CHAPTER THREE

Life Skills Education:
A Video-Based
Counseling / Learning
Delivery System

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Adkins's chapter makes it clear that first-rate skills training programs are not built in a day. He details the development of his programs-one took three years and a half million dollars. Adkins's programs have been highly successful. more than 350,000 people have participated in his Life Skills Employability Program alone. Like Egan, Adkins works within a developmental and psycho-educational framework. His programs focus on predictable life problems and crises of particular populations, or, in his terms, "where people hurt. " Particularly noteworthy is his four-stage Structured Inquiry learning model, which governs learning sequences aimed at helping people become not only more aware and insightful about their problems but also more knowledgeable and behaviorally competent in coping with them. Adkins was one of the first to make use of carefully produced provocative video vignettes to pose dilemmas and model solutions as well as provide feedback to the learner. The programs are designed to "dignify the learner" by eliciting the client's own exploration and experimentation until behavioral mastery is achieved.

Life Skills Education (also known as Life Coping Skills or Life Skills Counseling) can best be understood as an effort to create a more effective delivery system for making counseling/learning sources available on a mass scale to large numbers of people from different target groups who are not now receiving help. It is also an effort to improve the rigor of the learning inherent in the counseling process. Like other counseling approaches, Life Skills aims at helping people clarify feelings and values, make decisions and choices, resolve conflicts, gain self-understanding, explore environmental opportunities and constraints, communicate effectively with others, and take personal responsibility for their actions. Yet, unlike those counseling interventions that rely mainly on non-structured verbal exchanges between practitioner and client, the Life Skills approach makes use of preplanned, carefully developed learning programs using instructional as well as counseling methods to help people learn to cope more effectively with the specific psychological and social problems, crises, and developmental tasks they face throughout life.

Life Skills is part of an increasing trend in the field toward programmatic approaches to coping, exemplified by such problem-focused, structured, media assisted, experience-based courses and workshops as Parent Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1975), Structured Learning Therapy (Goldstein, 1973), Media Therapy (Ivey, 1973), assertiveness training, Multiple-Impact Training (Gazda, in press), Relationship Enhancement Therapy (Guerney, 1977), stress-management workshops, and career-education programs. Life Skills also makes use of methods employed by these and other approaches to counselor education (Ivey, 1971, Carkhuff, 1971, and Kagan, 1967): the use of video technology, small-group processes, the breaking down of complex problems into simpler learning tasks, and the integration of affective, cognitive, and behavioral learning.

Unlike approaches that focus on the training of the counselor, who in turn creates the learning experiences for the client, the Adkins Life Skills approach concentrates on *the direct training of the client* through the use of carefully developed sequential learning experiences and multimedia materials that counselors are trained to use. Thus, Life Skills as defined by this author is a full system consisting of a program design and learning model, a set of program development methods, a staff-training program, and a series of installation, organizational development, and dissemination processes.

As a full system, Life Skills provides the means for developing programs on a large scale to implement what I have called the "fifth curriculum" (Adkins, 1974), a specific curriculum for helping people at every level of the educational system and at every stage of life learn to cope with the predictable problems of living. It also provides the basis for the design of counseling/ learning services that can be transmitted through videodisk videocassette, and cable to home learning centers.

HISTORY OF THE LIFE SKILLS PROGRAM

It is axiomatic that an intervention in its structure reflects the nature of the problem it was designed to solve. It might be useful to trace this investigator's evolving understanding of the problem and the way in which the Life Skills system was shaped by that understanding. In 1964 the national agenda for the War on Poverty aimed at finding better methods of helping disadvantaged youth and adults become self-reliant, self-directing, employable citizens. Having just completed a Ph.D. in counseling psychology at Teachers College, Columbia University, under Donald Super and having spent a year at Harvard with David McClelland, I was aware of the potential value of psychological concepts and methods for the design of manpower training programs. During my work at a YMCA youth and work program in New York's Bedford-Stuyvesant area, it became quickly apparent that counseling was one of the most critical needs in training programs, yet equally clear that the best counseling methods, as we then knew them, were based on middle-class assumptions and were not very effective in working with this population (Adkins, 1970; Adkins, Rosenburg, & Sharar, 1965). Our observation of the counseling process led to the following analysis:

❖ Without structure, disadvantaged clients found it difficult to sustain focused discussion on one topic and instead tended to flit from problem to problem without sufficient attention or effort on any one.

❖ Without an effective means of acquiring new knowledge, groups tended to share and perpetuate their misconceptions and ignorance.

❖ Without the opportunity to acquire new experience and reflect on it, learners found it difficult to discover new ways of handling current situations and to understand the new situations they would be confronting.

❖ Unless talk was related to action and an opportunity given for goal setting and reflection, clients tended to become apathetic or over-enamored of discussion for its own sake.

❖ Without a means of practicing the application of knowledge to specific problems in living, clients did not acquire skill in doing so.

These observations suggested that a different kind of counseling program could be designed that would help educationally disadvantaged adults minimize their weaknesses and take full advantage of their strengths. The questions we asked ourselves were

> Could we not collect and categorize the common problems of our clients and deal with them more efficiently? Could we not define learning objectives based upon what behaviors were necessary to solve the problems, which we had collected? Could we not first take advantage of their preference for solving problems and for obtaining knowledge inductively from experience and then gradually introduce them to other means of learning about themselves and their opportunities? Could we not, in effect, reach our counseling goals better if we considered the psycho-social problems of our clients as our curriculum and employed a variety of teaching as well as counseling methods? Why not a curriculum for counseling which would be based upon our clients' actual and predictable developmental problems? [Adkins, 1970, p. 110].

The first Life Skills program was tested at Project Try (Adkins et al., 1965), a $4.5 million antipoverty training program in the Bedford-Stuyvesant area. It was during this period that we coined the term Life Skills to describe the kind of behavior-based psychological learning needed to help people cope with predictable developmental tasks. Later the term diffused into the general culture and has since acquired a variety of meanings ranging from those used by other psychologists, such as Gazda, Carkhuff, and Egan, to those used by people in other educational disciplines, such as English as a second language (Jones, 1974) and literacy (Northcutt, 1975).

The initial program made use of problem-centered, experience-based, and behaviorally oriented learning groups and employed a mixture of teaching and counseling methods to facilitate learning. Development of resources and learning activities that could structure the learning sessions was mainly the responsibility of trained teachers and counselors. It was found, however, that practitioners were not able to create the kinds of resources that would adequately meet the design requirements for effective learning. The conclusion was that the learning tasks were too complex and the learning activities and materials needed were too difficult to develop on an as-you-go basis. More experimentation was needed. My colleagues and I had, however, worked out some critical concepts and learning methods during that period that later proved useful.

In the years that followed, I moved my base of operations to Teachers College, Columbia University, and continued the development of the program design. Gradually, the present four-stage learning model was developed, incorporating video and other learning methods. A program development process was created to permit the systematic development of Life Skills units by full-time trained developers. In 1971, with funds from the U.S. Bureau of Adult Basic Education, a Life Skills Development project was established, and work began on making use of the learning model in developing a ten-unit Employability Skills Program (Adkins, Wylie, Grothe, Kessler, & Manuele, 1975) for adults dealing with the psychosocial tasks of choosing, finding, planning, and getting a job. Three years later a field-tested multimedia program with 260 learning components was completed. It was published in 1975 by the Psychological Corporation, a division of Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, which disseminated the program to many schools, training centers, and community agencies throughout the country. In 1979 the Institute for Life Coping Skills, Inc., a nonprofit organization, became the publisher of the *Adkins Life Skills Program: Employability Skills Series*. The Institute has continued to disseminate the program, has revised the videotapes in color, and is now completing a second edition of the program.

Over the past several years, steps have been taken to lay the base at Teachers College for the development of new Life Skills programs for other psychosocial problems of other populations. The R & D Center for Life Skills and Human Resource Development and master's and doctoral specialties to train counselors of adults

and psychosocial program developers have been established. A research study (Adkins, Hattauer, Kessler, & Manuele, 1977) on the life-coping problems of unemployed, disadvantaged adults-documenting the psychosocial problems of career development, marriage, parenthood, relations with others, health, community living, and personal development-has been completed, and several experimental videotapes dealing with representative problems have been created. A documentary film on the Employability Skills program and the Life Skills method has been completed and distributed, and a book that will describe both the theoretical and operational aspects of a national program for Life Skills is in progress.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGROM

The complete Life Skills system consists of the Structured Inquiry learning model, the program development system, a staff-training program, and installation, organizational development, and dissemination processes. This system permits the development of Life Skills programs for the predictable, common life problems of a wide variety of populations facing common life situations throughout the life span. The programs are designed to be delivered by specially trained teachers as well as counselors in a wide variety of educational, training, industrial, rehabilitation, mental health, and community agency settings. Each Life Skills program consists of a cluster of Life Skills learning units, each of which focuses on a specific coping problem, such as how to present oneself effectively in a job interview, how to avoid escalating marital arguments, or how to listen responsively to children. The four stage Structured Inquiry learning model (Adkins, 1970, 1973, 1974) serves as a guide for training program developers to create a sequence of learning activities and experiences and supporting video, print, and audio materials for each unit. The structure of each unit provides for the elicitation of feelings as well as prior experiences, the incorporation of new knowledge, and the translation of knowledge into actual behavior. Once a unit is completed, it is tested, revised, and then published. The Life Skills Educator Training Program prepares staff to deliver the Life Skills unit. The development methods and installation process ensure that excellent units are developed and installed effectively in learning centers.

The Structured Inquiry Learning Model

The Life Skills Structured Inquiry learning model is the central core of the Life Skills approach to the delivery of counseling services. Its four stages structure the sequence of learning activities and experiences for learners and the teaching and counseling functions to be performed by Life Skills Educators who will deliver the program. The model also serves as a format for program developers. What follows is a description of how a fully developed Life Skills unit would be delivered by a specially trained Life Skills Educator in a small group of 10 to 15 learners.
A Life Skills group begins with various group-forming activities and with an orientation to the program, often followed by a contracting session in which the learning objectives are explained and the roles and responsibilities of both learners and Life Skills Educators are made explicit and agreed to in advance.

Stimulus Stage. Each learning unit begins with a provocative presentation of a problem, usually in the form of a dramatic, emotion-arousing five-minute video vignette that depicts a person like the clients confronting a difficult situation and making a number of errors. The emotional impact of the tape and the details presented are designed to stimulate and focus discussion.

Evocation Stage. In this stage, usually lasting about 45 minutes, the Life Skills Educator (LSE) attempts, through a structured pattern of questions, to elicit from the group elements of the problem that was presented, to identify the critical issues, and to get the group members to describe similar experiences they have had. The LSE makes every effort to elicit feelings, thoughts, and experiences from all group members in order to get the group to define the problem, to suggest solutions to it, and to identify areas for further inquiry. Through convergent and divergent questioning techniques and the skills of paraphrasing, reflecting feelings, and summarizing, the LSE endeavors to *dignify the learners* by helping them realize how much they already know about the problem. As comments are made, they are recorded on flip charts in language

as close as possible to that in which they were offered. By the end of the session, the group will become aware of what it feels and already knows about the problem, will have had its curiosity aroused, and will have identified further areas for inquiry.

Objective-Inquiry Stage, Once Evocation is completed, the learners engage in a variety of learning activities to find out and experience what *others* know about the problem. Through the use of specially prepared video modeling tapes, pamphlets, audiotapes, questionnaires, rating sheets, simulation exercises, and specific learning activities, the LSE tries to expand group members' awareness about the problem conceptually and to help them gain insight into the origins of the problem, its current manifestations and consequences, and what must be done to solve the problem. Prior concepts are challenged, confirmed, and tested by new concepts presented through various exercises. Feelings are explored. Opportunities to acquire new knowledge about how others view or have solved a similar problem are also provided. The pre-developed activities and materials are designed to be used by learners individually or in dyads, triads, or large-group exercises in ways that permit individuals to move at their own pace, make their own decisions, and gain knowledge and experience in their own preferred style, whether through reading, seeing and hearing, experiencing, or discussion. Learners also engage in exercises designed to help them incorporate their new knowledge with their previous understanding and feelings and to practice specific sub skills required for solving the problem. Video is used where relevant to model solutions, to present new concepts and knowledge, and to monitor and give feedback on the practice of new behavior.

Application Stage The purpose of this stage is to help the learner translate his new understanding, insight, feelings, and knowledge into actual behavior in a simulated or real-life situation. Learners engage in role-playing or simulation exercises that, where possible, are videotaped, rated, and critiqued by themselves, other group members, and the LSE. After feedback the learners are encouraged to repeat the behavior in simulated situations and then later in real-life situations until behavioral mastery is achieved. Throughout this stage the LSE functions as a coach, providing direction, support, and feedback as the learners try to gain increasing comfort in incorporating the new behavior into their basic repertoire. Throughout all four stages the LSE makes every effort to maintain a cohesive, supportive learning group and a nonjudgmental climate in which learners have the freedom to express their feelings, to ask questions, to disagree, and to make mistakes.

Program Development System

Life Skills units are not easy to develop; yet, once fully developed, they can be used and reused indefinitely by diverse groups of learners in many different settings. They are thus cost-effective with long-term usage. Life Skills Developers require special training, and special developmental centers must be established to facilitate the creation of learning units. If developed well, however, Life Skills units can be considerably more effective than those created by busy practitioners on the job. Their ability to be reused permits the cost per student hour to remain relatively low.

The development of Life Skills units involves the following steps or types of activity:

Needs assessment, Using a method that I have termed "Reconnaissance" (Adkins et al., 1977), the design team tries to find out from a target population "where they hurt." The aim is to find what psychological and social problems the individuals cannot solve-the problems in living they face that cause them emotional pain and distress, such as fear, anxiety, despair, boredom, or hate. The assumption is that beneath the surface of the emotion lies a problem that cannot be solved. Through extensive group and individual interviews the design team makes a major effort to understand the problems as perceived by the person having them. Interviews are also held with significant others, such as parents, employers, and teachers. Reconnaissance interviews are held both to determine what programs should be developed and to assess the individual's competence with respect to particular problems once decisions have been made to develop programs in

those areas. The output of the Reconnaissance survey is a kind of taxonomy of life coping problems of a given target group, broken down by areas such as work, marriage, parenting, and personal development.

Derivation of competencies, Problems are then expressed in terms of the behaviors necessary to solve them, and such statements are turned into learning objectives for learning units (Mager, 1962).

Program design, An architectural plan for a four-stage learning unit is then constructed, which specifies all learning activities, media, and sequences. This plan requires considerable conceptual ability to develop. It is important to see that the plan has both external and internal consistency. The plan is rechecked with learners before development.

Development of material,. Development of video, print, and audio materials is a long, time-consuming process (Popham & Baker, 1971). Each media component must be relevant, interesting, and usable by learners with different levels of ability and must perform a particular function within the unit. Video production is difficult to do well, particularly in view of the need to achieve what might be called "emotional validity" and because of the costs of actors, equipment, editing, facilities, and so on.

Test-out and evaluation, After the unit is fully developed, it is tested out in a protected setting by a Life Skills Educator (a specially trained counselor/ teacher). The evaluation should at this time focus on intrinsic aspects of the learning units to gather data for subsequent unit revisions. Once revised, the unit should again be tested out in a field setting under more realistic conditions and once again revised on the basis of evaluation data. The unit is then ready for publication and use.

Installation System
Introducing a new program into an existing educational setting is a difficult task, since anything new is likely to be suspect and there are various institutional resistances to any requirements for changes in schedules, staff roles and relationships, and program rhythms.

Before installation in an existing center, administrators and supervisors must fully understand the new program and its requirements. This is usually accomplished through briefing sessions and actual tryouts of the program by the administrators. Such a session is also important because it provides the administrator with the essential criteria for selecting or hiring a staff person who will become the Life Skills Educator.

Life Skills Educator Training
Once selected, the potential Life Skills Educator is trained at a week-long training conference at which he or she is exposed to the Life Skills theory and concepts, is given information about how to install the program, is acquainted with the program activities and materials, and, most important, is specifically trained to carry out the teaching and counseling functions required to deliver effectively a Life Skills unit. The Life Skills Educator receives behavioral practice and feedback in conducting each of the Life Skills stages and specific training in particular skills such as reflecting feelings, paraphrasing comments, asking questions of a divergent or convergent nature, managing the group process, and dealing with predictable adult-student learning problems.

Once trained, the Life Skills Educator returns to his or her center (which has ordered the Life Skills Program) and establishes a Life Skills Learning Laboratory in an appropriate space for confidential small-group discussion, videotaping, and individualized learning. Installation, including recruiting students, orienting community agencies and center staff, and adapting the program to delivery patterns that make sense for a given center and a given adult population, may take several weeks. Frequently it is very helpful for a Life Skills consultant to visit a new center several weeks after initial installation to deal with whatever administrative, scheduling, training, and interpersonal problems have arisen.

THEORY AND RATIONALE

Life Skills as a counseling intervention shares many of the assumptions about the purposes, processes, and desirable outcomes of counseling held in common by theorists of different persuasions (Tyler, 1969; Bergin & Garfield, 197 1; Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1969). In particular, Life Skills takes very seriously three major assumptions of counseling:

❖ Counseling is a process designed to help people cope more effectively with the predictable developmental problems, crises, and problems in living they confront at various stages of their lives. Such problems are those that cause emotional distress, which, if resolved effectively, can lead to satisfaction and the effective use of one's talents but which, if not resolved, can lead to patterns of anger, alienation, and despair.

❖ Counseling is primarily a process for facilitating personal growth, and it should therefore be available on a preventive, not just a remedial, basis for all people who need help at the various stages of their development.

❖ Counseling is fundamentally a learning process in which the person with the problem is helped to acquire new knowledge, attitudes, and behavior that will permit him or her to take action to resolve the problem.

What follows is a brief description of the main elements of the theory and rationale underlying the Life Skills approach.

Target Groups and Predictable Problems

One of the central assumptions behind the Life Skills approach is that large numbers of people face common life situations and are thus trying to solve similar psychological and social problems. Although the range of individual difference is great and each individual is unique, we share with significant numbers of other people the need to cope with similar tasks of development, life crises, situations, and events. Because of biological maturation and social expectation (Havighurst, 1953),

The tasks of development occur and even recur with some regularity from childhood through adolescence through early adulthood, middle adulthood, and later adulthood. Various developmental theorists, such as Erikson (1956), Super (1957), Knowles (1970), Neugarten (1976), Kohlberg (1966), Sheehy (1974), Gould (1972), and Levinson (Levinson et al., 1978), have begun the process of conceptualizing and mapping the various predictable stages and tasks of personal development, career development, social development, moral development, patterns of marriage and parenthood, and so forth.

A handful of variables can describe different *target groups,* a term we have used for a group facing a common life situation. Different configurations of the following variables define different groups and present reasonably accurate hypotheses and predictions of the kinds of emotional problems people are trying to solve. *Age is* the primary determinant of the kinds and stages of developmental tasks a person is confronting (or re-confronting) at any given time. *Sex* is a variable that modifies age. Although increasingly men and women are facing similar developmental tasks at similar times in their lives, historical/ cultural patterns have led to very different developmental tasks, and indeed there will always be some major task/ stage differences between the sexes based on biological differences. *Socioeconomic status is* generally a fairly accurate predictor of not only the number and complexity of problems that people have to solve but also the quality and availability of the resources they have to solve them with. Generally, occupational level, educational level, and the availability of problem-solving resources vary directly with socioeconomic status. *Ethnicity* can often indicate the kinds of special cultural influences that help to define both the problems and the resources. *Geographical location* is a variable that operates in a similar fashion to define problems and resources. *Special conditions of life* is a term referring to such variables as being chronically ill, having six children and an unemployed husband, having just been released from prison, or being exceptionally attractive or unattractive.

These variables can help us pinpoint the problems that various people have at various stages of their lives. There are also other problems that we can predict significant numbers of people will have, on the basis of

their frequency of occurrence, such as being unjustly accused of a crime, having one's house burn down, being rejected in love, being terminated from a job, or becoming the parent of a physically handicapped child.

A basic assumption of Life Skills is that if a problem is experienced by a number of people in similar ways, a common learning program can be developed that will reflect not only the particular structure of the problem but also the special experiences and learning styles of the target group or subgroup. A second assumption is that there is not an infinite array of solutions to problems, but rather a limited number of workable ones representing different combinations of different solution elements. Several of these solutions can be understood, defined, parsed, and made available to people to select from. A third assumption is that the individuality of learners can be protected and enhanced by a program model that encourages each one to take responsibility for his or her own learning through a process of inquiry that helps learners make their own value choices and create their own syntheses at their own pace. In summary, if similar problems are held in common by large numbers of people, then similar resources are likely to be needed, and it is practical and economically feasible to create common programs for the common problems of particular target groups.

Psychosocial Competence

As Robert White (1966) says,

Every interaction with another person can be said to have an aspect of competence. Acts directed toward another are said to be, consciously or unconsciously, to have an effect of some kind, and the extent to which they produce this effect can be taken as the measure of competence.... When matters of importance are at stake, the aspect of competence is bound to be larger. If we are seeking help or offering it, trying to evoke love or giving it, warding off aggression or expressing it, resisting influence by others or trying to exert influence, the effectiveness of our behavior is a point of vital concern [p. 74].

Each psychosocial task, whether a developmental task, a common life crisis, or the kind of interpersonal or intra-personal task of everyday life indicated above, requires a behavior or set of behaviors for its solution, and these behaviors can be performed well or poorly. The learning problem ultimately, then, is to help people acquire understanding and knowledge that will lead them to new behaviors that can be tried out and practiced until they achieve competence in the performance of those behaviors.

Acquisition of competence also requires learning of an affective nature, since a task of importance will often generate anticipatory emotional states such as fear of the unknown, anxiety over performance, or apathy resulting from previous failure. These feelings may precede behavioral attempts or accompany them and may be increased or diminished based on the perceived effectiveness of the effort. It is for these reasons that many developmental problems are often considered to be emotional problems, thus obscuring the need for the more competent behaviors.

The effectiveness of behavior in attempting psychosocial tasks is directly related to the quality of cognitive learning. Knowledge influences the formation of working concepts, which, in turn, influence what, is perceived and how it is perceived. Perceptions, in turn, expand or limit behavioral possibilities and arouse or diminish emotional states. The knowledge required to solve problems, particularly those that are developmental tasks, does not come neatly from single disciplines but is truly cross-disciplinary. Accomplishment of developmental tasks thus involves complex operations. Whether the task involves making a career choice, taking personal responsibility for avoiding the escalation of a marital argument, or disciplining children, all these aspects of human functioning-the behavioral, the affective, and the cognitive-come into play at every stage of learning about the task and with every successive attempt to accomplish it. Moreover, every problem solution has its own special requirements for knowledge, particular behaviors, and likely accompanying emotional states. The range of concepts, the richness of the repertoire of behaviors, and the emotional flexibility required for effective development in all life areas are enormous.

Most people learn about developmental tasks and other predictable psychosocial problems through processes of socialization in the home, in the school, in the church, and in the community. This kind of learning, however, often perpetuates ignorance across generations. The accident of birth will help or hinder

a person's development, depending on who one's parents are. There is often an unfairness of learning opportunity based on socioeconomic level. Persons coming from more advantaged communities tend to have access to better sources for learning how to cope. As Strodtbeck (1964) notes, there is a kind of "hidden curriculum" in the middle-class home that helps people become c3mpetent in accomplishing psychosocial tasks.

In today's society most people are experiencing problems in coping regardless of their socioeconomic background. Rapid social change has brought with it-changed concepts of work, marriage, parenthood, sexuality, and personal freedom. Parents and members of the older generation, who traditionally have been the transmitters of the intimate knowledge of how to cope, find themselves sometimes more bewildered than the younger generation. Previous cultural solutions passed along through the generations no longer seem to apply in a world of rapidly changing values and assumptions. The major institutions of socialization-family, community, school, church-appear less able to offer solutions to developmental problems than in previous eras. Television has, if anything increased our sense of the severity of the problems without providing a direction or means for their solution.

Many people today find themselves incompetent in coping with the predictable problems of modern life. Many people face the problems of development alone, as if no one else had ever confronted similar problems. They often struggle without direct access to the experience and knowledge of others and without the benefit of any direct educational efforts. The resulting sense of incompetence experienced by many persons has serious consequences for the individual and for society.

Benefits and Limitations of Counseling

The most frequently prescribed intervention for helping people with emotion-laden problems in living is counseling. In the course of working with many kinds of people over the years, the field of psychology has developed an impressive array of theories, methods, research findings, and concepts that have greatly improved our understanding of the problems of people. These concepts have begun to permeate society and whetted the appetites of many previously ignored groups for personal growth and development.

Although their will always be a need for counseling, as we know it today, there are two major limitations of counseling as a delivery system. The first limitation is that there are not, and there are not likely to be, enough trained counselors to meet the demand. In the early 1970s there were about 70,000 counselors (Ginzburg, 197 1; Flanagan, 1969), of whom 46,000 worked in schools and colleges serving a student population of about 60 million. (For yardstick purposes, there were 42,000 airline flight attendants in those same years.) In poorer areas. The ratio of students to counselors was 2000 to 1, and on the average the ratio was 500: 1, the wealthier schools having ratios of 300: 1. Similar figures could be given for the 1980s. Without a sufficient number of trained counselors, counseling cannot continue to be the main provider of the learning essential for coping with developmental tasks. The Life Skills approach makes the assumption that by making use of well-designed programs and accompanying training efforts, other kinds of practitioners, such as teachers, nurses, and clergy, can help people learn to cope.

A second limitation of counseling is that the more complex the life problem, the less likely it is that a counselor will be able to create a sufficiently powerful learning experience to help the client achieve behavioral competence in mastering the task. The more needy the learner, the more powerful the learning intervention must be, and the more the intervention will require carefully planned, time-consuming media-based learning methods and materials, which the counselor does not have sufficient resources or skills to develop. To the extent that counseling as a field pays sufficient attention to the cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning processes involved in achieving developmental-task competence, it will inevitably turn its attention toward finding more powerful learning methods. Many of these methods will involve the use of instructional technology and, in particular, video. The Life Skills approach pays particular attention to this issue of learning, which is so inherent in the counseling process.

Design of Problem- Centered Life Skills Units

Unlike several of the efforts at psychological education that aim at helping learners understand the subject matter of psychology, Life Skills adopts the problem centered focus of counseling itself and a learning, process adapted from the behavioral and pedagogical sciences. The life-problem focus of Life Skills is intended to engage learners in problems they themselves want to solve. The Reconnaissance method for determining what problems should be programmed is a way of systematically preplanning the typical kinds of problems that would normally come up during counseling sessions. Motivation remains high, as in counseling, because the learner has a real stake in finding the solution and because every element of the learning process is related to the learner's acquisition of knowledge and skill and demonstrations of his or her competence. Thus, the overall organization of a Life Skills unit focuses the learner's attention, pays attention to issues of learning readiness, keeps the learner involved in the process, and leads to results that the learner can value. One of the reasons that the Life Skills model works is that it makes a specific effort to help the learner derive knowledge and understanding from his or her own experiences. This inductive mode of learning (Taba, 1932; Stratemeyer, Forkner, McKim, & Passow, 1947; WoIsch, 1970) is used throughout the four stages but in particular during the Evocation Stage. In that stage a specific effort is made to help each person realize that he or she has already been a learner and thus to dignify his or her prior learning. We assume that each person already possesses a substantial amount of the knowledge and experience necessary to solve the problem at hand. The main problem is that often learners do not know what they know, and they do not know how to use it, nor do they know how to identify what else they need to know and then how to use that.

Inductive processes are frequently followed by deductive processes in which the learner is exposed to what other people know and are helped to reason from that knowledge to the solution of the problem. These processes take place particularly during the Objective-Inquiry Stage. It is significant also that new knowledge and experience provided during this stage is made available in small steps that can be understood, easily mastered, and rapidly reinforced (Tyler, 1971; Glaser, 1966), thus encouraging further efforts and inquiry. Another principle for the organization of knowledge and experience during this stage is that it should move from concept gradually toward behavior. In addition, although there is a planned sequence of learning activities, there are a variety of options on how that sequence can take place, and there is considerable variety among the activities, using various kinds of media. The learning-style preferences of the learner (Tannenbaum, in preparation) can be accommodated. In the acquisition of new information, special provision is made for learners to proceed at their own pace, either alone or in dyads and triads. Thus, it is possible to group learners with similar abilities within a larger group of learners with higher or lower abilities. The sharing of what has been learned, however, through either discussion or demonstration, can occur within a group with very heterogeneous, abilities.

Throughout the unit, but primarily during the Objective- Inquiry Stage, the shaping of behavior occurs by a variety of means. The initial posing of the problem in the Stimulus Stage delimits the problem behaviors to be addressed in the unit. In the Evocation Stage, feelings related to those behaviors are specifically elicited, as is knowledge pertinent to particular behaviors. To distinguish maladaptive behaviors and facilitate acquisition of more adaptive behaviors, modeling, role-playing, simulation games, and behavioral rehearsal methods are used (Skinner, 1957; Hubbel, 1957; Lazarus, 1966; Glaser, 1966; Bandura, 1969). Potentially, all kinds of behavioral techniques, such as systematic desensitization, flooding, implosion, and various forms of conditioning and imitation, could be used. It is also likely that the principles and practices of learning that are suited to microcomputers and interactive video will find effective use in a Life Skills unit.

Video plays a central role in a Life Skills unit. The vignette that poses the initial problem legitimizes the situation the learner finds himself in and gives him permission to recognize his negative feelings about that situation. In addition to illustrating the interaction between behavioral, affective, and cognitive components of the problem, the vignette also aims to stimulate, in the discussion that follows, the learner's awareness that others share a similar problem. The modeling tapes show people like the learners actually changing their behaviors and deriving various benefits from those changes. These tapes help to pinpoint particular aspects of performance that need attention. The positive modeling tapes vicariously convey to learners information and experience they have not been directly exposed to. Video is also used to allow students to monitor and observe their own behavior, and it provides a means for the objective analysis of that behavior

within the group. The use of video playback as part of the feedback process is enormously beneficial. Although video is very important, it needs to be used within a planned learning sequence together with other media and specifically designed learning exercises that will create awareness about the problem, insight into its origins, knowledge pertinent to the solution, and an opportunity to translate knowledge into actual behavior that can be practiced to mastery.

APPLICATIONS

It should be clear that Life Skills is essentially a generic system for the design, development, and delivery of psychosocial learning programs applicable to a wide variety of target groups for an almost infinite array of emotion-laden life problems. As I indicated earlier, the most extensive application of the Life Skills approach has been what is called the Adkins Life Skills Program: the Employability Skills Series for disadvantaged adults and youth. The ten-unit Employability Skills Program described next, deals with the psychosocial problems of choosing, finding, getting, and holding a job and preparing for a career.

It is well known that many educationally disadvantaged persons have limited exposure to the world of work. Many of them come from homes with no role model of a worker, from inadequate schools, and from disorganized communities. Many are women who found themselves performing homemaker roles and consequently did not prepare for the demands of the world of paid work. With limited knowledge about work, little awareness of the vocational choice process, low levels of aspiration for themselves, and a basic belief that they must take whatever they can get, the poor are ill equipped to cope with the predictable tasks of vocational development. Since vocational development is a longitudinal process (Super, 1957; Crites, 1975; Osipow, 1975) that starts in childhood and continues into adulthood, the years of deprivation have also limited their knowledge of themselves as workers-their interests, their abilities, their values, and their possession of various interpersonal, social, and self-management skills needed to succeed in educational and training institutions as well as in the workplace. In effect, many have missed confronting a majority of the developmental tasks of vocational development.

The Employability Skills Series is based on the tasks of vocational development (Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet, & Warnath, 1957) and vocational enjoyable, and competence-building way, with the vocational development tasks they never had an opportunity to learn. At the same time, this confrontation helps learners to realize that they already know a lot more about the problem than they think they do.

The Employability Skills Series is based on the tasks of vocational development (Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet, & Warmuth, 1957) and vocational maturity. These tasks were further specified and defined in terms of additional tasks and problems, alternative conceptions, and strengths and skill deficiencies of disadvantaged adults identified during the Reconnaissance process. The individual Life Skills unit definitions, the learning objectives, and the activities represent a specification and a refinement of the tasks of vocational development. The Life Skills unit titles reflect these tasks: Who *I Am and Where I Want to Go* (self-exploration), *Ten Occupational Fields: How Do I Explore Them* (occupational information and vocational exploration), *Jobs and Training: Beginning the Search* and *Employment Agencies and Personal Contacts* (both these units focus on formal and informal resources and networks for exploration), *Choosing a Good Job for Myself* (developing alternatives for vocational choice and decision making), *Planning for Personal Goals* and *Developing a Vocational Plan* (both these units deal with setting goals and making plans to achieve goals), *Looking Good on Paper* and *The Job Interview: How to Be Effective* (both these units deal with applying for and obtaining employment), and *Keeping My Job: Habits That Help* (identifying and confronting work-adjustment problems).

This application of the Life Skills approach, the Employability Skills Series, includes over 265 video, print, and audio components. The learning activities, sequences, and materials in this program are specifically developed for the reading level and the learning styles of disadvantaged and under prepared adults and youth. For example, all written materials are also available in an audiotape version, and there is a significant reliance on video to pose problems, model solutions, and monitor the acquisition of behavior. The program is too extensive to describe fully here. A more complete description can be obtained from the author.

Applications of the Employability Skills Program

Since 1975 over 300 Life Skills Laboratories using the, Employability Skills Program have been established. Although the concentration is mainly on the East Coast, the program is being used in 35 states by the following kinds of organizations: CETA (Manpower Training), Adult Basic Education, community colleges, high schools, prisons, drug rehabilitation programs, vocational/ technical schools, YMCAs, OICs, Urban Leagues, hospitals, and community agencies specializing in women returning to the labor force, displaced homemakers, alcoholics, former mental patients, Vietnam veterans, Indo Chinese and Spanish-speaking immigrants, and the physically handicapped. It is estimated that over 350,000 people have participated in the Life Skills/ Employability Skills Program. The program has been used with people as young as junior high school students during summer youth programs and with senior citizens in programs run by the Urban League. Most participants are from the intended population, the educationally disadvantaged and under prepared but some have been former teachers and social workers needing to brush up their employability skills before obtaining employment.

In a majority of the centers and institutions, Life Skills has been installed in conjunction with other programs such as basic education (reading and math), vocational training, English as a second language, high school equivalency preparation, and leisure activities. It works most effectively when schedules are carefully planned so that students can have a combination of different kinds of educational activities in a given week. Delivery patterns vary considerably from institution to institution. A most desirable pattern is to deliver Life Skills in two two-hour blocks each week for several successive weeks. This kind of spaced learning interspersed with other life and educational activities tends to facilitate lasting acquisition and incorporation of new attitudes and behaviors. Another pattern is to give Life Skills for intensive seven-hour days, five days a week, for two or three weeks in succession. This produces a kind of immersion learning, but it is often too intense for some learners, who find it difficult to spend that amount of concentrated time thinking about themselves and their future. Another pattern is to give it in a workshop format in one or two all-day sessions periodically. Generally a unit can be given in a day. The workshop format fits in with most institutional schedules, but generally most groups need more than just one or two units. Another pattern is to try to fit Life Skills into a 50-minute hour once a week. This has the advantage of not disrupting sacred schedules, but it has the disadvantage of never having sufficient time for small-group learning activities. We have generally found that less than an hour and a half per session or more than 15 members in the group effectively prevents the building of essential group rapport, trust, and spirit of cooperation.

Other Life Skills Learning Units

Since the initial conception of Life Skills in 1964, numerous professionals have been trained at Teachers College and in workshops to develop Life Skills units for a variety of populations and problems. Programs have been developed for disadvantaged adults and adolescents in rural Canada, for Native American parents in Head Start programs, and in a variety of urban school systems. Students as well as staff and other professionals have designed Life Skills units to deal with problems of marriage, parenthood, separation and divorce, depression, problems on the job, career development in business and industry, health, death and dying, teacher and counselor training, supervisory and management training, and many others. A wide variety of units have been designed in the process of learning program-design skills, but their full development and utilization have so far been limited by a lack of funds.

Limitations

On the surface, the Life Skills approach would appear to have a number of limitations: it is expensive, it uses video and audio as well as print, programs are expensive to produce and require equipment. Staff development requires attention, and the program takes more time to deliver than is usually allocated to counseling services. It may be that these factors are obstacles that initially prevent some institutions from installing it. It has been our experience, however, that these really are not limitations but in fact may be advantages. Once an administrator begins to understand what Life Skills will do, somehow he or she finds the money for the program, equipment, and training and the time for the delivery. This generally occurs in institutions that are held accountable for placement rates, such as employment and training programs and,

increasingly, community colleges. The reason the cost of the program is sometimes an advantage is that it often ensures that the program will be used. The video will often be one of the most welcome supports for an administrator and a Life Skills Educator who must convince a board of education or a funding agency that learning is in fact taking place in the institution. Because of the emotional appeal of the Life Skills tapes and learning processes, video is a very effective public-relations device. In addition, the size of the program and the space it occupies can often dramatize the importance of human development learning much more effectively than a counseling office or a counselor can. It is simply more to point to, more to use to demonstrate that 200 hours are required for this important kind of learning.

With regard to the overall Life Skills system itself, the expense and time required to develop high-quality learning units seem to be obstacles. Our Employability Skills Series took three years and almost a half-million dollar to develop. However, when one considers the number of years such a well-developed program can be used, the number of learners who can make use of it, and the cost of the alternatives, the cost is not great. New units would take less time and money because we now know what we are doing, but still the cost is considerable. Another limitation is that systematic program development requires carefully trained personnel to design and develop the units, sufficient time, and the appropriate setting. All these factors may have the disadvantage of concentrating the development of the Life Skills learning units in the hands of a few institutions. This could increase the dangers of centralized control, insidious orthodoxy in program development, and an increasing remoteness from the real needs of the learner. These results need not occur, however; the same kinds of checks and balances that now exist in other areas of professional activity can be instituted here as well, provided the counseling professions are alert to the dangers.

Video Applications

We are about to enter a new era in which the videocassette and the videodisk, the cable, the computer, and the satellite will transform the American home into a learning center. The capacity for storing and playing fast-action and slow-action dramatic material on video will have a profound effect on the technology for teaching Life Skills. It will be possible to break complex behaviors into increasingly minute segments for analysis, modeling, and replication and to draw on a vast variety of modeling sources and experts at the push of a button. The programming required will be complex, and the attendant development systems, or scaffolding, for those program development efforts will be extensive. They are clearly within the technological possibilities that are known today and even now are being readied for mass use.

In the days of the horse it was inconceivable that there would one day be millions of miles of macadam roads, thousands of gas stations, hundreds of corporations producing cars and parts for cars, specialized finance systems, legal systems, and technologies devoted specifically to the automobile. It is similarly difficult now to conceive that one day soon there will be thousands of Life Skills units available for many life problems of many target groups. There will be ways of tailor-making specific programs for persons at different developmental stages, from different socioeconomic groups, and with different learning styles. There will be provisions for rapid access to continuously updated knowledge contained in a wide variety of materials and formats. In addition to psychological knowledge and the personal experiences and behavioral models of other similar and different people, the learner will have access to relevant poetry, literature, history, sociological and economic theory, and the like as resources for understanding options and fashioning solutions to his or her own problems. With the world's resources at their fingertips, no longer will individuals have to solve their problems as if no one in the world had ever had them before. They will be able to draw on the human experience, formulating their alternatives and perfecting their moves.

RESEARCH

My major focus over the last 18 years has been on the development of the Life Skills concept, learning model, and development systems and the Employability Skills Series rather than on research. In recent years, however, a number of research studies have investigated the primary and secondary effects of the intervention on clients. Other studies have used the Life Skills design and development concepts for defining developmental tasks in greater specificity and for designing Life Skills learning units to address

specific coping problems of different target populations. Another research direction has been initiated with studies that extend Life Skills as a development system.

Field Tests of the Life Skills System

As has been discussed, the Employability Skills Program aims at providing a different kind of counseling system for disadvantaged adults and adolescents experiencing, as LoCascio (1964) has called it, late, delayed, or impaired vocational development. To assess the effectiveness of this intervention as a means of modifying the vocational maturity of disadvantaged learners, Manuele (1980) developed a measure of vocational maturity appropriate for use with a disadvantaged adult population. The measure was based on existing vocational development theory (Super et al., 1957) and on the extension of that theory represented in the Life Skills intervention. The measure consists of a structured in-depth interview schedule with accompanying detailed content-analysis scoring procedures. Manuele administered the instrument as a pretest to a group of unemployed adults aged 25-53, which then participated in an intensive ten-week Life Skills/ Employability Skills Program. After the intervention, Manuele read ministered the vocational maturity measure. The results showed that the Life Skills Program was effective in modifying the subjects' overall vocational maturity. Significant differences were found between pretest and posttest scores on each of the following eight scales included in Manuele's measure: Orientation to Education; Orientation to Work; Concern with Choice; Self-Appraisal: Interests and Abilities; Self-Appraisal: Personality Characteristics; Self-Appraisal: Values; Exploring Occupations; and Use of Resources. Significant gains were also found on attitudinal variables related to subjects' belief in the value of accomplishing vocational development tasks and to their confidence in their own ability to master these tasks. This most comprehensive study points the way toward similar kinds of studies that need to show linkages among the theory of a particular set of developmental tasks, a specific population, special assessment techniques, and a particular kind of intervention.

Wald (1981) examined the relationship between the stated behavioral objectives for a number of Life Skills learning units and the actual behavioral outcomes of each of these units. Using an adolescent Black high school dropout population, he found significant changes in the subjects' ability to describe their vocationally related personal characteristics, to describe appropriate occupational alternatives related to these characteristics, to complete employment application forms effectively, and to conduct employment interviews that, in the judgment of fellow students, the LSE, and independent observers, would have effectively impressed an employment interviewer. Wald made use of specially constructed criterion-referenced measures in a post-only control design and established that these Life Skills units were effective in producing the intended behavioral change.

Grothe (1974) examined the effectiveness of the Life Skills Program in helping welfare recipients acquire essential job-interviewing skills. His study also examined the separate and combined contributions of video modeling and print-based information on the acquisition of interview behaviors. His major hypothesis that the program would be successful in modifying complex interviewing behaviors was confirmed. However, he also found that video-based modeling was as effective a learning tool as a combination of video and print-based materials, thus raising questions that need to be pursued with further research on the particular contribution of video, print, audio, and other means for learning behavior-oriented knowledge.

In 1978 a study was conducted in New York State at Adult Basic Education learning centers across the state to determine whether the Life Skills Program had been successful in modifying specific vocational knowledge and behavior and what effect it had had on the overall performance of students in the learning centers (Adkins, Carr, Epifania, & Shaeffer, 1982). Two hundred twenty-seven students were rated by their LSE's before and after the program and also rated themselves on a number of characteristics. There were consistent gains in every learning center on such vocationally related tasks as learning about one's interests and abilities, exploring occupational fields, finding out how to get into training programs, learning how to use employment services, writing business letters, completing a job application form, completing a successful job interview, and learning responsibilities as an employee. Changes were reported across all 11 centers for members of many special groups served by the program in the four months when the study was conducted: women reentering the labor market, addicts and former addicts, offenders and ex-offenders,

welfare mothers, Vietnam veterans, migrant laborers, manpower program trainees, handicapped students, high school dropouts, the elderly, and recent immigrants.

The students enjoyed the program: 97.3% would recommend it to their friends, 47.8% said "one of the best," and 50% said "a good program. " It is noteworthy that 50.9% attended all sessions during the four months of the study, 39.5% missed occasionally, and only 9.5% missed frequently. This is particularly striking because inconsistent attendance is one of the major problems experienced by learning centers with this population. Other results of the study were that students improved their ability to express themselves orally and in writing as well as to participate in groups, according to the instructors: 72.7% improved in self-confidence and their ability to speak in a group, 62.2% improved in their ability to express ideas in writing, 64.4% showed improved motivation for learning. In self-ratings, 79.9% of the students reported that their Life Skills experience caused them to work harder in their other Adult Basic Education classes, 67.4% said they learned more about themselves, and 74.7% reported increased motivation for employment by the end of the program. The results of this study, which took place in centers that had been operating Life Skills Programs for about five years, indicate that Life Skills is successful as an intervention and as an ongoing part of the Adult Basic Education program in New York State.

Joseph (1980) studied post-training outcomes of the Life Skills Program. Her samples included 257 out-of-school, out-of-work Black youths between ages 16 and 19 enrolled in ten-week Employability Skills Programs conducted over a ten-year period by the Urban League in Newark, New Jersey. She found that 77% of the students were successfully placed in schools or in unsubsidized employment: 20.6% returned to high school, 16.0% went on to higher education, 13.6% were placed in technical training programs, and 32.0% were placed in unsubsidized employment (some were placed both in employment and in educational programs). The rate of employment /educational placements ranged from 58% to 92% in individual cycles. These figures compare very favorably with placement figures from other programs in the same area, which show that without help only 20% of this population attain work or education and, with some formal CETA training, 40% are positively placed.

Williams (1975) made use of the Life Skills model and design processes in developing a program for Native American parents of Head Start children in the Dakotas. Her program was aimed at helping mothers in particular understand the operation of the Head Start center sufficiently well to play a participative role as parents, members of advisory committees, and members of the community. Life Skills learning units were developed to train parents in various evaluative and leadership functions. Williams found that the methods were successful in increasing parents' competence and in producing the kind of attitudinal change essential in making them feel comfortable with their role. Friedman (1980) used the Reconnaissance method in defining the range of potential learning units and objectives for a program designed to help Jewish high school students cope more effectively with the problems of transition in choosing, gaining admission to, and getting established in a college. His study has helped identify the range of problems as perceived by high school seniors and college freshmen and sophomores as they move toward further independence. Tester (198 1) used the four-stage learning model as a means of structuring workshop training of disadvantaged college students in person-perception skills and student/teacher interactions. Because the units were not fully developed with all the appropriate learning activities and materials, their effectiveness as an intervention was limited. The treatment group did, however, exhibit more internal responsibility for academic performance than the control group. Several hypotheses related to the attribution of hostility to teachers were not confirmed.

Studies for Developing the Life Skills System

It has long been our aim to help to establish procedures for mapping the psychosocial problems faced by different target groups at different stages of their lives. The purpose of this effort is to be able to describe client needs more effectively as well as to provide the basis for the design of learning units that can meet those needs. We felt that a taxonomy of psychosocial needs, however crude, would help to dramatize the possibilities of psychosocial programming in adult education centers. In 1976 the Life Skills Center at Teachers College conducted a survey in five representative cities in New York State. This preliminary study, using the Reconnaissance method, inventoried the kinds of emotional problems faced by disadvantaged adults in major areas of living. Problems were grouped according to categories related to

work, marriage, parenthood, personal development, and so on. One result of this study is that it led to the development of 20 illustrative videotapes depicting such problems as coping with test anxiety, conflicts between younger and older students, dealing with bureaucratic problems, expressing oneself politically, disciplining children, managing home and work responsibilities, and coping with escalating marital arguments.

In 1977 a similar and much more extensive Reconnaissance study entitled *Where They Hurt: A Study of the Life Coping Problems of Unemployed Adults* (Adkins et al., 1977) was conducted. As the name implies, the study aimed at identifying the psychosocial coping problems experienced by such unemployed and under-employed persons as welfare mothers, high school dropouts, Vietnam veterans, single parents, the foreign born, native-born illiterates, unemployed blue-collar workers, ex-offenders and ex-addicts, and Blacks. Group and individual interviews were conducted with 258 persons. The interviews were directed at helping the subjects describe the problems they were experiencing, the consequences, what they perceived to be the underlying causes, and what they had attempted to do to solve them. The problems collected were grouped according to seven categories: occupational and career problems, problems of living in the community, problems of personal growth and development, problems in relating to others, medical and health problems, marriage and family problems, and problems of being a parent. The problems so identified are very familiar to practicing counselors and psychologists. They are not, however, sufficiently well known by educators, administrators, and policy makers who determine what resources are going to be available for the solution of such problems. It is hoped that studies like this will be extended further so that these problems can be normed on a national basis across different target groups.

The studies described represent a beginning of the research needed to evaluate the effectiveness of the various programs, to extend the Life Skills concept. to other populations and problems, and to create the kind of taxonomic systems that will lead to the design of better interventions. What has been established to date is that the Employability Skills Series, as the first of, we hope, several carefully developed Life Skills interventions, is effective in producing changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. Other studies also suggest that changes in these behaviors produce very interesting secondary changes in learners that improve their overall performance in educational and work programs. These studies also indicate that the design concepts in the Life Skills system can be transmitted to other professionals through training and can be applied to a wide variety of problems and populations.

CONCLUSION

Throughout this chapter I have tried to emphasize the importance of pre-designed counseling/ learning programs for helping people learn to cope with complex, predictable problems of development throughout the life span. I have argued that pre-designed and prepackaged Life Skills Programs are necessary (1) to make counseling/ learning available on a mass scale to the many groups that need help but are not now getting it and (2) to increase the power of counseling/ learning beyond what can be achieved by talking and listening, by incorporating a variety of pedagogical methods such as modeling, simulation, small-step learning with immediate reinforcement, and behavioral rehearsal, while retaining the emphasis of counseling on psychological content and attention to feelings and on interpersonal and group processes.

I have also described the theory and rationale, the four-stage learning model, and the program development infrastructure for a Life Skills system that has evolved over the past 18 years from our first attempt to find more effective counseling methods for disadvantaged learners.

It is gratifying that many of the predictions we made years ago about learning, programming, and the use and acceptance of technology in the service of counseling goals were correct. As we look toward the future, it is clear that we are now in the midst of what an earlier Carnegie Commission report (1972) called the "fourth revolution" in education, the electronics revolution, which is expected to have an impact similar to those produced by the invention of the printing press and the movement of education from the home to the school. Television and the computer are already beginning to intrude on the consciousness of the education and counseling professions, even though today they are used minimally. Other trends in education, such as the movement toward competency-based education (Burns & Klingstedt, 1973), behavioral objectives (Krathwohl & Payne, 1971), criterion-referenced measurement (Popham, 1971), individualization of instruction (Gibbons, 1971), and the affective curriculum (Borton, 1970), signal an awareness that the

instructional process is much more complex than previously believed and makes the development of pre-designed curricula virtually inevitable. The day is almost here when we will no longer rely on overworked teachers and counselors to create *ad hoc* learning programs with minimal assistance from curriculum consultants, publishers, and universities.

Both these trends-the greater availability of electronic media and a greater awareness of the complexities of instruction -will, I predict, accelerate the development and use of Life Skills programs and what I have described elsewhere as the "fifth curriculum" for schools, colleges, and lifelong-learning centers (Adkins, 1974). Whether we succeed, as a society in developing the necessary linkages between the masses needs of people for learning coping skills, the requirements of learning, and the opportunities for delivery of that learning will depend on the quality of our educational designs and the ways in which programs are developed. It is my hope that the Life Skills system of design and delivery will make a contribution toward that effort.

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