the discussions brief and positive in tone.

3) Gather accurate information. Pay particular attention to exactly how the people involved are executing the agreement. The information you receive from the monitoring system should provide you with the basis for further inquiry. You will have to ask specific questions several times in order to find out exactly what happened. Finding out how the agreement is being used in actuality will allow you to accurately assess progress and provide constructive suggestions.

4) Restrict the discussion to information from the monitoring chart. Don't allow the discussion to stray from the monitoring task. It may happen that one or both parties are eager to bring up other issues or areas of concern. These other topics must be put off to another time. Your primary goal for these monitoring meetings is to review and discuss the progress made in the agreement behaviors.

5) Everyone involved must keep in mind that change is a gradual process. Be prepared to accept set-backs as a natural part of the change process. Your task is to help everyone maintain a positive focus and not overreact to any negative occurrences. Caution them to be realistic and patient in their expectations and yet help them to maintain a sense of optimism and motivation.

6) These monitoring sessions are great opportunities for you to model the behaviors you are encouraging them to develop in their interactions with each other. Be positive and reward any small changes that have occurred. Prompt and encourage positive interactions between them (e.g., "I see you were on time to fourth hour every day this week James. What do you think of that Mrs. Smith?). Provide feedback in terms of what alternative responses the person could make in a certain situation rather than only providing empty criticism. Remember that changing old habits is very hard work. Leave both parties with the knowledge that you appreciate and respect the efforts that they have made.

The second type of monitoring activity that you will engage in is daily monitoring which involves frequent spontaneous contacts with the parties involved in the agreement to prompt and encourage the newly agreed-to activities. These interactions should be timed so that you can prompt or provide instruction for the new agreed-upon behaviors or monitoring activities. For example, if your youth Sue has agreed to take out the trash on Tuesday night, give her a call to remind her. Then Wednesday morning you might call Sue's father to see that he noted it down on the chart and responded positively when he saw that she had

completed her chore. Or, for example, if a school monitoring system has been arranged that requires that Sue get weekly notes from her counselor, make calls to her and her counselor on Friday to remind them to do so. Remember to monitor the privileges in the agreement as well. Did Sue and her father remember to arrange the ride to her friend's house that she had earned?

These frequent contacts not only increase the likelihood of compliance and success but also allow you to troubleshoot as minor issues and misunderstandings arise. When you are in frequent contact with the parties involved these issues can be resolved quickly. This intensive monitoring also provides you with an opportunity to provide a great deal of encouragement and praise to all parties. Be creative in this regard. If your youth and his/her parents have been working hard to improve their relationships through complying with an agreement, initiate a celebration with them. Engage in some joint activity that they would both enjoy or do anything that lets them know you appreciate their efforts. This sort of celebrating helps them to appreciate the progress they've made too.

Renegotiation:There may be times when you find that the original agreement is not meeting the interpersonal goals of the parties involved. Such failure may be a result of inadequate assessment in determining which changes are actually important to each party or perhaps the initial interpersonal situation has changed. It may also be the case that the initial agreement quickly accomplished its stated goals. There may be times when you decide that it would be more beneficial to attempt to renegotiate the initial agreement. Such renegotiation should follow these general decision rules:

1) You should not consider renegotiation until three to four weeks after implementing the initial agreement.
2) The agreement renegotiation should follow the same procedures as the negotiation of the initial agreement.
3) You should involve all parties, including the supervisory group, in the renegotiation process.
4) The renegotiation should be based on the information you have gained from executing the initial agreement.

It is important that each party involved receive additional privileges if they take on additional responsibilities. You should be able to select new privileges for each party from the information provided in the original negotiation session. You may also generate ideas by listening carefully to each party's concerns and watching the things they do in interpersonal exchanges.

When an agreement is renegotiated because of inadequate performance by either party, you should also follow the principles laid out for the initial agreement negotiation. In general, if one or both of the individuals is not meeting the

terms of the agreement, then they have not received interpersonal exchanges which they value for their performance. You may need to negotiate additional privileges for either or both parties to be exchanged for increased performance. If the existing privileges are insufficient to induce the desired change, you may need to upgrade the execution of the specific terms of the agreement such as how and when privileges are delivered or the consistency with which they are delivered. A list of agreement problem areas prepared by DeRisi and Butz (1976) is included at the end of this unit. This is an extremely useful guide to refer back to when troubleshooting an unsuccessful agreement.

Monitoring the Advocacy Intervention

Careful monitoring is also an important component of the advocacy approach and it involves paying close attention to the effects of your advocacy efforts. It is important that you determine the youth's satisfaction with the changes that have occurred. It is also important that you check the specific effects of the change directly. Advocacy and accountability go hand in hand. You may find that changes which have been specifically agreed to by the target individual are not being carried out exactly as planned or may be producing undesired side effects. For example, the youth who you are working with has been assigned to a special education program which is irrelevant to his/her areas of interest and future vocational or educational aspirations. You could work out a curriculum change with the school counselor so that the youth's interests and potential were better served by the education system. After implementing a strategy you need to follow-up by carefully checking with the youth and others. If after careful questioning you find that the new classes were in fact also irrelevant for the needs of the youth, you would need to reassert the rights of the youth through additional advocacy strategies.

The key to adequate monitoring of your advocacy efforts is to ask very specific educated questions of the youth and the other parties involved. You need to know enough about the situation so that you are able to accurately assess whether anything useful has happened. The response "Everything's okay" is not sufficient when inquiring about the progress of change efforts. You need to find out exactly what has happened without playing 20 questions. You are likely to get accurate feedback if you:

1) have established rapport with the youth;
2) are sufficiently informed about the changes desired;
3) can ask questions in a manner that the youth can understand; and
4) can convince the youth that you know what you are talking about.

Secondary Advocacy Efforts

Similar to the renegotiation process in the behavioral approach, you will also find it necessary to initiate secondary advocacy efforts. The following principles apply:

1) You should allow adequate time for the initial changes to take place. Skeptical patience describes the position you should take.

2) Careful monitoring of the change process should provide you with additional information to use in the event that further direct or indirect action is needed.

3) You should assess both with the youth and your supervisory group whether additional effort in an area of unmet need is indicated.

In general, secondary advocacy efforts should include a careful scrutiny of the initial strategy used, the approach taken, and the specific targeted individual. You may decide that another strategy is indicated or that the initial effort needs to be executed again.

The Role of Crises

Crises may occur during any phase of the intervention period. How they are handled may determine the effectiveness of your intervention. People are typically more susceptible to influence and change during crisis periods. Thus, crises yield rich opportunities for the youth and significant others to develop different approaches and receive new understanding of their world. For you, they provide an excellent opportunity to be especially useful. By not overreacting or panicking as others in the youth's life are doing, you can continue in your role as negotiator/advocate to help the youth and significant others to find alternative ways of dealing with the new problems. However, although crises demand immediate attention, it is critical that you do not set up new reinforcing contingencies or put a major focus on the crisis situation, for that would only tend to reinforce the occurrence of these events. In addition, do not let crises jeopardize the areas of change already being worked on and the successes already accomplished.

Important things to remember:

1. Remain calm.
2. Gather information.
3. Call your supervisors.
4. Refer to the basic philosophies.
5. Advocate for your youth.
6. Continue working on other areas of intervention.

Troubleshooting Guide

The following questions may help you to spot the problems in your agreement system.

The Agreement

1) Was the target behavior clearly specified and worded

positively?
2) Did the agreement provide for immediate reinforcement after the behavior occurred?
(i.e. monitoring and praise)
3) Did it ask for small approximations to the desired behavior?
4) Was reinforcement frequent and in small amounts?
5) Did the agreement call for and reward accomplishment rather than obedience?
6) Was the agreement mutually negotiated?

The Target (Youth)
1) Did (s)he understand the agreement?
2) Is (s)he getting the reinforcer from some other source?
3) Do the reinforcers have to be reevaluated (are they sufficient/desired)?
4) Has a new problem behavior developed that is drawing the mediator's attention away from the target behavior?

The Mediator
1) Did the mediator understand the agreement?
2) Did (s)he dispense the kind and amount of reinforcement specified in the agreement?
3) Did (s)he dispense it according to instructions, at the rate specified, and with consistency?
4) Did punishment accidentally accompany the performance being reinforced?
5) Did (s)he stop mediating?

From:
DeRisi, W.J., & Butz, G. (1976). Writing behavior contracts. Champaign: Research Press, pp. 58-59.

Basic Principles from Unit VIII

I. Manual
A. Characteristics of a sound monitoring system
B. Rationale for a behavioral monitoring system
C. Volunteers' role and 2 major activities during behavioral monitoring
D. Review sessions
E. Daily Monitoring
F. Considerations in planning weekly review sessions
G. Modeling behavior in the monitoring phase
H. Decision principles for agreement renegotiation
I. Monitoring the advocacy intervention
J. Secondary advocacy efforts
K. Volunteers' role during crises
L. Considerations in "troubleshooting" an agreement

II. Readings
A. Troubleshooting: agreement; youth; mediator; measurement; and volunteer

B. Due process rights of students
C. School suspension: rights and procedures
D. Relation of school to law enforcement; search and seizure procedures
E. Reasons why tracking and classification in schools has come under attack
F. Confidentiality of school records
G. Difficulties associated with securing the rights of students; pro's and con's in securing rights
H. Reasons why ADD diagnoses and Ritalin use has increased
I. Problems with labeling and the use of medications in schools

UNIT IX: TERMINATION/GENERALIZATION/OVERVIEW

SUPPLEMENTAL ADVOCACY MATERIAL:

Guggenheim, M., & Sussman, A. (1985). The rights of young people, Chapters IX and XI. New York: Bantam Books, pp. 218-234; 247-267.

Also, skim through other parts of the book, especially pp. 1-27; 108-131; 187-267 to familiarize yourself with its content. The book contains many issues surrounding youths' rights that have been addressed in past cases. Use this book as a resource for intervention purposes.

Lansing School District's Code of Student Conduct.

(**Note**: you need not study this material; skim through it to familiarize yourself with its content. Use it as a resource for intervention purposes.)

Termination Phase

As outlined in the introduction of this manual, the goal of this project is to keep the youth out of the juvenile justice system. Our means of accomplishing that goal are to get the youth and the important people in his/her environment to use the methods of behavioral agreements and advocacy as alternatives to seeking formal societal means of control. The accomplishments that you are able to make with the youth and his/her situations are the beginnings of changes in interpersonal strategy and meeting individual needs.

One problem which any program of this type has is that the involvement with the population being helped cannot last forever. Decisions to terminate at any particular time point are merely subjective. In this project we have selected eighteen weeks as the model intervention time period. Eighteen weeks allows sufficient time to accomplish significant changes, allows a mutually visible time period to accomplish goals, and has been shown to be short enough to avoid undesired dependency.

During the last four weeks of the 18 week intervention period your primary focus will be to teach the youth and significant others to use the methods of negotiated interpersonal agreements

and advocacy as strategies for goal attainment and conflict resolution. The preparation of these people for your termination should include three components.

The first component is to make it clear from the beginning that you are going to be involved with a particular youth for an eighteen week time period. You will want to inform all parties of this fact early in your involvement. It will make all parties aware that there is an explicit target date for accomplishment of stated goals and gradual transfer of primary responsibility back to those individuals in the natural situation. As you near the end of the eighteen week time period, you will want to begin more systematically informing the parties of the termination date and suggest specific things to be accomplished prior to your termination.

Throughout the intervention you will be teaching the youth and his/her significant others the methods of behavioral agreements and advocacy. The second component involves intensifying your instruction of the methods of negotiated interpersonal agreements and advocacy. This will take place through your instruction, example, and practice.

In the case of agreements, the initial and renegotiated agreements will provide practice sessions for handling future situations which may arise. However, you will want to spend the last four weeks of your intervention specifically instructing all concerned in the methods and principles which you have been utilizing in implementing the negotiated interpersonal agreements. Essentially, you will want to provide them with the information and principles that you have used throughout the intervention. For example, you will want to tell them in some detail about: a) the phases of negotiated interpersonal agreements; b) the basic principle of positive reciprocity; c) the importance of working on mutually monitorable events; d) the importance of specific positive contingent feedback; e) rules for renegotiation of interpersonal agreements; and f) using the information from successful and poorly executed agreements. In short, you will want to provide them a detailed alternative to turning to the police or other formal agents of social control for conflict resolution.

One effective termination practice involves compiling an agreement packet for those you have worked with. Such packets should contain a summary of information necessary to effectively negotiate and establish sound agreements. Including sample agreements and/or fill-in-the-blank agreements are also useful. Such packets should be clear, concise and written in common terms. These packets serve as a resource for individuals to refer back to when establishing behavioral agreements on their own.

In the case of advocacy, you will be instructing the youth and

significant others in the methods of advocacy from the beginning, and modeling advocay techniques throughout the intervention. This will take place through your mutual discussions and the youth's observations of your advocacy efforts. It is important that the youth not only be told about and observe how to execute self-advocacy, but that he/she actually gain first-hand experience in pleading his/her own case. During the last four weeks of the eighteen week intervention, you will intensify training the youth to be a self-advocate. You should provide him/her with all the information that you have been using. For example, you will want to tell the youth in detail about: a) the phases of executing an advocacy effort; b) his/her basic rights to the community's resources; c) the importance of making an adequate assessment of his/her unmet need areas; d) the various advocacy strategies available; e) the rules for selecting strategies (paying careful attention to the effects of self-advocacy efforts); f) the rules for supplemental advocacy; and g) how to use the information gained for future need fulfillment. In short, you want the youth and significant others to have an alternative to passive acceptance of unfulfilled needs.

Similar to compiling a resource for future behavioral agreements, you can compile an advocacy packet for your youth outlining in simple and clear terms the above mentioned points. Useful information to include in this packet are the names, telephone numbers and pertinent information associated with various community resources you've helped your youth gain access to, as well as resources that may be of future use. Once again, this packet serves as a resource which your youth can refer back to when carrying out self-advocacy on his/her own.

The third component of termination will be the actual practice of the methods by the parties involved so that they gain the experience of carrying out such processes on their own. The parties in each interpersonal agreement should practice the agreement negotiation process in your presence. You will help the parties role play a future situation which they expect will arise. In addition, the youth should actually carry out an advocacy effort with you acting as coach. Have the youth select an area of need, brainstorm resources, roleplay and have the youth implement a strategy to access the resource. Also review with the youth the previous advocacy efforts worked on. These practice sessions will allow you to observe their execution of each method, enabling you to provide constructive feedback about their performance. It will also reinforce that your involvement will be ending.

Before we conclude the training segment, let's review the phases and processes involved during the intervention period. The model provides both a repertory of skills and a series of

circular, inter-related paths to be used as needed rather than a rigid plan that has to be followed. Several important points need to be considered in using this flow chart.

1) Assessment and monitoring of all areas of the youth's life should continue regardless of the stage of the intervention.

2) Several areas of the youth's life may need attention at any given point in time. Intervention may be proceeding simultaneously at several different stages on the chart.

3) Certain phases of one strategy (advocacy or agreements) may be appropriate in conjunction with the other.

4) The process (path followed) on the chart flows in both directions.

A final task you will accomplish is to prepare a termination report. This report will incorporate the information you have been compiling on the case in your weekly progress reports and log book. See Appendix for instructions and excerpts. Your termination report will include an expanded version of the following components:

Goals. What were you specifically working on with this youth and his/her situation during your 18 week involvement. Include your original goals and any additional goals you identified later.

Techniques. Detail exactly what you and others involved in the case did to accomplish the goals identified above.

Evaluation. What is your assessment of the degree to which the goals were accomplished and the techniques utilized were helpful.

Summary

You have now completed the nine training units. Although the focus of the group sessions will now shift from primarily training to supervision, we strongly suggest that you continue to refer to this manual. This will maximize your effectiveness in implementing the skills you have just mastered.

Basic Principles from Unit IX

I. Manual:
   - A. Rationale for 18-week intervention period.
   - B. Purpose of the termination strategy.
   - C. Sequential components of the termination approach.
   - D. Agreement and advocacy packets: rationale and contents.
   - E. Strategies for maintaining change.
   - F. General components of the termination report.
   - G. Overview of intervention process.

II. Readings:
   - A. Miscellaneous rights and prohibitions of young people.
   - B. Juvenile labor laws: rationale, protections, and exemption
   - C. Obtaining work permits
   - D. Contracts with minors (not behavioral agreements)

APPENDICES of Appendix B

Appendix A/of Appendix B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR WEEKLY PROGRESS REPORTS

Fill in the Progress Report completely before class.

SIDE ONE:

The questions on this side are self explanatory.

Youth's Initials - Throughout the Progress Report, you are to refer to your youth only through the use of his/her initials. Do not use first and/or last names.

Date - Refers to the date of your case presentation, date your class met.

Volunteers's Name - Your name.

Report Number - Indicate the week of the intervention you are reporting.

Question I - This should be identical to your response to question IV from your previous week's Progress Report. In other words, your current week's plans should be the same as those you set up the week before.

Question II - State how your current week's plans fit into your long range goals. How do your daily tasks enable the youth and the family to learn the models?

Question III - List what you actually accomplished over the past week.

Question IV - You should begin filling this section out before class; however it is highly likely that you may adjust your plans based on feedback you receive during case supervision

Refer to the attached example.

SIDE TWO:

For each item, please be sure to use the number of digits specified.

Questions:

1) Self explanatory.

2) This should reflect the total number of hours you spent working on your case over the past week. Include in your estimation: time spent in direct contact with your youth, direct contact with significant others, time on the phone and any other time you spent working on behalf of your youth. The only time spent which is not included is your travel time. When reporting hours, use three digits and round off minutes to one decimal point.

For example:

a. If you spent a total of 7 and a half hours working on you case, you would write: "07.5".

b. If you spent 7 and a quarter hours, you would write: "07.3".

c. If you spent 7 and three quarter hours, you would write: "07.8".

3) Direct fact-to-face-contact means the amount of time you

actually spent with your youth, **in-person**.

4) Same as above, except this question asks for the amount of direct face-to-face contact you had with significant adults in your youth's life. This can include parents, grandparents, teachers, counselors, etc.

5) Select the number which best reflects your agreement activities over the past week.

For instance, during the past week you could have discussed agreements with the youth (response 3) and you could have discussed agreements with the mediator (response 4); however, response 5 indicated both of these activities and should be the number you write. Similarly, if you discussed, negotiated and implemented an agreement all within one week, you should select response number 7.

6) This question as well as the above question (i.e., Q 5) is referring to your most recent agreement.

7) Determine the total number of hours you spent on agreement activities over the past week.

NOTE: This number, should be less than or equal to the hours reported in question 2.

Questions 8 through 14:

These questions refer to the number of hours you spent engaged in various advocacy activities over the past week. Be sure you use 3 digits and round off minutes to one decimal point. (Do not include time spent in various agreement activities in this section.)

Question 14 would include time spent on termination activities and any other activities that do not fit into the other categories.

APPENDIX B/of Appendix B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR LOG BOOKS

Contact # and date	Length of Time	Nature of Contact	Logbook Page No.

1) Fill out a chart like the above example on the first 6 pages of the logbook. Enter each contact or effort to make a contact you have with the youth. Also include any efforts or contacts you make without the youth on his/her behalf on this chart. Then, in the body of the logbook write a brief description of the contact in the appropriate week's write up. Include all phone contacts in both places.

2) Organize the body of your logbook in weekly segments, beginning with the week your youth was assigned to you. In addition to describing all contacts enter other information such as your feelings about the case, your plans for the

coming weeks, and evaluation of strategies you have tried. Treat the logbook as a diary or a running account of your involvement with the youth.

3) Other instructions:

a. Refer to persons in your logbook by initials only.

b. Put your name and address in the logbook.

c. Don't let others read the book - keep it confidential.

APPENDIX C

MID-INTERVENTION AND TERMINATION REPORT FORMAT

You will submit a brief report at the midpoint and at the termination of your involvement with your assigned youth. These two reports are very important. A copy of each report will be given to the probate court. They should be brief (2-3 pages max.), behavioral, and positive in tone, outlining what you assessed upon entering your case, what goal areas you mutually targeted for intervention activities, and what you actually accomplished in each of these areas.

All reports should follow the general format presented below. Examples of acceptable Mid-Intervention and Termination reports are attached.

General Format:

A. Heading - Include youth's name, volunteer's name and date of first contact. The date of first contact is the date you actually met the youth in person. Termination reports should also include the date you terminated involvement with your youth.

B. Introductory Paragraph - Briefly summarize the initial stages of assessment with your assigned youth, identifying which goal areas you, your youth and his/her significant others mutually identified as being targeted for intervention activities.

C. Body of Report - For each of the targeted areas delineated in your introduction, submit a paragraph specifically outlining, in layperson's terms, the nature of your intervention activities. Include:

1) What you assessed. This includes needs, targeted resources, problematic interpersonal relationships, and areas for improvement.

2) What your goals were in that area.

3) What you actually accomplished. In the Mid-Intervention report include the goals for the remaining weeks of your intervention.

4) Summarize the skills that the youth has learned in each of these areas and how they will be able to use these skills in the future.

D. Concluding Statement - Include a few sentences to end your report.

Remember to be brief and behavioral, yet positive in

describing your intervention activities. Your reports should reflect the philosophies of the program by focusing on the strengths and assets of your youth and his/her situation. You and the family will have worked hard in creating positive changes - give yourself credit for your many efforts.

NOTE: REPORTS MUST BE DOUBLE-SPACED AND ERROR-FREE

SAMPLE MID-INTERVENTION REPORT

Youth Name: DeAnthony Jones
Volunteer Name: Mary Smith
Date of First Contact: March 22, 1994

On March 21, 1994, I was assigned to work with DeAnthony Jones. At thirteen years of age, DeAnthony is currently living with his mother, stepfather, sister, and brother in the Lansing area.

Upon meeting and getting to know DeAnthony and his family, we mutually identified the following areas in which to conduct intervention activities: (1) the area of employment; (2) the area of school; (3) the area of family life; and (4) free time activities.

In the area of employment, DeAnthony expressed a desire to earn some money this summer. As DeAnthony is only 13 years old, we decided to look into less formal means of earning money. We drew up some flyers and distributed them in DeAnthony's neighborhood in order to solicit odd jobs from local residents. To date, DeAnthony had secured 3 lawn jobs, two of which he will be maintaining on a regular basis throughout the summer. DeAnthony has also expressed an interest in golf, so we looked into the idea of caddying. We registered DeAnthony to go through a caddying orientation at the local country club. During the course of our remaining weeks together, we wish to complete the caddying orientation with the hope that DeAnthony will be able to caddie several times a week. DeAnthony would also like to continue with his lawn service work, possibly distributing additional flyers in his neighborhood.

In the area of school, DeAnthony is a 7th grader at Dwight Rich Junior High. Our assessment revealed that DeAnthony's school attendance needed improvement. After meeting with DeAnthony's counselor, Mr. Sloan, and talking with DeAnthony and his mother, it was decided that DeAnthony needed some sort of incentive to increase his school attendance. To date, we have discussed the idea of negotiating an exchange between DeAnthony and his mother, wherein DeAnthony would earn privileges (possibly money or additional time out of the house) in exchange for attending classes.

During the remaining weeks of our involvement, I hope to implement such an agreement, not only to increase DeAnthony's school attendance, but also to more positively involve DeAnthony's mother in the area of school. I also wish to see

that DeAnthony enrolls in classes that he would like to take in the 8th grade, particularly in the area of art where he has great interest and has demonstrated an aptitude.

In the area of family life, DeAnthony gets along well with his parents and brother and sister. As the oldest of the three children, DeAnthony is occasionally required to babysit for his younger siblings and does so willingly. DeAnthony regularly fulfills his responsibilities around the home such as babysitting and chores, and all involved seem happy with this situation. During our remaining time together I will continue to monitor the home situation for future intervention activities.

In the area of free time activities, DeAnthony likes to play video games, bowl, and golf. During our first few weeks together we visited local arcades and bowling alleys where DeAnthony demonstrated his adeptness in these areas. During our remaining weeks together we hope to continue to engage in these activities, possibly involving DeAnthony's parents. Also, we found out that if DeAnthony becomes a caddie at the local golf course, he will be allowed to play golf for free two mornings a week, something DeAnthony is very interested in doing.

In conclusion, DeAnthony is a bright, energetic young man who has many interests, strengths and friends. I am looking forward to our remaining weeks together.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

Asch, A. (1986). Will populism empower the disabled? Social Policy, 17, (3) 12-18.

Bargad, A., & Hyde, J.S. (1991). A study of feminist identity development in women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 15, 188-201.

Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distingction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. The Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, (6) 1173-1182.

Beck, B. (1983). Empowerment: A future goal of social work. New York: CSS Working Papers in Social Policy.

Becker, C.S. (1978). Phenomenology: An overview of theoretical and methodological issues. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association.

Bennett, E.M. (1992). Community-based economic development: A strategy for primary prevention. Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health, 11, 11-33.

Bentler, P.M., & Bonnett, D.G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. Psychological Bulletin, 88, 588-606.

Beyer, M. (1980). Community and school partnership: Youth rights and the role of advocates. In Jordan, J.B., Sabatino, D.A., & Sarri, R.C. (Eds.), Disruptive Youth in School, pp. 51-67.

Bollen, K.A. (1989). Structural equations with latent

variables. New York: Wiley.

Brenders, D.A., & Fabj, V. (1993). Perceived control and the clinton presidency: Political discourse in an alientated age. American Behavioral Scientist, 37, (2) 211-224.

Breton, M. (1990). Learning from social group work traditions. Social Work with Groups, 13, (3) 21-34.

Breton, M. (1993). On the meaning of empowerment and empowerment-oriented social work practice. Paper presented at the Fifteenth Annual Symposium of the Association for the Advancement of Social Work with Groups, New York, NY.

Bricker-Jenkins, M., & Hooyman, N. (1986). Not for women only: Social work practice for a feminist future. Silver Spring: NASW.

Campbell, A., Gurinn, G., & Miller, W.E. (1954). The voter decides. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.

Cassidy, R. (1980). Livable cities: A grass-roots guide to rebuilding urban america, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Chavis, D.M., & Wandersman, A. (1990). Sense of community in the urban environment: A catalyst for participation and community development. American Journal of Community Psychology, 18, (1) 55-81.

Cohen, J. (1992). Quantitative methods in psychology. Psychological Bulletin, 112, (1) 155-159.

Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). Applied multiple regression/correlation for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cormier, S.J. (1983). Approaching school personnel: Considerations for the effective advocate.

Craig, S.C., & Maggiotto, M.A. (1982). Measuring political efficacy. Political Methodology, 8 85-109.

Cronbach L.J., & Meehl, P.E. (1955). Construct validity

in psychological tests. Psychological Bulletin, 52, 81-105.

Cross, W.E. (1971). Negro-to-black conversion experience: Toward a psychology of black liberation. Black World, 20, 13-27.

Cross, W.E. (1978). The thomas and cross models of psychological nigrescence: A review. Journal of Black Psychology, 5, 13-31.

Davidson, W.S. (1976). The diversion of juvenile delinquents: An explanation of the processes and relative efficacy of child advocacy and behavioral contracting. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champagne.

Davidson, W.S., & Rapp, C. (1976). Child advocacy in the justice system. Social Work, 21, 225-232.

Davidson, W.S., & Rappaport, J. (1977). Toward a model for advocacy: Values, roles, and conceptions from community psychology. In G. Weber & G. McCall (Eds.), Advocacy in the disciplines. New York: Russell Sage.

Davidson, W.S., & Rappaport, J. (1978). Toward a model for advocacy: Values, roles, and conceptions form community psychology. In G.H. Weber & G.J. McCall (Eds.), Social scientists as advocates: Views from applied disciplines. Beverly Hills: Russell Sage.

Davidson, W.S. & Seidman, E.S. (1974). Studies of behavior modification and juvenile delinquency: A review, methodological critique, and social perspective. Psychological Bulletin, 31, 998-1011.

Davidson, W.S., Seidman, E.S., Rappaport, J., Berck, P.L., Rapp, C., Rhodes W., & Herring, J. (1977). Diversion program for juvenile offenders. Social Work Research & Abstracts, 1, 40-54.

Davis, E. (1989). The concept of empowerment in social practice. Toronto, Ont.: Laidlaw Foundation.

Deaux, K. (1991). Social identities: Thoughts on

structure and change. In R.C. Curtis (Ed.), The relational self: Theoretical convergences in psychoanalysis and social psychology. New York: Guilford.

DeRisi, W.J., & Butz, G. (1975). Writing behavioral contracts. Chanpaign: Research Press, 9-25.

Downing, N., & Roush, K. (1985). From passive acceptance to active commitment: A model of feminist identity development for women. The Counseling Psychologist, 13, 695-709.

Dwyer, J.H. (1983). Statistical models for the social and behavioral sciences. New York: Oxford University Press.

Eby, K.K., Mackin, J.R., Scofield, M.G., Legler, R.E., & Davidson, W.S. (1995). The adolescent diversion project. In R.R. Ross, D.H. Antonowicz, & G.K. Dhaliwal (Eds.), Going straight: Effective delinquency prevention and offender rehabilitation (pp 79-108). Ottawa, Canada: Air Training & Publications.

Englund, S. (1996). Orientations to feminism: A multidimensional alternative to feminist consciousness. Unpublished dissertation proposal: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Fagan, H. (1979). Empowerment skills for parish social action. New York: Paulist Press.

Farrell, A.D. (1994). Structural equation modeling with longitudinal data: Strategies for examining group differences and reciprocal relationships. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62, (3) 477-487.

Fawcett, S.B., Paine-Andrews, A., Francisco, V.T., Schultz, J.A., Richter, K.P., Lewis, R.K., Williams, E.L., Harris, K.J., Berkley, J.Y., Fisher, J.L., & Lopez, C.M. (1995). Using empowerment theory in collaborative partnerships for community health and development. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 677-697.

Finkel, S.E. (1995). Causal analysis with panel data. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage University Press.

Florin, P., & Wandersman, A. (1984). Cognitive social learning and participation in community development. American Journal of Community Psychology, 12, 689-708.

Florin, P., & Wandersman, A. (1990). An introduction to citizen participation, voluntary organizations, and community development: Insights for empowerment through research. American Journal of Community Psychology, 18, (1) 41-54.

Freire, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the opressed. New York: Seabury Press.

Freire, P. (1973). Education for critical consciousness. New York: Seabury Press.

Freire, P., & Macedo, D. (1987). Literacy: Reading the word and the world. Massachusetts: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice: Psychological Theory and women's development, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gilligan, C. & Attanucci, J. (1988). Two moral orientations: Gender differences and similarities. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 34, 223-237.

Guggenheim, M., & Sussman, A. (1985). Courts and fact-finding procedures. In M. Guggenheim & A. Sussman, The rights of young people. New York: Bantam Books.

Gurin, P., & Townsend, A. (1986). Properties of gender identity and their implications for gender consciousness. British Journal of Social Psychology, 25, 139-148.

Gutierrez, L. (1987). Coping with stressful life events: An empowerment perspective. Working Paper Series, (87-88-05). School of Social Work, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Gutierrez, L.M., & Ortega, R. (1991). Developing methods to empower latinos: The importance of groups. Social Work with Groups, 14, (2) 23-43.

Hallman, H.W., (1984). Neighborhoods: Their place in urban life. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Hayduk, L.A. (1987) Structural equation modeling with LISREL: Essentials and advances. Blatimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Heller, K., Price, R.H., Reinhartz, S., Riger, S., & Wasserman, A. (1984). Psychology and community change: Challenges of the future (2nd ed.). Homewood, IL: Dorsey.

Hoelter, J.W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness of fit indices. Sociological methods and research. 11, 325-344.

Hoffman, C. (1978). Empowerment movements and mental health: Locus of control and commitment to the united farm workers. Journal of Community Psychology, 6, 216-221.

Hoyle, R.H. (1991). Evaluating measurement models in clinical research: Covariance structural analysis of latent variable models of self-conception. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 59, 67-76.

Hoyle, R.H. (1994). Introduction to the special section: Structural equation modeling in clinical research. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62, (3) 427-428.

Hoyle, R.H., & Panter, A. (1995). Writing about structural equation models. In R. Hoyle (Ed.) Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issue, and applications (pp. 158-176) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hoyle, R.H., & Smith, G.T. (1994). Formulating clinical research hypotheses as sems: a conceptual overview. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62, (3) 429-440.

Jöreskog, K.G. (1978). Structural analysis of covariance and correlation matrices. Psychometrika, 43, 443-477.

Jöreskog, K.G., & Sörbom, D. (1988). LISREL-7: A guide to the program and applications. Chicago: SPSS.

Jöreskog, K.G., & Sörbom, D. (1988). LISREL-7 user's

reference guide. Mooresville, IN: Scientific Software.

Jöreskog, K.G., & Sörbom, D. (1993). LISREL 8: Structural equation modeling with the simplis command language. Chicago: Scientific Software International.

Kahn, A., & Bender, E. (1985). Self help groups as a crucible for people empowerment in the context of social development. Social Development Issues, 9, 4-13.

Keiffer, C. (1984). Citizen empowerment: A developmental perspective. Prevention in Human Services, 3, (2-3) 9-36.

Kelly, J.G. (1986). Context and process: An ecological view of the interdependence of practice and research. American Journal of Community Psychology, 14, 581-589.

Klem, L. (1995). Path analysis. In Grimm, L.G. & Yarnold, P.R. (Eds.) Reading and understanding multivariate statistics. (pp. 65-98) Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Klobus-Edwards, P., Edwards, J.N., & Klemmack, D.L. (1978). Differences in social participation: Black and whites. Social Forces, 56, (4) 1035-1052.

Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D.A. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Levine, M., & Levine, A. (1970). A social history of helping services: Clinic, court, school and community. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Levine, M. & Perkins, D. (1987). Principles of community psychology: Perspectives and applications. New York: Oxford University Press.

Levine, M. & Perkins, D. (1997). Principles of community psychology: Perspectives and applications (2nd Ed). New York: Oxford University Press.

Longress, J., & McLeod, E. (1980). Consciousness raising

and social work. Social Casework, 61, 267-276.

Lord, J., & Hutchison, P. (1993). The process of empowerment: Implications for theory and practice. Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health, 12, 5-22.

Mackin, J.R., Eby, K.K., Scofield, M.G., & Davidson, W.S. (in press). Integrating the ivory tower and the community: The adolescent diversion project. In J.P. McKinney, L.B. Shiamburg, & L. Shelton (Eds.), Teaching the course on adolescent development. New York: Garland Press.

Malekoff, A. (1994). Action research: An approach to preventing substance abuse and promoting social competency. Health and Social Work, 19, (1) 46-53.

Mathis, T., & Richan, D. (1986). Empowerment: Practice in search of a theory. Paper presented at the Annual Program Meeting of the Council on Social Work. Education: Miami, FL.

Maton, K.I. (1993a). Researching the foundations of empowerment: Group-based belief systems, opportunity role structures, supportive resources, and leadership. Paper presented at the Society for Community Research and Action, Williamsburg, VA.

Maton, K.I. (1993b). The biennial conference: A foundation of empowerment? The Community Psychologist, 27, 29-31.

Maton, K.I., & Salem, D.A. (1995). Organizational characteristics of empowering community settings: A multiple case study approach. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 631-656.

McCrohan, (1995). Considering parenthood: A predictive model of lesbians' decision to parent. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, E. Lansing.

McIntosh, P. (1989, July/August). White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. Peace and Freedom, 10-12.

McMillan, B., Florin, P., Stevenson, J., Kerman, B., & Mitchell, R.E. (1995). Empowerment praxis in community

coalitions. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 699-727.

McVeigh, J.S., Davidson, W.S., & Redner, R. (1984). The long-term impact of nonprofessional service experience on college students. American Journal of Community Psychology, 12, (6) 725-729.

Miller, P.L. (1982). The impact of organizational activity on black political participation. Social Science Quarterly, 62, 83-98.

Miller, W.E., Miller, A.H., & Schneidner, E.J. (1980). American national election studies sourcebook: 1952-1978. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Newcomb, M.D. (1994). Drug use and intimate relationships among women and men: Searating specific from general effects in prospective data using structural equation models. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62 (3) 463-476.

O'Connell, B. (1978). From service delivery to advocacy to empowerment. Social Casework, 59, (4) 195-202.

Patterson, G.R. (1971). Families. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Pentz, M., & Chou, C. (1994). Measurement invariance in longitudinal clinical research assuming change from development and intervention. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 62, (3) 450-462.

Perkins, D.D. (1995). Speaking truth to power: Empowerment ideology as social intervention and policy. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 765-794.

Perkins, D.D., & Zimmerman, M.A. (1995). Empowerment theory, research, and application. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 569-579.

Perry, H. (1980). The socioeconomic impact of black political empowerment in a rural southern locality. Rural Sociology, 45, (2) 207-222.

Perry, W. (1968). Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Piven, F.F., & Cloward, R.A. (1977). Poor people's movements, New York: Vintage Books.

Pollock, P.H. (1982). Organizations and alienation: The meditation hypothesis revisited. The Sociological Quarterly, 23, 143-155.

Rappaport, J. (1977). Community psychology: Values, research and action. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Rappaport, J. (1981). In praise of paradox: A social policy of empowerment over prevention. American Journal of Community Psychology, 9, 1-25.

Rappaport, J. (1987). Terms of empowerment/exemplars of prevention: Toward a theory for community psychology. American Journal of Community Psychology, 15, 121-148.

Rappaport, J. (1990). Research methods and the empowerment social agenda. In P. Tolan, C Keys, F. Chertok, L. Jason (Eds.). Researching Community Psychology (pp.51-63). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Rose, S., & Black, B. (1985). Advocacy and empowerment: Mental health care in the community. Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Rotter, J.B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80, (1) Whole No. 609.

Ryan, W. (1976). Blaming the Victim. New York: Vintage Books.

Sarbin, T.R. (1970). A role theory perspective for community psychology. In D. Adelson & B.L. Kalis (Eds.). Community Psychology and Mental Health: Perspectives and Challenges. Scranton, PA: Chandler.

Saxon, W. (1979). Behavioral contracting: Theory and

design. Child Welfare, 58, (8) 523-529.

Sayles, M.L. (1984). Assessing and synthesizing various social psychological approaches to political activism. Cornell Journal of Social Relations, 18, (1) 41-68.

Seeman, M. (1966). Alienation, membership and political knowledge. Public Opinion Quarterly, 30, (Fall) 354-367.

Seeman, M. (1972a). Alienation and engagement. In A. Campbell & P. Converse (Eds.), The human meaning of social change. New York: Russell Sage.

Seeman, M. (1972b). The signals of '68: Alienation in pre-crisis france. American Sociological Review, 37, (August) 335-402.

Seidman, E.S. and Rappaport, J. (1974). The educational pyramid: A paradigm for research, training, and manpower utilization in community psychology. American Journal of Community Psychology, 2, 119-130.

Seidman, E.S., Rappaport, J. & Davidson, W.S. (1976a). Adolescence in legal jeopardy: Initial success and replication of an alternative to the criminal justice system. Invited Address: 1976 National Psychological Consultants to Management Consulting Psychology Research Award. Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C.

Seidman, E.S., Rappaport, J. & Davidson, W.S. (1976b). Diversion programs for juvenile offenders. Consulting Psychologists, 21, 13-16.

Shields, L.E. (1992). The development of a model of empowerment with women: Implications for health planning and practice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon.

Shillo, B.A., & Davidson, W.S. (1994). Alternatives to secure detention for juvenille offenders: The case of diversion. Journal for Juvenile Justice and Detention Services, 9, (Spring) 7-16.

Shingles, R. (1981). Black consciousness and political participation: The missing link. American Political Science Review, 75, 76-91.

Shor, I., & Freire, P. (1987). A pedagogy for liberation: Dialogues on transforming education. Massachusetts: Bergin & Garvey Publishers, Inc.

Soloman, B. (1976). Black Empowerment. New York: Columbia University Press.

Speer, P.W., & Hughey, J. (1995). Community organizing: An ecological route to empowerment and power. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 729-748.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). An empirical test of a comprehensive model of intrapersonal empowerment in the workplace. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 601-629.

Stanage, S.M. (1986). "Unrestraining" liberty: Adult education and the empowerment of persons. Adult Education Quarterly, 36, 123-129.

Steele, C. (1992, July/August). Race and the schooling of black americans. The Atlantic Monthly. 68-78.

Stensrud, R., & Stensrud, K. (1982). Counseling for health empowerment. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 60, (6) 377-381.

Stokols, D. (1986). The research psychologist as social change agent. American Journal of Community Psychology, 14, (6) 595-599.

Stuart, R.B. (1971). Behavioral contracting within the families of delinquents. Journal of Behavioral Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, 2, 1-11.

Stuart, R.B. (1973). Behavioral contracting within the families of delinquents. In J.S. Stumhauser (Ed.), Behavior Therapy with Delinquents. Springfield: Thomas, pp. 334-350.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1988). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W.G. Austin (Eds.), Psychology of intergroup relations (2nd. ed.), (p. 1-24).Chicago: Nelson Hall Publishers.

Tharp, R.G., & Wetzel, R.J. (1969). Behavior modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic, pp. 1-25, 44-51, 54-60, 96-111.

Torre, D.A. (1986). Empowerment: Structured conceptualization and instrument development. Dissertation Abstracts International, 47, (5) 1889-A. University Microfilms No. 86-07,315).

VioGrossi, F. (1981). Socio-political implications of participatory research. Convergence, 14, (3) 43-50.

Wallerstein, N.B. (1988). Empowerment education: Freire's theories applied to health: A case study of alcohol prevention for indian and hispanic youth. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Wallerstein, N.B. (1992). Powerlessness, empowerment and health: Implications for health promotion programs. American Journal of Health Promotion, 6, 197-205.

Whalen, J., & Flacks, R. (1980). The isla vista bank burners ten years later: Notes on the fate of student activists. Sociological Focus, 13, (3) 215-236.

Whitmore, E., & Kerans, P. (1988). Participation, empowerment and welfare. Canadian Review of Social Policy, 22, 51-60

Yeich, S. (1992). Empowerment and structural change: The creation of a homeless person's union. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, E. Lansing.

Zimmerman, M.A. (1989). The relationship between political efficacy and citizen participation: Construct validation studies. Journal of Personality Assessment, 53, (3) 554-566.

Zimmerman, M.A. (1990). Taking aim on empowerment

research: On the distinction between individual and psychological conceptions. American Journal of Community Psychology, 18 (1), 169-177.

Zimmerman, M.A. (1990a). Toward a theory of learned hopefulness: A structural model analysis of participation and empowerment. Journal of Research in Personality, 24, 71-86.

Zimmerman, M.A. (1995). Psychological empowerment: Issues and illustrations. American Journal of Community Psychology, 23, (5) 581-599.

Zimmerman, M.A., Israel, B.A., Schulz, A., & Checkoway, B. (1992). Further explorations of empowerment theory: An empirical analysis of psychological empowerment. American Journal of Community Psychology, 20, 707-728.

Zimmerman, M.A., & Rappaport, J. (1988). Citizen participation, perceived control, and psychological empowerment. American Journal of Community Psychology, 16, 725-750.


MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES
31293015700846