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OF POST HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT
OF BLACKS AND EDUCABLE MENTALLY
RETARDED BLACKS.

The University of Michigan, Ph.D., 1976
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A COMPARISON OF SELECTED DIMENSIONS
OF POST HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT
OF BLACKS AND EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED BLACKS

by

Theodore Loche Calvin

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
(Education)
in The University of Michigan
1976

Doctoral Committee:

Assistant Professor William Dunifon, Chairman
Professor Frederick Bertolaet
Associate Professor Howard Brabson
Assistant Professor George Mills
Professor Curtis Van Voorhees

DEDICATION

To my parents

Dr. John C. Calvin, Jr. and Mrs. Callie Mae Loche Calvin

Words will never express the humble thanks
and gratitude for all you have given me
throughout my life and especially through
this Ph.D. program.

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It is always a pleasure for an author to acknowledge in writing some of the help he has been so generously given. I have received far more help than would be suggested by the few names I mention. However, a list of everyone who stopped his work to be of service would leave little room for other material.

I would like to make special mention of the superb cooperation given by the Los Angeles Unified School District.

Dr. William Dunifon, Committee Chairman, gave me all of the support anyone could ask. He always had words of wisdom and courage to give me, especially when they were most needed.

Dr. Frederick Bertolaet, Dr. Howard Brabson, Dr. George Mills, and Dr. Curtis Van Voorhees served as committee members. Their comments and patience enhanced this study.

I wish to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to Miss Esther Shaffer, who worked closely with me in analyzing my data.

Above all, I would like to thank the subjects of this study for their time.

Trying to say one is grateful is sometimes hard, but I am grateful to John III, my only brother, Kattie Roberta, Thelma Mae, Jarvis Van Netta and their families, who always gave me support when I needed it.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Classes for educable mentally retarded (EMR) youth at the secondary level have been offered for more than twenty years in Gulariana County,¹ California. Since their inception, a large number of mentally retarded persons have graduated from such special education classes. The diplomas, which they receive during commencement exercises held in common with all students graduating from the school system at that time, have an additional notation included which indicates enrollment within the special education program. Thus, these mentally retarded students pass through ceremonies often viewed as the initiation rites necessary for young people in this society to enter the adult world, but with one difference: they are identified at the outset by their high school diplomas as "special" students with whatever connotations or implications such designation will arouse within the minds of prospective employers and other community members.

¹To protect the rights of those involved in this study, neither real names nor actual locations have been given.

Since the education system of this country is often viewed as a primary means of socializing young people and preparing them to meet the social and economic requirements necessary to perform acceptably within the adult society, the question arises of just what is the meaning of successfully completing a special education program. Is the graduation ceremony a reliable predictor of the ability of these young people to provide for themselves and to adjust socially to the American adult society? In other words, does the special education program, for instance of Gulariana County, adequately prepare educable mentally retarded persons to function within minimum acceptable behavior boundaries of the larger society? Are they able, as a result of their participation in the program, to support themselves financially? These questions will be dealt with in greater detail later in this discussion.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROGRAM

Within this general focus, this study centered on the particular social adjustment of individuals who are Black and educable mentally retarded and who graduated from special education programs at the secondary level in a specific area of Gulariana County, California. Attempts were made to gather specific information

regarding these individuals, including:

1. Place of residence (section of the city)
2. Leisure time activities
3. Proportion who are self-supporting
4. Annual salaries earned

Additional efforts were made to obtain similar information regarding Blacks who had graduated from traditional secondary level education programs within Gulariana County. This information was used for comparison to determine the social adjustment of Blacks who graduated from traditional classes and Blacks who graduated from special education classes.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Although information has been gathered and analyzed on the post-school social adjustment of educable mentally retarded persons, a review of the available literature indicates that little attention has been directed specifically at the post-high school, educable mentally retarded individual who is also Black. It is unclear what happens to these persons after their high school graduations. How does the Black educable mentally retarded high school graduate compare with Blacks who graduated from traditional classes? Is either group more or less able to find employment which allows them to become self-supporting?

This project looked at the Black educable mentally retarded person to determine if, and how, his social

adjustment to his environment was influenced by his participation in the special education program.

Information about this specific population may further assist teachers and counselors in special education programs to help these students develop realistic social expectations and plans for their post-school lives.

SPECIAL DEFINITIONS

Certain terms requiring special definitions will be used throughout this discussion. These definitions follow:

Mental retardation -- slow or limited in intellectual or emotional development or academic progress.

Educable mentally retarded (EMR) persons -- individuals with an I.Q. of 60-80.

Social adjustment -- being able to blend into society in a self-supporting manner.

HYPOTHESES TO BE TESTED

1. Graduation from special education classes serves as a reliable predictor of a Black educable mentally retarded person's ability to adjust successfully socially.

2. The post-school adjustment of Black educable mentally retarded persons is substantially different from the post-school adjustment of "normal" persons who graduated from traditional classes.

PROCEDURE

Sample

This study examined Blacks who were educable mentally retarded and who had graduated from specific high schools in a Southern California School District during the years 1969-1973. The study also examined Black persons during the same years who graduated from traditional classes.

The study used fifty Black persons who graduated from special education classes and fifty Black persons who graduated from traditional classes. Permission to conduct this study was granted by the appropriate local authorities. Personal interviews of these former students were conducted. Only persons who had graduated, and who therefore were over 18 years of age, were interviewed.

Data Collection

Using predominantly Black school buildings, this writer obtained information concerning former students from their records. These records showed

whether a student graduated from special education classes or from traditional classes.

The first personal contact with these special education graduates and traditional class graduates was made by telephone. The telephone contact was designed to introduce the interviewer, explain the purpose of the study (and its expected contributions), and the auspices under which the study was conducted, and how the participant could participate.

Then the individual was invited to participate in a personal interview, preferably in his/her own home. Permission to interview these former students was obtained from the former students themselves. If it was determined that for any reason an individual was unable to participate in the study, he was not included in any of the research.

The data for this research were generated by widely used and validated research surveys. Two questionnaires were administered. The first questionnaire dealt with the participants' attitudes of their own self-acceptance. This researcher was looking for a mean score of each participant which was greater than or less than the given number which was five. The second instrument described part of one's personal background (for example, age, sex, how often one thinks of getting ahead) and socializing habits.

After the questionnaires were administered, the participant was invited to participate in a personal interview where the same questions that appeared on the questionnaire were asked.

The questionnaires were pre-tested among former special education graduates of the Mountain Top Workshop in Jade, Wisconsin.

LIMITATIONS

1. The findings specifically dealt with one hundred Black persons from schools whose enrollment were predominantly Black. These schools were located in predominantly Black neighborhoods. Therefore this study does not apply to any other ethnic population.

2. The study examined specific aspects of social adjustment. Consequently, it does not speak to other aspects which were not examined such as vocational skill development.

3. Of necessity, the writer depended on self-reporting and self-perception of the individuals who chose to participate in the study.

4. The questionnaire interview methodology has the inherent limitation that questions may be misinterpreted.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Data are presented in Chapter III in tabular form along with introductory and descriptive paragraphs for each table.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the past few decades it has become increasingly clear that society cannot afford to neglect nor despoil its natural resources without consequence to all of life. This writer feels that people who are mentally retarded are a potential resource which has not been fully recognized nor effectively considered in social planning. This writer feels that people who are Black and have graduated from secondary special education classes are a potential resource which has not been fully recognized nor effectively considered in social planning. It is felt by this writer that Black studies of the post-high school adjustment of the Black educable mentally retarded are needed to identify these persons and their potentially beneficial contributions to society.

From my research I have found that very little research has been done on the Black educable mentally retarded adult. Some reasons for this paucity of reported studies are noted here. Scientists have had difficulty locating the retarded adults after they have completed work-study experience and leave school (Tobias, Alpert, and Birenbaum, 1969).

Although research and ensuing literature is limited on the post-high school adjustment of the educable mentally retarded adult, from my findings the following survey of literature discusses certain studies which are available and relevant to this issue. The literature reports on studies about the post-high school adjustment of educable mentally retarded young adults which is often somewhat experimental in nature, but is designed primarily to aid the educable mentally retarded young adults in their post-high school adjustment.

Post-secondary adjustment of 230 mentally retarded young men and women was examined by Lord (1933). His sample was drawn from two large cities and two large towns in Massachusetts. Ninety-five of these people were employed in industry, in positions classified as unskilled, semi-skilled, and service.

One hundred students from Altoona, Pennsylvania were surveyed by Dinger (1958) who conducted interviews both with the students and their current employers. These interviews indicated that 82 percent were completely self-supporting. Again, the jobs held by this group were classified as unskilled, semi-skilled, and service positions.

Patterson, in "The Mentally Retarded Citizen" (an unpublished doctoral dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1959) made a comparison of the vocational and social adjustment of forty-five individuals of average

intelligence and low economic status. More than two-thirds of the employers of the mentally retarded persons in this study were favorably impressed with the job performance of their employees.

Bobroff (1956) investigated the economic, social and civic functioning of 121 former students of the Detroit, Michigan special education secondary level classes. This study was completed twelve years following their graduation from high school. The information gathered showed the majority of these persons functioning above minimal levels of acceptance in their environments, both socially and economically.

Cassidy and Phelps (1955) conducted a study of the post-school adjustment of 163 mentally retarded persons who had been previously enrolled in special classes in nineteen separate school districts throughout Ohio. They used three interview schedules to obtain information pertaining to these individuals. Their findings showed that 67.5 percent of their sample were employed, 11 percent were housewives, 11 percent were in the armed forces, and 10.5 percent had never been employed.

Mudd (1968) studied the employment adjustment of 549 educable mentally retarded young men who were interviewed in depth, as were 90 percent of the parents

of these individuals. All of the 549 primary respondents had participated in special education classes.

The conclusions reached in this study indicated that the majority of these mentally retarded persons had adjusted well to employment and were not easily identifiable as distinct from others of similar ages and social backgrounds. It was found, however, that somewhat lower levels of adjustment were reached by those individuals who had participated in special education for longer periods of time, or had utilized post-school training facilities, or relied on formal rather than informal job hunting resources. In addition, these young people were less often expected by their parents to gain full-time employment.

In another study, designed to compare differences between degrees of alienation of special education students and normal subjects, 156 educable mentally retarded teenagers were asked to respond to an eighty-seven-item opinion questionnaire, and their answers were compared to those of normal peers. Seven measures of alienation were built into the questionnaire. On six of these measures, the educable mentally retarded showed a far

greater degree of alienation than did the non-mentally retarded respondents (Silverman, 1970).

In a study originated to discover ways of forecasting the post-school employment success of educable mentally retarded adolescents, two hypotheses were formed:

1. "There is a positive relationship between post-school success in employment and realistic vocational plans; and
2. "Those educable mentally retarded in work experience programs will have more realistic vocational plans" (Gorelick, 1966).

Both employment success and vocational realism were operationalized by established criteria. Material obtained through interviews and from school records was statistically analyzed. According to the results of this process of analysis, Hypothesis #1 was not shown to be valid. There was some confirmation of Hypothesis #2, but the confirmation was not of statistical significance, primarily because the small number of subjects studied who were working in off-campus programs did not permit generalizations about the complex relationship of work

experience programs and realistic vocational planning. During the investigation, it became apparent that other variables, such as sex, race, socioeconomic status, and stability of choice, may have greater influence on realistic vocational planning than originally believed.

According to Feldman (1964), a decade ago there were estimated to be almost 6 million mentally retarded persons in this country, and nearly 3.3 million of these were aged 16 to 64, a rather large potential work force. By the year 1970, the number of potential mentally retarded workers was expected to increase to 3.7 million. A group of 2,500 young men rejected from military service for incapacity resulting from mental retardation was examined exhaustively. Here it was learned that 66.6 percent of these young men were employed as opposed to 95 percent of all young men aged 18 to 24. As Feldman notes, other studies indicate that more than 85 percent of all retarded persons have some capacity, however limited, for financial self-support if adequate training and support systems are provided.

For the mentally retarded, service employment is the most rapidly growing vocational arena. Kitchen

work, such as busboy or girl and dishwasher, hospital attendant, nurse's aid, janitor and maid, yard and groundskeeper and landscape laborer are all expanding areas of employment for the educable mentally retarded.

A scale denoting employment success was designed for use with sixty mentally retarded young adults (age 18 through 30, with I.Q.'s of 80 and below), their parents and their employers (The Occupational Success of the Retarded, 1966). Data were gathered through personal interviews and records of job histories, and the material was analyzed. Additional information was obtained through the use of experimental test batteries measuring 101 aptitude and personality variables. Factor and statistical analysis led to the use of seventeen tests to compose the Laradon Occupational Success Predictive Battery. The tests were cross-validated by examining two groups, one with sixty members and one with fifty-one members, the latter divided into three subgroups. Analysis of forecasting power showed that in the subgroup most similar to the original sixty subjects the predicted job success most often correlated with the actual job success as shown on the rating scale. Females rated lower; institutionalized persons did not fall within the

predicted range; and the economic character of the community affected the kind of job exposure the retarded person received.

Howe (1967) compared the post-high school adjustment of educable mentally retarded students with off-campus work experience with a control group with no school-sponsored placements and no supervision on jobs within the community. The hypothesis upon which the study was based was that among educable mentally retarded youths who were enrolled in special education classes at the secondary level, those involved in off-campus employment under the direction of the school would show greater community adjustment as adults than would similar young people not employed in off-campus work or employed without supervision from the school. Sixty-eight former students were interviewed two to four years after ending their high school involvement. Then a rating scale was used to determine their community adjustment. The findings of this study indicated that about 85 percent of both groups were employed, and that of those employed, members of the group without school-sponsored off-campus placement and without school supervision were achieving as well as were members of the supervised group. In addition, the unemployed members of both groups were most often those who had multiple handicaps or who tested near the lowest level of the I.Q. scale used.

A study by Findley (1967) was conducted with the objective of looking at the relationship between the monetary investment of public school systems in occupational training and the post-school economic status of educable mentally retarded in four communities. The study examined questions relating to:

1. School costs for vocational training
2. The earning capacity of students prepared by these programs
3. The financial return from these former students to their communities
4. Their earning and tax paying potential for the next ten years.

Data gathered indicated that:

1. The schools' cost of preparation per individual student ranged from \$1,340 to \$2,122.
2. The average yearly student earnings ranged from \$1,218 to \$2,463.
3. and 4. In three of the four communities studied, the full expense of their preparation will return to the community within the first decade following school participation.

In the last community, students with lower earning power and greater preparation costs predominated. This study concluded that vocational training of the educable

mentally retarded is both feasible and financially sound as the investment is returned to the community, and the overall lifetime cost to the community for caring for its mentally retarded is substantially reduced by the increasing capacity of the retarded to contribute to their own support.

The remaining research consists primarily of those reports dealing with the effects of intervention, usually designed to improve the adjustment of the educable mentally retarded to their post-high school lives and to the communities in which they live.

The first of these consists of an information package, developed by Michigan State University (1973). This package contains six readings on career education programs for the educable mentally retarded, both teenagers and young adults. One of the articles discusses a driver training program which is designed to enable the mentally retarded individual to have greater travel independence, thus facilitating employment opportunities. There is also a fact book about educable mentally retarded persons for the use of persons involved in placing and hiring mentally retarded workers. Additionally, special needs of educable mentally retarded people and programs geared to assist students in gaining social

concepts and skills to maximize in later job adjustment are described. The final piece of this package is a listing of possible job opportunities in the health services for the educable mentally retarded. The packet concludes with a recommendation that high school work-study programs offer a central place for every phase of training and provide academic knowledge in conjunction with specific skills training.

A study entitled Vocational Education and Work Study Programs (1970) depicts the sheltered workshop at the Kurtz Training Center in Pennsylvania, where the emphasis is on developing a strong self-image and adequate work and community adjustment. This work-study program was set up in a rural, depressed portion of the state. The concept here is of a six-year secondary program, in a self-contained high school facility, for persons with I.Q.'s of 80 or less. Various factors such as work aptitude and prevocational evaluation are described in some detail here.

Edmonson (1967) discusses a program where educable mentally retarded youths, ages 13 to 19, are provided with a unit of study which is set up to enable them to learn the meaning of social cues and signals, and the appropriate use of responses expected from them in the adult world. The program is divided into ten sub-units, each lasting one week, and covering an introduction to social signals, numbers and places as signals, making a good

impression, shopping and buying in a department store, living independently, finding and maintaining employment, leisure time activities, and getting along with others. Training methods are varied and include verbatim teaching scripts, modified to fit particular classes; slides; tape recordings; seatwork; quizzes; competition games; role playing; and field trips.

In a different project, described by Gragert (1962), an experimental vocational rehabilitation program for the mentally retarded was initiated at Goodwill Industries in 1958 and continued for four years. Three hundred seventy-one persons were initially evaluated for occupational and academic potential. Three hundred thirty-seven of these finished the complete diagnostic portion of the program. The students lived either in their own homes or in boarding homes. Training in family living, personal hygiene, conduct, citizenship, and work attitudes was offered in addition to skills training. Each area of study was broken down into separate components to be learned, and the students were first trained to master each component and then to put the different parts together until the entire skill was learned. Students were evaluated in three to seven different occupational areas. Some of them received further on-the-job training at other local agencies.

Ninety-six students did not complete the program, mainly because of behavioral problems that could not be handled within the scope of the program. Of the trainees who finished the complete program, thirty-three were placed in competitive jobs; three were recommended for further evaluation; twenty-six were advised to enter training in trade schools; and one hundred seventy-nine were accepted by Goodwill Industries for further training.

The recorded performances of these trainees indicate, that for the most part, mentally retarded individuals can be trained to maintain adequate and satisfying behavior at work and in the community. A tentative conclusion of this study was that additional resources may be necessary to deal with behavioral disturbances which could prevent otherwise capable persons from getting and keeping jobs.

The question of measuring changes in adaptive social behavior of educable, mentally retarded adults arose when looking at a group of young people who took part in a group discussion program offered by a state hospital and training center. In order to note behavioral change resulting from participation in twenty group discussions, a specific rating scale was developed.

Three control groups and three experimental groups were observed. In all, seventy-four subjects, male and female, ages 18 to 45, borderline to moderately retarded,

were involved. Two experimental groups were formed either on the basis of community placement experience or the lack of it. The third group was a more heterogeneous one, with members both with and without community placement experience. The experimental groups all exhibited gains in their behavioral scale scores, with the most appreciable jump shown by the group without community placement experience. The community placement group and the mixed group showed behavioral changes, but they were of no statistical significance.

The experience of the experiment indicates that selective use of group discussion can measurably influence and improve the social adaptive behavior of educable mentally retardates, and that homogeneous group composition is essential to the overall effectiveness of group discussion as a learning procedure.

Thomas (1966) and McGahan (1961) are both concerned with specific training programs for the educable mentally retarded. Thomas discusses how the goals and objectives of the Newark State School are ordered according to subject areas as a preamble to two different curriculum outlines for social and vocational adjustment. In each unit, suggested teaching material is coordinated with general and specific goals, separated by age level (pre-primary, 5-8 years; primary, 9-12 years; junior intermediate, 13-14 years; senior intermediate, 15-16

years; and young adult, 17-20 years).

McGahan, on the other hand, speaks of the Galena Park Schools for the educable mentally retarded child, and his primary focus of concern is on-the-job training. He prepares, in outline form, a description of the proposed format for training the educable mentally retarded child which operates on a principle of on-the-job training for work that takes into account the child's capacities. In this suggested program, the student would begin OJT when he enters high school at age 16. Girls receive a great deal of training in household arts, personal grooming, arts and crafts, while boys are steered in the direction of shop, arts and crafts, and personal grooming.

In this program, separate teachers are involved in academic training and counseling, prevocational aspects and attitudes, and household arts, personality development, and personal grooming. School diplomas are awarded when students evidence successful OJT experience or the capacity to keep a job.

Prentice (1966) was interested in increasing parental participation in the vocational rehabilitation of their adolescent and young adult mentally handicapped children. He wanted to develop methods to motivate parents to participate on a more active basis, and he wanted to examine the relationship between parent involvement and vocational adjustment on the part of the

retarded children. Efforts were made to provide "carrots," incentives (in this case, monetary bonuses and television drawings), for parents. The findings of the study were inconclusive. Parental involvement in the program remained below the desired level. The "carrots" offered during the second year of the three-year program were not significantly effective in increasing parental involvement.

In October 1970 a follow-up study comparing graduates from two different types of secondary programs for the mentally retarded was conducted. One program consisted of a self-contained vocationally oriented program separated from general education. The other was a program integrated into the general high school, where employment experience was gained along with basic education courses and vocational courses.

Graduates from these programs were compared for a nine-year span. They were studied for similarities and differences on social, vocational and economic measures like job placement, longevity on the job, earning power, and community involvement. The survey showed that graduates from the integrated curriculum showed better school attendance, held more full-time jobs, reached higher occupational levels, earned larger annual salaries, were more prone to look for further education and training, were more able to manage their own money,

married later or remained single more often, had better homes, and were more directly involved in community affairs.

New (1972) provides guides for the work-study phase of programs for the educable mentally retarded person. His suggestions are derived from study of the program policies and practices used by administrators and coordinators of such programs for students in Ohio. He sees the work-study aspect as only one facet of the entire program, albeit a vital one.

This writer reviewed additional literature to add clarity regarding the educable mentally retarded adolescent.

A longitudinal program of workshop-centered rehabilitation services was administered to mentally retarded adolescents by Shulman (1967). Results indicated that most characteristics central to vocational development were stable by early adolescence; a "competence cluster" of variables covaried systematically; high and low employability groups differed on most basic status variables; and the Purdue pegboard was the best single predictor of employability. Two employability groups were determined by production and ratings: the high group, composed of lower class Blacks, ranked higher than the

low group, of middle class whites, on work behavior ratings and I.Q. levels. The magnitude of the level of aspiration ratios tended to correlate negatively with the employability index and the competence cluster; self-concept variables correlated positively for employability for Blacks and negatively for whites.

Plue (1972) developed a curriculum especially for educable mentally retarded students at the high school level. This federally funded one-year research project was aimed at establishing unique parameters involved in vocational adjustment for these students and at developing a tentative curriculum with this information. A literature review was conducted, and a research team interviewed supervisors, vocational counselors, students, former students, parents, employers, and teachers, collecting data from seven areas in Mississippi. A lack of adequate data for formulating appropriate vocational education curriculums for the mentally handicapped indicated a need for course development. A curriculum model was organized and learning activities developed around these three major areas:

1. The psychomotor domain
2. Social maturity
3. Environmental factors.

Jones (1966) did a study investigating the relationship between the vocational outlook of high

school educable mentally handicapped (EMH) students and the type of high school program in which they were enrolled. Possible relationships between MEH students' vocational outlook and age, sex, race, intellectual level, reading achievement level, work experience history, and home background were also considered. Data were collected from thirteen high schools in Illinois which operated two or more special classes during the 1965-66 school year. The sample included 202 males and 171 females who ranged in age from 13 to 21 years. Vocational outlook of EMH students was measured by a could-you-ever scale, a group test constructed for the study. Each program was rated on a program criteria index, also constructed by the investigator. The study found:

1. A significant difference in I.Q. groupings between males and females with more males in the higher I.Q. grouping.
2. No significant relationship between students' vocational outlook and the nature of the program in which they were enrolled.
3. Females less appropriate in their vocational outlook than males.
4. A decrease with age in inappropriate responses on vocational outlook.
5. As a group, non-white subjects were more inappropriate in vocational outlook than whites.

6. A less appropriate outlook in the lower I.Q. group of subjects.
7. More appropriate attitudes in vocational outlook of males following community work placement.
8. More appropriate vocational attitudes in students from the fathers' higher level of occupational and educational groups than in those from the fathers' lower level groups.

Implications for program planning were made, and further studies were suggested.

Groelle (1967) was involved in a two-year project which constructed a work-study program for educable mentally retarded high school students. The first phase developed courses of study, instructional materials, and teaching procedures; the second phase established a functional vocational training program in five high schools with approximately 150 educable mentally retarded seniors (I.Q. range 53 to 78, ages 17-18 and 19-20) and had classroom instruction on occupation and work experience (two 60-minute periods per day) which included experimental use of the material developed in the first phase. The evaluation of the program and a follow-up on graduated pupils were done in the third phase. Of the 150 pupils, 52 percent were placed in full-time competitive employment, 32 percent were in training

situations, and 15 percent were unemployed when the project ended. Optimal employment times were early spring and fall. Instructional materials developed were a series of progressively more complicated job application forms, job descriptions for EMR's increasing in reading difficulty from third to fifth grade level, short work-oriented study lessons adapted for role-playing, an interest inventory, and a commercially produced booklet on human relations, both revised to fourth grade reading levels.

The studies reviewed above appear to be most relevant to the issue of post-school adjustment of the educable mentally retarded adult. What is available suggests that research on this problem is limited and needs expansion. This research also shows that studies on the Black educable mentally retarded adult is also limited.

CHAPTER III

SELECTION OF STUDY SUBJECTS

This writer feels that there is a strong need to research the post-high school adjustment of the Black educable mentally retarded person in a large urban setting. Professional workers from various disciplines--educators, rehabilitation counselors, anti-poverty workers, social service staffs--who are concerned with the employment of mentally retarded adults are handicapped in their efforts by the sparse data available to them. They lack concrete information about the retardate's successes and failures in finding employment, the factors related to employability or even whether the group they serve is a representative or a highly selective minority of the population. Many aspects of the problem of employment of retarded workers are subject to speculation and sophisticated estimates (Tobias, Alpert and Birenbaum, 1969).

The results of this research might help improve general high school instruction of the Black educable mentally retarded person to make his adjustment to the adult world more smooth and simple.

For the study it was decided to compare a Black educable mentally retarded group with a Black control group of the same size, who had also graduated from regular high school classes. The following is a description of the subject selection procedure for this comparative study.

SUBJECT SELECTION PROCEDURE

In June 1975 the writer received permission to research a proposal on "The Post High School Adjustment of Black Educable Mentally Retarded Students and Regular Students of the Mountain Top Unified School District." Southern California was chosen because the writer was familiar with the locale which has a large concentration of post-high school Blacks who were to form the experimental and control groups for the study.

Fifteen high schools in the Mountain Top Unified School district were included in the study. Permission was received from individual principals of each high school to interview the head teacher of the special education department and any other teachers who could help in obtaining names, addresses and telephone numbers of potential participants. The only information taken from school records were name, address and telephone number, to be used only for contacting subjects for the study. Schools also made staff available to explain

the special education programs.

Potential study participants were contacted using several methods. First, telephone calls were made to the most recent address. Some telephone numbers were no longer listed, and some were unlisted. When it was impossible to contact a subject by phone, home visits were made. Some families had moved. Some of the subjects had moved into independent living situations, semi-independent living situations, or totally dependent living situations. In the latter cases, family, former neighbors, and friends provided information about the whereabouts of the subject. Other than assisting in locating the subjects, families, friends, and teachers were not used in this study because it was felt that they might bias the report.

When the questionnaires were administered and the interviews were set up, the control group was the most concerned about how the information gathered would be used. Whenever it was felt that an individual was uncomfortable or did not want to participate in the study, he was immediately excluded from any further participation in it. The data obtained from that participant was also excluded from the study.

The final study population consisted of two groups of fifty Black high school graduates. The experimental group was comprised of twenty-nine educable

mentally retarded Black males and twenty-one educable mentally retarded Black females. The control group was comprised of eighteen Black females who graduated from traditional high school classes, and 32 Black males who had graduated from traditional high school classes. All had graduated from regular classes or special education classes in the same school district during the years 1969 through 1973.

Wherever possible, subject background was uniform. The sample, while small, was relatively homogeneous with respect to age (19 to 25 years), race (Black), religion (mostly Protestant), residence (inner city).

Once the sample groups had been selected, pretests were given to determine whether the questionnaires would, in fact, be successful in eliciting the needed information. A small workshop employing educable mentally retarded Blacks was used for the pretest, and it was determined that the questionnaires would elicit the desired data and could be completed without help by most of the selected subjects.

After the initial contact to determine willingness to be part of the study, a questionnaire and an informal interview were administered immediately if possible or at some other time most convenient for the subject. In order to receive more complete information, home visits were made to interview some of the subjects.

Although tape recordings of the conversations would have provided the most exact records, no machines were used. This insured the comfort and cooperation of the subjects. It was believed that some of the subjects might feel that confidential information could be used against them at some later date if it were tape recorded. Therefore, note taking, which did not appear to disturb any of the subjects, was the only form of recording.

Two questionnaires (see Appendix) were administered to help determine the social adjustment of each former student to the adult world in which he now lives. Each subject was interviewed individually to check on the validity of his responses to the questionnaires..

A self-acceptance scale (Berger, 1952) was used as one of the questionnaires for this study. It was felt that this instrument would delve into how the subject viewed himself or herself socially. The self-accepting person is characterized by behavior guided by internalized values (rather than external pressure), which can be determined by responses to the following questions, among others:

- A faith in his capacity to cope with life
- Responsibility
- Objective acceptance of criticism
- Sense of self-worth

- An absence of shyness or self-consciousness.

(Scheerer, 1949)

Another questionnaire was used to determine:

- Age
- Sex
- Marital status
- Activities
- Feelings
- Things one would think about
- How one feels about himself these days
- How one's past compares with one's life today
- Religious preference
- Salary.

This questionnaire also asked what kind of work the participant was employed at and what kind of work he had done in the past. This question was also asked in the face-to-face interview.

Finally, all participants were asked specifically whether they thought their high school education was helpful to them in adjusting to life after high school. Questions such as their thoughts about bringing up children, comparison of happiness now and several years ago, and comparison of employment status were asked.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

The data collected via the two questionnaires were analyzed using the chi-square test and the Student t test to determine significance. If a result is significant at the .05 level, then such results could only occur 5 percent of the time by chance. This means that under a null hypothesis a result with that small a probability of random occurrence has occurred. In this case an experimenter usually concludes that the null hypothesis is false. If a result is not significant, it can occur more frequently by chance under the null hypothesis.

The two subject groups, experimental and control, are compared for composition by sex in Table 1.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF SUBJECTS BY SEX

	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Male	29	58.0	32	64.0
Female	21	42.0	18	36.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = .37, DF = 1, P = .169
not significant at the .05 level

Twenty-nine males and 21 females comprised the EMR group while the control group contained 32 males and 18 females. There was no significant difference in the sexual composition of the two groups.

Table 2 shows the age spread of the two subject groups. Sixteen EMR's as compared to 11 persons from the control group were 19 years of age. Seven of the EMR's were 20 years old; 7 were 21 years old; 7 were 22 years old; and 7 were 24 years old. Ten of the EMR group were 23 years old and 2 of the EMR group were 25 years old. Seven of the control group were 20 years

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF SUBJECTS BY AGE

Age	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
19 years	16	20.0	11	22.4
20	7	14.0	7	14.3
21	7	14.0	14	28.6
22	7	14.0	3	6.1
23	10	20.0	5	10.2
24	7	14.0	3	6.1
25	2	4.0	6	12.2
No answer	-	----	1	0.5
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 9.23, DF = 6,
not significant at the .05 level

P = .161

control group were 21 years old; 3 of the control group old; 14 of the control group were 21 years old; 3 of the control group were 22 years old, and 6 of the control group were 23 years old.

The number of persons in each household appears in Table 3.

TABLE 3
NUMBER OF PERSONS IN SUBJECT HOUSEHOLDS

Number of Persons in Household	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
1	7	14.9	15	31.9
2	5	10.6	10	19.1
3	5	10.6	6	12.8
4	1	2.1	5	10.6
5	10	21.3	2	4.3
6	10	21.3	2	4.3
7	3	6.4	1	2.1
8	0	0	2	4.3
9	3	6.4	3	6.4
10	3	6.4	3	6.4
11	0	0	0	0
12	2	4.3	0	0
No answer	1	2.1	1	2.1
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 22.81, DF = 10,
significant at .05 level

P = .012

Approximately 1/3 (31.9 percent) of the control group live alone, while only 14.9 percent of the EMR group lives alone. Of the experimental group, 10.6 percent had three persons in each household, while this was true of only 12.8 percent of the control group. Of the EMR's, 10.6 percent had two people living in their household as compared to 19.1 percent in the control group households. Of the EMR's, 42.6 percent as compared to 8.6 percent of the control group had 5 or 6 persons living in their household. Both groups had 12.8 percent with 9 or 10 persons living in their households. Two of the EMR's had 12 persons living in their households, while none of the control group had that many persons living in their households. Of the experimental group, 2.1 percent, compared with 10.6 percent of the control group, had four persons living in their households.

From Table 4, the number of organizations to which subjects belonged can be seen.

TABLE 4
NUMBER OF ORGANIZATIONS
TO WHICH SUBJECTS BELONGED

Number of Organizations	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No	%
1	39	81.2	33	66
2	7	14.6	12	24
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	3	6
5	2	4.2	2	4
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 4.77, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .190

Organizational membership does not differ significantly between the two groups. Of the EMR's, 81.2 percent compared with 66 percent of the control group, belonged to one organization. Further, 14.6 percent of the EMR's and 24 percent of the control group belonged to two organizations, and 6 percent of the control group belonged to 4 organizations. Two members of each group belonged to five organizations.

Subjects responded to the questions of how often they read newspapers with the data in Table 5.

TABLE 5
HOW OFTEN SUBJECTS READ NEWSPAPERS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	23	46.0	17	34.0
Once a week	13	26.0	13	26.0
Several times a week	10	20.0	11	22.0
Every day	3	6.0	9	18.0
More than once a day	1	2.0	0	0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 4.94, DF = 4,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .293

Frequency of reading newspapers was not a significant factor. 46% of the EMR group and 34% of the control group did not read newspapers at all. 26% of both the EMR and control groups read newspapers once a week. Only one of the EMR and none of the control group read newspapers more

than once a day. Twenty percent of the EMR's as compared to 22 percent of the control group, read the newspaper several times a week. Six percent of the EMR's and 11 percent of the control subjects read the newspaper everyday.

The frequency of the subject's attendance of movies can be seen in Table 6.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY OF MOVIE ATTENDANCE

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	17	34.0	5	10.0
Once a week	20	40.0	30	60.0
Several times a week	13	26.0	15	30.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 8.69, DF = 2,
significant at the .05 level

p = .013

Of the EMR group, 34 percent did not attend movies at all as opposed to only 10 percent of the control group. Forty percent of the EMR's and 60 percent of the control subjects attended the movies once a week. Twenty-six percent of the EMR's and 30 percent of the control

attended the movies several times a week.

Table 7 demonstrates the frequency of watching or listening to a news program by the subjects in the EMR and control groups.

TABLE 7
NEWS PROGRAM VIEWING OR LISTENING

Frequency of watching or listening to a news program	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	6	12.0	5	10.0
Once a week	15	30.0	12	24.0
Several times a week	23	46.0	16	32.0
Every day	4	8.0	13	26.0
More than once a day	2	4.0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 7.11, DF = 4,
significant at .05 level

p = .130

A comparable number of subjects from both groups (12% of the EMR's and 10% of the controls) did not watch or listen to a news program at all. On an hourly basis, the EMR's were more involved with watching or listening to news programs than the control subjects, 76% of the EMR's participating in news at least once a week as opposed to 56% of the controls. But when it came to participating in news programs at least daily, 17 subjects

of the control group and only 6 subjects of the EMR group listened to news this frequently. Note that for both groups, broadcasted news programs are a large part of their lives.

The participation of both groups in games and sports activities is explored in Table 8.

TABLE 8
PARTICIPATION IN GAMES AND SPORTS ACTIVITIES

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	6	12.0	8	16.0
Once a week	14	28.0	24	48.0
Several times a week	19	38.0	13	26.0
Every day	10	20.0	4	8.0
More than once a day	1	2.0	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 6.61, DF = 4,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .158

More of the control group (16 percent) did not participate in sports activities at all as opposed to 12 percent of the EMR's. Twenty-eight percent of the EMR's and 48 percent of the control group participated in games several times a week. Twenty percent of the EMR's as

compared to 8 percent of the control group participated in games every day. The same number in both groups (2 percent) took part in games and sports activities more than once a day. Twenty percent of the EMR's to 8 percent of the control group participated everyday in sports activities.

Attendance at games and sports activities by the subjects of both groups is recorded in Table 9.

TABLE 9
ATTENDANCE AT GAMES AND SPORTS ACTIVITIES

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	26	52.0	8	16.0
Once a week	11	22.0	24	48.0
Several times a week	12	24.0	13	26.0
Every day	0	0	4	8.0
More than once a day	1	2.0	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 18.40, DF = 4,
significant at the .01 level

p = .001

The control subjects attended more games or sports activities than EMR's. Forth-eight percent of the control group attended sports activities at least once a week as opposed to 22 percent of the EMR's. While 34 percent of the control group attend these activities several times a week to every day as opposed to 24 percent of the EMR's, over one half (52 percent) of the EMR's did not attend at all while 16 percent of the control group did not attend at all.

Table 10 demonstrates the frequency of horoscope reading by both groups.

TABLE 10
HOROSCOPE READING

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	19	38.0	10	20.0
Once a week	20	40.0	19	38.0
Several times a week	11	22.0	13	26.0
Every day	0	0	7	14.0
More than once a day	0	0	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 10.99, DF = 4,
significant at the .05 level

p = .0267

More control subjects (80 percent) than EMR's (62 percent) read their horoscopes at least once a week. A larger percentage (38 percent of the EMR's never read horoscopes as opposed to 20 percent of the control group. Twenty-two percent of the EMR's as compared to 26 percent of the control subjects read their horoscopes several times a week. Eight subjects of the control group read their horoscopes every day or more than once a day; none of the EMR's had this frequency.

The data in Table 11 explores how often automobile trips are taken by the EMR and control groups. There was no significant difference between the two groups in frequency of taking rides in automobiles with the exception that more (26 percent) of the EMR's never took auto trips as opposed to 12 percent of the control group. Thirty-eight percent of the EMR's as compared to 42 percent of the control group took trips in an automobile several times a week. None of the EMR's and 4 percent of the control group took trips more than once a day.

TABLE 11
HOW OFTEN TRIPS IN AN AUTOMOBILE ARE TAKEN

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	13	26.0	6	12.0
Once a week	16	32.0	15	30.0
Several times a week	19	38.0	21	42.0
Every day	2	4.0	7	12.0
More than once a day	0	0	2	4.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 6.71, DF - 4,
not significant at .05 level

Subjects responded to the question of how often
the bible is read in Table 12.

TABLE 12
HOW OFTEN THE BIBLE IS READ

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	6	12.0
Once a week	14	28.0	16	32.0
Several times a week	15	30.0	17	34.0
Every day	9	18.0	7	14.0
More than once a day	0	0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 6.51, DF = 4,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .164

There was no significant difference between the two groups in frequency of Bible reading. While 12 of the EMR's never read the Bible as opposed to 6 of the control group, 14 of the EMR's and 16 of the control group read the Bible once a week. Fifteen of the EMR's and 17 of the control group read the Bible several times a week; 9 of the EMR's and 7 of the control group read the Bible every day. None of the EMR's and 8 percent of the control group read the Bible more than once a day.

The frequency of dining out by the EMR and the control groups is recorded in Table 13.

TABLE 13
FREQUENCY OF DINING OUT

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	11	22.0
Once a week	11	22.0	13	26.0
Several times a week	22	44.0	17	34.0
Every day	2	4.0	6	12.0
More than once a day	3	6.0	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.85, DF = 4,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .583

The data in Table 13 show that dining out is not a significant factor. About the same number of subjects never dine out (24 percent of the EMR, 22 percent of the control group). Twenty-six percent of the controls and 22 percent of the EMR's dined out once a week. Of the EMR's, 44 percent dined several times a week, while the controls had 34 percent. Five of the EMR subjects (10 percent) and 9 of the controls (18 percent) dined every day or more than once a day.

Subjects responded to the frequency of feeling "on top of the world" in Table 14.

TABLE 14
FEELING "ON TOP OF THE WORLD"

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	22	44.9	11	22.0
Once last week	8	16.8	23	46.0
Several times last week	15	30.6	14	28.0
Total	45	91.8	48	96.0

chi square = 11.62, DF = 3,
significant at the .01 level

p = .008

Of the EMR's, 44 percent as opposed to 22 percent of the controls did not feel "on top of the world" that week. Forty-six percent of the controls felt this way once that week; the EMR's experiencing 16.8 percent. Both groups experienced similar frequencies (28.0 for the controls, 30.6 for the EMR's) in the "several times last week" category.

Subjects responded to feeling lonely or remote from other people in Table 15.

TABLE 15
FEELING LONELY OR REMOTE FROM OTHER PEOPLE

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	10	20.0
Once last week	24	48.0	28	56.0
Several times last week	9	18.0	12	24.0
Often	5	10.0	0	0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 5.91, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .116

Twenty-four percent of the EMR's did not feel lonely during the week; 20 percent of the controls felt the same. When it came to feeling lonely at least once a week, 56 percent of the controls had this frequency, while the EMR's had 48 percent. Twelve control subjects (24 percent) and 9 EMR's were lonely several times during the week. Five of the EMR's (10 percent) and none of the controls said they felt lonely often during the week.

Unusual anger feelings by the subjects are shown in Table 16.

TABLE 16
UNUSUAL ANGER FEELINGS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	7	14.0	10	20.0
Once last week	25	50.0	21	42.0
Several times last week	11	22.0	15	30.0
Often	7	14.0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.31, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .511

Seven EMR subjects were never angry as opposed to 10 subjects of the control group. Fifty percent of the EMR's (25 subjects) were angry once during the week while 42 percent (21 subjects) of the controls had the same frequency. When it came to experiencing anger several times during the week, 30 percent of the control group reported this as opposed to 22 percent of the EMR's. Eight percent of the controls (4 subjects) were angry often, while 14 percent (7 subjects) of the EMR group reported the same.

The experience of feeling that "I just couldn't get going" is demonstrated by the data in Table 17.

TABLE 17
FREQUENCY OF FEELING "I JUST COULDN'T GET GOING"

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	7	14.0	5	10.0
Once last week	21	42.0	21	42.0
Several times last week	18	36.0	21	42.0
Often	4	8.0	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = .70, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .872

Twenty-one subjects (42 percent) of both the EMR and the control groups experienced this feeling once during the week. Of the control group, 42 percent also felt that they couldn't get going several times during the week, as opposed to 36 percent of the EMR's. Six percent of the controls felt this way often and 8 percent of the

EMR's felt this way. A slightly larger percentage of the EMR's never felt this way (14 percent) than the controls at 10 percent.

The subjects' participation in something particularly interesting or exciting during the week is shown by Table 18.

TABLE 18
PARTICIPATION IN SOMETHING PARTICULARLY
INTERESTING OR EXCITING

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	5	10.0	8	16.0
Once last week	15	30.0	18	36.0
Several times last week	23	46.0	21	42.0
Often	7	14.0	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.65, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .448

Of the control group 16 percent did not participate in something interesting during the week; 10 percent of the EMR's reported the same. Thirty-six percent of the controls took part once during the week and 30 percent of the EMR's did the same. When it came to taking part in

something interesting several times during the week, 46 percent of the EMR's participated as opposed to 42 percent of the control group. Fourteen percent of the EMR's took part often during the week, while 6 percent of the controls did the same.

Subjects responded to feelings of depression in Table 19.

TABLE 19
FEELINGS OF DEPRESSION

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	11	22.0	6	12.0
Once last week	14	28.0	28	56.0
Several times last week	19	38.0	15	30.0
Often	6	12.0	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 10.18, DF = 3,
significant at the .05 level

p = .02

More of the EMR subjects (22 percent) never felt depressed than the control subjects at 12 percent. Fifty-six percent of the controls felt depressed once during the week; 28 percent of the EMR's reported the same. Of the EMR's

38 percent felt depressed several times during the week, while 30 percent of the controls reported the same. Six subjects (12 percent) of the EMR's were depressed often as opposed to one subject (2 percent) of the control group.

The frequency of experiencing pleasure about accomplishments is expressed by the data in Table 20.

TABLE 20
FREQUENCY OF PLEASURE ABOUT ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	9	18.0	2	4.0
Once last week	12	24.0	23	46.0
Several times last week	20	40.0	24	48.0
Often	9	18.0	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 14.68, DF = 3,
significant at the .05 level

p = .002

Nine subjects of the EMR group (18 percent) reported not feeling pleasure from accomplishments as opposed to two subjects of the control group (4 percent). Of the control group, 46 percent experienced this feeling once

during the week, as opposed to the EMR group at 24 percent. The frequency of "several times last week" was reported by 48 percent of the control group and 40 percent of the EMR's. Nine (18 percent) of the EMR's experienced this feeling often during the week while only 1 (2 percent) control subject did the same.

Table 21 shows the frequency of feelings of boredom by both the EMR and control groups.

TABLE 21
FREQUENCY OF FEELINGS OF BOREDOM

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	14	28.0
Once last week	11	22.0	17	34.0
Several times last week	16	32.0	15	30.0
Often	11	22.0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 4.73, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .192

Of the control group, 28 percent did not feel bored, 24 percent of the EMR's stated the same. Thirty-four percent of the controls felt bored once during the week,

and 22 percent of the EMR's also reported this frequency. In the "several times last week" range, 30 percent of the control group and 32 percent of the EMR's were of this frequency. Eleven subjects (22 percent) of the EMR's reported feelings of boredom often, while only 4 subjects (8 percent) in the control group felt this way often.

The subjects' feelings of pride associated with receiving compliments is explored in Table 22.

TABLE 22
FEELINGS OF PRIDE RESULTING FROM COMPLIMENTS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	8	16.0
Once	11	22.0	25	50.0
Several times	18	36.0	13	26.0
Often	9	18.0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 8.97, DF = 3,
significant at the .05 level

p = .030

There was a significant difference between the number of times the subjects felt proud because they had received a compliment on work done. Fifty percent of

the control group and only 22 percent of the EMR subjects had received compliments within the past week. More of the EMR's (24 percent) had not experienced pride, as opposed to 16 percent of the control group. Thirty-six percent of the EMR's had been complimented several group times during the week, while 26 percent of the control reported the same thing. Nine (18 percent) EMR subjects had experienced pride from compliments often during the week, as opposed to 4 subjects (8 percent) of the control group.

Feelings of restlessness for both groups are shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23
FREQUENCY OF RESTLESSNESS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	18	36.0	4	8.0
Once	13	26.0	18	36.0
Several times	18	36.0	21	42.0
Often	1	2.0	7	14.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 14.45, DF = 3,
significant at the .01 level

p = .002

Eighteen EMR's and four control subjects had not been restless at all during the time studied. Eighteen of the control group felt restless once during the week as opposed to 13 of the EMR group. Twenty-one of the control subjects, and 18 of the EMR's felt restless several times during the week. Only 1 EMR subject felt restless often, while 7 control subjects reported this feeling.

Table 24 deals with the subjects' feelings of being unable to get something done.

TABLE 24
FEELING OF INABILITY TO GET SOMETHING DONE

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	10	20.0	8	16.0
Once	10	20.0	14	28.0
Several times	23	46.0	25	50.0
Often	7	14.0	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.57, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .462

As shown by the data in Table 24, there was no significant

difference in feeling unable to get things done. Ten subjects of the EMR group never felt this way, while 8 of the controls did also. Ten of the EMR's and 14 of the controls felt unable to get things done once during the week. Twenty-five of the controls and 23 of the EMR's felt this way several times during the week and 7 of the EMR's, 3 of the controls reported feeling this way often.

A comparison of uneasy, undefined feelings experienced by both groups is shown in Table 25.

TABLE 25
COMPARISON OF UNEASY, UNDEFINED FEELINGS

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	13	26.0	6	12.0
Once	16	32.0	18	36.0
Several times	14	28.0	23	46.0
Often	7	14.0	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 6.49, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .090

As is revealed in Table 25, both EMR and control subjects experienced feelings of vague unease at times within the

week before testing. Thirteen of the EMR group did not feel uneasy during the week and 6 of the control group did not. Eighteen of the control group felt uneasy once during the week, 16 of the EMR's had the same frequency. Twenty-six subjects of the control group have feelings of uneasiness several times to often during the week and 21 of the EMR's shared this frequency.

The data in Table 26 reveal the frequency of thoughts about money within both groups.

TABLE 26
FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS ABOUT MONEY

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	17	34.0	8	16.7
Sometimes	14	28.0	18	37.5
Often	19	38.0	22	45.8
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 3.92, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .141

From Table 26 it is seen that 34 percent of the EMR's did not think about money as opposed to 16.7 percent of the controls. When it came to thinking of money "sometimes",

37.5 percent did so; 28 percent of the EMR's. Of the control group, 45.8 percent thought of money often, while 38 percent of the EMR's did the same.

Table 27 explores the subjects' feelings about growing old.

TABLE 27
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT GROWING OLD

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	24	48.0	8	16.0
Sometimes	13	26.0	22	44.0
Often	13	26.0	20	40.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 11.80, DF = 2,
significant at the .01 level

p = .003

The data in Table 27 reveal that 48 percent of the EMR's and 16 percent of the control group never thought about growing old. Of the control group, 44 percent thought about growing old sometimes, as opposed to the EMR's at 26 percent. Of the EMR's, 26 percent thought about growing old often and 40 percent of the controls did the same.

The frequency at which both groups thought about work during the past week is shown in Table 29.

TABLE 28
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT WORK

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	10	20.0	6	12.0
Sometimes	20	40.0	25	50.0
Often	20	40.0	19	38.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 1.58, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .454

More of the EMR's (20 percent) never thought about work, while 12 percent of the controls had this frequency.

A comparable number of subjects in both groups sometimes thought about work (50 percent for the controls, 40 percent for the EMR's). Forty percent of the EMR's thought about it often as did 38 percent of the controls.

A comparison of the subjects' thoughts about marriage is found in Table 29.

TABLE 29
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT MARRIAGE

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	14	28.0	6	12.0
Sometimes	23	46.0	28	56.0
Often	13	26.0	16	32.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 4.00, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .135

According to the data presented in Table 30, both groups thought about marriage a great deal. Fifty-six percent of the control group and 46 percent of the EMR's thought about marriage sometimes. Thirty-two percent of the controls and 26 percent of the EMR's thought about it often. Only 12 percent of the controls never thought about marriage, while 28 percent of the EMR's reported the same frequency.

The data in Table 30 reveal the subjects' frequency of thoughts about getting ahead.

TABLE 30
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT GETTING AHEAD

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	8	16.0
Sometimes	23	46.0	23	46.0
Often	15	30.0	19	38.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 1.27, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .530

The data in this table reveal that 46 percent of both groups sometimes thought about getting ahead. Twelve of the EMR's (24 percent) and 8 of the controls (16 percent) never thought about it. Thirty-eight percent of the controls and 30 percent of the EMR's often thought about getting ahead.

A comparison of frequency of thoughts about bringing up children by both groups is found in Table 31.

TABLE 31
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT BRINGING UP CHILDREN

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	15	30.0	14	28.0
Sometimes	19	38.0	18	36.0
Often	16	32.0	18	36.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = .17, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .914

The control group had 28 percent and the EMR's 30 percent when it came to never having thoughts about children. Thirty-six percent of the controls and 38 percent of the EMR's sometimes had thoughts about children, while 36 percent of the controls and 32 percent of the EMR's often thought about this.

Subjects in both groups responded to the question of how frequently they thought about death in Table 32.

TABLE 32
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT DEATH

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	16	32.7	12	24.0
Sometimes	14	28.6	21	42.0
Often	19	38.8	17	34.0
Total	49	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.07, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .355

Of the EMR group, 32.7 percent never thought about death, as opposed to 24 percent of the control group. Forty-two percent of the controls sometimes thought about death, as opposed to 28.6 percent of the EMR's. A comparable amount of control subjects (34 percent) and EMR's (38.8 percent) often had thoughts about death.

Table 33 data illustrate the subjects' frequency of thoughts about their enemies.

TABLE 33
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT ENEMIES

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	12	24.0	6	12.0
Sometimes	21	42.0	30	60.0
Often	17	34.0	14	28.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 3.88, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .144

Twelve EMR subjects never thought about enemies as opposed to 6 control subjects (24 percent EMR's, 12 percent controls). Sixty percent of the controls had these thoughts sometimes, 42 percent of the EMR's did also. Thirty-four percent of the EMR group often thought about their enemies as opposed to 28 percent of the control group.

The frequency of thoughts about health is shown by the data in Table 34.

TABLE 34
COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OF THOUGHTS
ABOUT HEALTH

Frequency	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not at all	13	26.0	16	32.0
Sometimes	21	42.0	21	42.0
Often	16	32.0	13	26.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = .62, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .733

Forty-two percent of both groups sometimes thought about their health as is shown by the data in Table 34. Thirty-two percent of the controls sometimes thought about health, followed by 26 percent of the EMR's. More of the EMR's (32 percent) often thought about their health compared to the control subjects at 26 percent.

The data in Table 35 compare happiness levels in the EMR and control groups.

TABLE 35
COMPARISON OF HAPPINESS

Degree of Feeling	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Very happy	19	38.0	7	14.0
Pretty happy	16	32.0	39	78.0
Not too happy	15	30.0	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 21.53, DF = 2,
significant at the .01 level

p = .000

A significant difference between the degree of happiness for the two groups is shown in Table 35. Of the EMR's, 38 percent as opposed to 14 percent of the controls reported feeling very happy. A larger percentage of controls (78 percent) as opposed to 32 percent of the EMR's were "pretty happy", while 30 percent of the EMR's and only 8 percent of the controls stated they were "not too happy."

A comparison of the happiness of the two groups over the years is contained in the data in Table 36.

TABLE 36
COMPARISON OF HAPPINESS NOW AND SEVERAL YEARS AGO

Degree of Feeling	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Happier	19	38.0	22	44.0
Not quite as happy	20	40.0	14	28.0
About the same	11	22.0	14	28.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 1.64, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .441

From Table 36, it is seen that 38 percent of the EMR's, compared to 44 percent of the control group, were happier four or five years ago. Forty percent of the EMR's and 28 percent of the control subjects were not quite as happy four or five years ago. Twenty-eight percent of the controls and 22 percent of the EMR's felt about the same.

A comparison of the statement "I have as many friends as I want" is found in Table 37.

TABLE 37
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I HAVE AS MANY FRIENDS AS I WANT"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	17	34.0	17	34.0
Somewhat true for me	19	38.0	27	54.0
True for me	14	28.0	6	12.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 4.59, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .101

We can see from the data in Table 38 that 34 percent, or approximately one-third, of both groups did not have as many friends as they wanted. Thirty-eight percent of the EMR's compared to 54 percent of the control group felt this was true at least some of the time. Twelve percent of the controls and 28 percent of the EMR's definitely felt this was true.

The data in Table 38 compare responses to the statement "I lose my temper frequently."

TABLE 38
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I LOSE MY TEMPER FREQUENTLY"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	22	44.0	18	36.0
Somewhat true for me	15	30.0	24	48.0
True for me	13	26.0	8	16.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 3.67, DF = 2.
not significant at the .05 level

p = .160

Forty-four percent of the EMR's and 36 percent of the control group did not lose their tempers. Thirty percent of the EMR's and 48 percent of the control group felt that it was somewhat true of them. Twenty-six percent of the EMR's as compared to 16 percent of the control group said that they lost their tempers frequently. There was no significant difference between the two groups for this characteristic.

A comparison of the statement "I have trouble getting to sleep at night" is found in Table 39.

TABLE 39
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I HAVE TROUBLE GETTING TO SLEEP AT NIGHT"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	16	32.0	17	34.0
Somewhat true for me	24	48.0	28	56.0
True for me	10	20.0	5	10.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.00, DF = 2.
not significant at the .05 level

p = .367

On the average, one-third of both groups (32 percent, EMR's, 34 percent, controls) had no trouble getting to sleep at night. Fifty-six percent of the controls and 48 percent of the EMR's felt this to be somewhat true, while 10 percent of the controls and 20 percent of the EMR's definitely felt this to be true.

Table 40 contains responses to the statement
"I get along with people easily".

TABLE 40
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE EASILY"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	8	16.0	6	12.0
Somewhat true for me	23	46.0	31	62.0
True for me	19	38.0	13	26.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.60, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .273

Only 6 subjects of the control group (12 percent) and 8 subjects of the EMR group (16 percent) could not get along easily with people. Sixty-two percent of the controls and 46 percent of the EMR's felt that this was somewhat true. Thirty-eight percent of the EMR's and 26 percent of the controls felt this to be true for them.

A comparison of the statement "My family asks more of me than I am able to give" appears in the data in Table 41.

TABLE 41
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"MY FAMILY ASKS MORE OF ME THAN I AM ABLE TO GIVE"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	15	30.0	11	22.0
Somewhat true for me	22	44.0	34	68.0
True for me	13	26.0	5	10.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 6.74, DF = 2,
significant at .05 level

p = .034

Of the control group, 22 percent did not feel their family asked too much of them; 30 percent of the EMR's thought the same. Sixty-eight percent of the controls felt this to be somewhat true, as compared to 44 percent of the EMR's. More of the EMR's (26 percent) than controls (10 percent) felt this to be definitely true.

Subjects responded to the statement "I want my children to be like me" in Table 42.

TABLE 42
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I WANT MY CHILDREN TO BE LIKE ME"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	10	20.0	9	18.0
Somewhat true for me	23	46.0	30	60.0
True for me	17	34.0	11	22.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.26, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .323

As is revealed in Table 42, 46 percent of the EMR's as compared to 60 percent of the control group said that it was somewhat true of them that they wanted their children to be like them. About the same percentage of both groups felt that they did not want their children to be like them (18 percent for the controls, 20 percent for the EMR's). Thirty-four percent of the EMR's and 22 percent of the control group wanted their children to be like them.

Table 43 deals with the subjects' problems in keeping their weights at the right level.

TABLE 43

COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
 "I DO NOT HAVE ANY TROUBLE KEEPING MY WEIGHT DOWN"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	18	36.0	13	26.0
Somewhat true for me	17	34.0	26	52.0
True for me	15	30.0	11	22.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0
chi square = 3.30, DF = 2, not significant at the .05 level				p = .323

While 52 percent of the control group said that this was somewhat true for them; 34 percent of the EMR's reported this. Thirty percent of the EMR's said they definitely had trouble with their weight as opposed to 22 percent of the controls. More of the EMR's (36 percent) did not have trouble as compared to the controls at 26 percent.

Table 44 compares responses to the statement
 "I would like to move away from this community."

TABLE 44
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I WOULD LIKE TO MOVE AWAY FROM THIS COMMUNITY"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	15	30.0	9	18.0
Somewhat true for me	21	42.0	30	60.0
True for me	14	28.0	11	22.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 3.45, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .178

Sixty percent of the controls and 42 percent of the EMR's had considered moving from the community they were living in. Twenty-two percent of the controls and 28 percent of the EMR's definitely felt like moving. Thirty percent of the EMR's as opposed to 18 percent of the control group had not thought of moving.

Table 46 contains data regarding the subjects' responses to the statement "I am not as good a parent as I would like to be".

TABLE 45
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I PARTICIPATE ACTIVELY IN COMMUNITY AFFAIRS"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	21	42.0	15	30.0
Somewhat true for me	21	42.0	26	52.0
True for me	8	16.0	9	18.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 1.59, DF = 2.
not significant at the .05 level

p = .451

The information in Table 46 reveals that 42 percent of the EMR's and 30 percent of the control group did not participate actively in community affairs. Slightly over one-half of the controls (52 percent) did participate sometimes, as did 42 percent of the EMR's. Eighteen percent of the controls and 16 percent of the EMR's definitely participated.

Table 46 data compare the subjects' responses to the statement "I am not as good a parent as I would like to be."

TABLE 46
COMPARISON OF THE STATEMENT
"I AM NOT AS GOOD A PARENT AS I WOULD LIKE TO BE"

Accuracy of Statement	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Not true for me	5	31.3	9	56.3
Somewhat true for me	6	37.5	4	25.0
True for me	5	31.3	3	18.8
Total	16	100.1	16	100.1

chi square = 2.04, DF = 2,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .360

From the data in Table 47 it is seen that of the persons who responded (the question asked for response only if the subject had children), 68.8 percent of the EMR's and 43.8 percent of the control group felt that they were good parents. But over half of the control group (56.3 percent) felt that they were not good parents as opposed to 31.3 percent of the EMR's.

A comparison of recent illnesses experienced by both groups is found in Table 47.

TABLE 47
COMPARISON OF RECENT ILLNESSES

Were you sick during the past week?	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	18	36.0	6	12.0
No	32	64.0	44	88.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 7.89, DF = 1,
significant at the .05 level

p = .000

In comparing illness within both groups during the week, 36 percent of the EMR's and only 12 percent of the controls were ill. Eighty-eight percent of the controls had not been ill; 64 percent of the EMR's.

Effects of illness on usual activities is shown by the data in Table 48.

TABLE 48
EFFECTS OF ILLNESS ON USUAL ACTIVITIES

If you were sick, did it cause you to cut down on your usual activities?	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	6	54.5	3	50.0
No	5	45.5	3	50.0
Total	11	100.0	6	100.0

chi square = .32, DF = 1,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .858

The effects of illness on usual activities were divided about equally among the two groups. Percentages for those responding "yes" ran 54.5 for the EMR's and 50 percent for the controls. Those stating that illness did not affect their usual activities ran 45.5 percent for the EMR's and 50 percent for the controls.

Table 49 contains a comparison of employment status within the EMR and control groups.

TABLE 49
COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Employment Status	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Employed	33	66.0	38	76.0
Self-employed	3	6.0	2	4.0
Unemployed or laid off	12	24.0	10	20.0
Part time worker	1	2.0	0	0
Not working and not looking for a job	1	2.0	0	0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 2.73, DF = 4,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .603

Table 49 shows that more than two-thirds of both groups were employed. Six percent of the EMR's and 4 percent of the control group were self-employed. Twenty-four percent of the EMR's and 20 percent of the controls were unemployed or laid off. None of the control group and only one of EMR subject worked part time, while none of the control and one of EMR was neither working nor looking for a job.

A comparison of wage satisfaction is shown in Table 50.

TABLE 50
COMPARISON OF SATISFACTION
WITH PRESENT WAGES

Satisfaction with present wage level	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Very satisfied	21	56.8	12	30.0
Somewhat satisfied	15	40.0	24	60.0
Somewhat dissatisfied	0	0	4	10.0
Very dissatisfied	1	2.7	0	0
Total	37	100.0	40	100.0

chi square = 9.43, DF = 3,
not significant at the .05 level

p = 0.24

Data shown in Table 50 reveal that 56.8 percent of the EMR's and 30 percent of the controls were satisfied with their wage level. Sixty percent of the control subjects and 40 percent of the EMR's were at least somewhat satisfied. Only 10 percent of the controls and 2.7 of the EMR's were dissatisfied with their wages.

Table 51 provides a comparison of job satisfaction within the groups.

TABLE 51
COMPARISON OF JOB SATISFACTION

Degree of Satisfaction	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Very satisfied	22	59.5	11	27.5
Somewhat satisfied	13	35.1	24	60.0
Somewhat dissatisfied	1	2.7	4	10.0
Very dissatisfied	1	2.7	1	2.5
Total	37	100.0	40	100.0

.chi square = 8.63, DF = 3,
significant at the .05 level

p = .035

As is indicated in Table 51, 59.5 percent of the EMR's and 27.5 percent of the control group were very satisfied with the kind of work they were doing. Sixty percent of the controls and 35.1 percent of the EMR's reported feeling somewhat satisfied. Twelve and one-half percent of the controls and 2.7 percent of the EMR's were somewhat to very dissatisfied with their jobs.

Table 52 compares specific jobs of each of the groups.

TABLE 52
COMPARISON OF FEELINGS ABOUT SPECIFIC JOBS

Taking all things together, how do you feel about your job as a whole	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Very satisfied	21	56.8	11	27.5
Somewhat satisfied	11	29.7	22	55.0
Somewhat dissatisfied	2	5.4	6	15.0
Very dis- satisfied	3	8.1	1	2.5
Total	37	100.0	40	100.0

chi square = 9.69, DF = 3, p = .021
significant at the .05 level

In Table 52 we see that 86.5 percent of the EMR's and 82.5 percent of the control group were at least somewhat satisfied with their specific jobs. Seven of the control group (17.5 percent) and 5 of the EMR's (13.5) reported being dissatisfied with their specific jobs.

Subjects responded to how well they felt their skills were used on the job, as shown in Table 53.

TABLE 53
COMPARISON OF SKILL OR TALENT USAGE

Do you feel that your present job really uses all your skills or talents?	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	24	66.7	19	47.5
No	12	33.3	21	52.5
Total	36	100.0	40	100.0

chi square = 2.83, DF = 1, p = .092
not significant at the .05 level

Of the EMR's 66.7 percent and 47.5 of the controls felt that their jobs used all their skills and talents. Over one-half (52.5 percent) and 33.3 percent of the EMR's did not feel that their skills were being used.

Table 54 compares discrimination in finding employment.

TABLE 54
DISCRIMINATION IN FINDING EMPLOYMENT

Do you feel that any kind of discrimina- tion or unfair prac- tice has kept you from getting a job?	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	12	92.3	7	70.0
No	1	7.7	3	30.0
Total	13	100.0	10	100.0

chi square = 1.96, DF = 1,
not significant at the .05 level

p = .162

Both groups feel highly discriminated against when trying obtain employment, as is indicated by the data in Table 54. The majority of EMR's (92.3 percent) definitely felt discriminated against, while 70 percent of the controls reported this. Only 7.7 percent of the EMR's responded with a "no" as opposed to 30 percent of the controls.

Table 55 surveys the collection of unemployment compensation by both groups.

TABLE 55
COLLECTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION

Are you currently collecting unemployment compensation?	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	13	100.0	6	60.0
No	0	0	4	40.0
Total	13	100.0	10	100.0

chi square = 6.29, DF = 1, p = .031
significant at the .05 level

There is a significant difference between the two groups in collecting unemployment compensation. One hundred percent of the EMR's who answered this question are collecting unemployment compensation, while only 60 percent of the control subjects who answered are collecting it.

The amount of education of both groups is demonstrated by the data in Table 56.

TABLE 56
COMPARISON OF EDUCATION

Education Level	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
High school graduate	45	90.0	18	36.0
Partial completion of college work	5	10.0	23	46.0
College graduate or post-graduate work	0	0	9	18.0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 26.27, DF = 2,
significant at .05 level

p = .000

Ninety percent of the EMR's had completed high school, and none had completed college work, though 10 percent had done some college work. Forty-six percent of the control group had completed some college study, while 18 percent of them had either completed or gone on to post-graduate work. Only 36 percent of the controls had graduated from high school.

Religious affiliation was explored by the data in Table 57.

TABLE 57
COMPARISON OF RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE

Religious Preference	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Protestant	42	84.0	48	96.0
Roman Catholic	3	6.0	2	4.0
Other	3	6.0	0	0
None	2	4.0	0	0
Total	50	100.0	50	100.0

chi square = 5.60, DF = 3, p = .133
not significant at the .05 level

All of the control group had some religious affiliation (96 percent Protestant, 4 percent Catholic). Eighty-four percent of the EMR's reported Protestant affiliation, while 6 percent of them were Catholic. Only 2 EMR subjects (4 percent) expressed no religious affiliation.

Total family income for the EMR and control groups is detailed by the data in Table 58.

TABLE 58
TOTAL FAMILY INCOME

Income from all sources	EMR		Control	
	No.	%	No.	%
Less than \$1999	6	12.0	1	2.2
\$2000 - \$2999	20	40.0	2	4.4
\$3000 - \$3999	11	22.0	1	2.2
\$4000 - \$4999	3	6.0	3	6.7
\$5000 - \$5999	5	10.0	6	13.3
\$6000 - \$6999	1	2.0	3	6.7
\$7000 - \$7999	2	4.0	5	11.1
\$8000 - \$8999	0	0	5	11.1
\$9000 - \$9999	1	2.0	2	4.4
\$10,000 - \$10,999	1	2.0	5	11.1
\$11,000 - \$11,999	0	0	1	2.2
\$12,000 - \$12,999	0	0	5	11.1
\$13,000 - \$13,999	0	0	2	4.4
\$14,000 - \$14,999	0	0	2	4.4
\$15,000 and over	0	0	2	4.4
Total	50	100	50	100

chi square = 48.88, DF = 14,
significant at .05 level

p = .000

In the \$2000 to \$3999 range, 62 percent of the EMR's and only 6.6 percent of the controls fell into this category. More of the EMR's (12 percent) than the controls (2.2 percent) earned less than \$1999. Sixteen percent of the EMR's and 20 percent of the controls earned \$4000 to \$5999. A larger percentage of the controls (28.9 percent) as opposed to only 6 percent of the EMR's earned \$6000 to \$8999 per year. Only 2 of the EMR's (4 percent) earned \$9000 to \$10,999, while 7 subjects (15.5 percent) of the controls earned this. None of the EMR's reported an income over \$10,999, while 16.5 of the controls reported this amount.

The mean annual income of both groups appears in Table 59.

TABLE 59
MEAN ANNUAL INCOME

	Mean	N	T	DF
EMR	\$3,100	50	8.4168	93
Control	\$8,133	50		

Significant at the .01 level

The EMR's average a mean annual income of \$3,100, while the controls average an annual income of \$8,133.

Table 60 lists the length of unemployment time for both groups.

TABLE 60
LENGTH OF UNEMPLOYMENT

	Mean	N	T	DF
EMR	34.39	13	3.0346	21
Control	15.40	10		

significant at the .05 level

The data in Table 61 reveal that of those who were unemployed, the average time of unemployment was greater for EMR's (34 weeks) than for control subjects (15 weeks).

Finally, Table 61 contains data about self-acceptance.

TABLE 61
SELF-ACCEPTANCE

	Mean	N	T	DF
EMR	2.75	50	5.1793	98
Control	3.21	50		

significant at the .01 level

The control group had a greater acceptance of themselves (3.21 with 5 being the best possible score) and the EMR's had an acceptance of 2.75.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The focus of this study was to compare the social adjustment of fifty Black persons who graduated from high school special education classes with that of fifty Black persons who graduated from traditional high school classes during the years 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, and 1973. The study was completed with a school district in a large urban setting.

Data for the research were generated by two questionnaires adapted from the widely used and validated research surveys originated by Scheerer and Berger, and Bobroff. The first questionnaire dealt with the participants' attitudes toward their own self acceptance. The second instrument described part of one's personal background (for example, age, sex, how frequently one thinks about getting ahead) and socializing habits.

Two hypotheses were tested via this research. The first hypothesis was that graduation from special education classes was a reliable predictor of the Black educable mentally retarded person's ability to adjust

successfully to his social environment. This hypothesis was supported by the data. The second hypothesis was that the Black educable mentally retarded person who had graduated from special education classes differed in social adjustment to Black persons who had graduated from traditional classes. The research indicated that in 30 percent of the social activities of the subject groups there was a substantial difference in adjustment.

Findings

For this study 58 percent male and 42 percent female subjects were used in the experimental group and 64 percent male and 36 percent female subjects were used in the control group. The age span was from 19 to 25 years. One subject in the control group did not list his age. The mean age of the EMR group was 21.35 years, and the mean age of the control group was 21.35 years of age.

Fifty-one percent of the control group had two or fewer persons in their household whereas only 25.5 percent of the experimental group lived with two or fewer persons.

Nineteen persons of the experimental group belonged to one or more organizations. Of the control

group, twenty-six belonged to one or more organizations. There was no significant difference at the .05 level.

Fifty-four percent of the experimental group and 66 percent of the control group read the newspaper at least once a week. Ninety percent of the control subjects attended the movies at least once a week whereas 66 percent of the experimental group attended the movies at least once a week. Sixty percent of the control group and 40 percent of the experimental group attended the movies only once a week.

Twelve percent of the experimental group as compared to 10 percent of the control group never watched television. Forty-six percent of the experimental group and 32 percent of the control group watched television several times. Four percent as compared to 8 percent watched television more than once a day.

Eighty-eight percent of the experimental group and 84 percent of the control group participated in games and sports activities. Twelve percent of the experimental group and 16 percent of the control group never participated in games or sports activities.

Twenty-two percent of the experimental group and 48 percent of the control group attended sports

activities at least once a week. Fifty-two percent of the experimental and 16 percent of the control group never attended games or sports activities.

Eighty percent of the control group as compared to 62 percent of the experimental group read their horoscopes at least once a week.

Seventy-six percent of the experimental group and 88 percent of the control subjects read the Bible and least once a week. None of the experimental group read the Bible more than once a week.

None of the experimental subjects took trips in an automobile more than once a day. Twenty-six percent or 13 of the experimental group and 6 or 12 percent of the control group never took trips in an automobile. Thirty-two percent of the experimental group and 30 percent of the control group took a trip in an automobile once a week.

Six percent of both groups dined out more than once a day. Twenty-four percent of the experimental subjects and 22 percent of the control subjects never dined out. Twenty-two percent of the experimental subjects and 26 percent of the control subjects dined out at least once a week.

Of the experimental group, 46.9 percent felt on top of the world at least one time during the past week, while 74 percent of the control subjects had

such feelings once a week. Of the experimental group, 42.9 percent as compared to 22 percent of the control group never felt on top of the world.

Four percent of the control group were lonely as compared to 10 percent of the experimental group. Ten percent of the experimental group as compared to none of the control group often felt remote from other people.

Eighty-six percent of the experimental group and 80 percent of the control subjects got angry at something that would not normally bother them within the past week. Fourteen percent of the experimental group as compared to 20 percent of the control group never had unusual angry feelings.

Forty-two percent of both groups felt that once during the past week they just could not get going. Fourteen percent of the experimental group as compared to 10 percent of the control group could never get going during the past week.

Ten percent of the experimental group and 16 percent of the control group never within the past week participated in something that was particularly interesting or exciting. Forty-six percent of the experimental group as compared to 42 percent of the control group participated in things that were interesting and exciting several times during the past week.

The overall percentage of depression of the experimental group was 78 percent as compared to 90 percent of the control group.

There was a difference of 14 percent between the experimental group and the control group in the amount of pleasure one got out of accomplishing something. Eighteen percent of the experimental group as compared to 4 percent of the control group never felt pleasure about an accomplishment.

Twelve or 24 percent of the experimental group and 14 or 28 percent of the control group never within the past week felt bored. Seventy-two percent of the control group as compared to 76 percent of the experimental group felt bored at least once during the past week.

There was a significant difference between the number of times each group felt proud because they had received a compliment on something they had done. Fifty percent of the control group as compared to 22 percent of the experimental group had received compliments once. Fifty-four percent of the experimental group and 34 percent of the control group had received compliments several times or more during the past week. Twelve, or 24 percent, of the experimental group and eight, or 16 percent, of the control group did not receive compliments at all during the past week.

Thirty-two percent of the experimental group and 46 percent of the control group had been restless at least once during the past week.

Ten, or 20 percent, of the experimental group and 8, or 16 percent, of the control group never within the past week felt an inability to get something done. Fourteen percent of the experimental group as compared to 6 percent of the control group often felt an inability to get something done.

Eighty-eight percent of the experimental group and 74 percent of the control group felt vaguely uneasy about something without knowing why at least once in the week preceding the questioning. Forty-six percent of the control group, compared to 28 percent of the experimental group, said that they had such feelings several times. Despite the wide difference in percentage response, the data were not significant at the .05 level.

Sixty-six percent of the experimental group and 88 percent of the control group thought of money at least sometime. Additional supportive data revealed that the mean income of the control group was \$5,033 more per year.

Forty-eight percent of the experimental group and sixteen percent of the control group never thought about growing old. Twenty-six percent of the experimental

group and 40 percent of the control group thought about growing old often. There was a significant difference in this data at the .01 level.

Eighty percent of the experimental group thought about work as opposed to 88 percent of the control group.

Both groups thought about marriage a great deal. Fifty-six percent of the control group and 46 percent of the experimental group thought about marriage sometimes. A most likely explanation for the frequency of thoughts about marriage is that 72 percent of the experimental subjects and 88 percent of the control subjects were single. Thirteen, or 26 percent, of the experimental group as compared to 16, or 32 percent, of the control group thought about marriage often.

Forty-six percent of both groups sometimes thought of getting ahead. Eighty-four percent of the control group and 76 percent of the experimental group thought of getting ahead at least sometimes.

Data indicate that both groups feel the same about bringing up children. Seventy percent of the experimental group and 72 percent of the control group thought about bringing up children in the week preceding the questioning.

Of the experimental group, 32.7 percent that responded to the question about the frequency of thinking

of death as compared to 24 percent of the control group never thought of death during the week before the questionnaire was administered. Of the experimental group, 38.8 percent and 34 percent of the control group often thought about death.

The control group was more enemy conscious on a percentage basis than was the experimental group. Sixty-six percent of the experimental group as compared to 88 percent of the control group were enemy conscious at least sometime during the week preceding the questionnaire.

Forty-two percent of both groups sometimes thought about their health. The control group did not think about their health as much as the experimental group on a percentage basis, but there was not significant difference between the two groups.

There was a significant difference between the degree of happiness for the two groups. Thirty-eight percent of the experimental group as compared to 14 percent of the control group were very happy during the week before the questionnaire was administered. Thirty-two percent of the experimental group and 78 percent of the control group were pretty happy. Thirty percent of the experimental group and 8 percent of the control group were not too happy.

Thirty-eight percent of the experimental group, compared to 44 percent of the control group, were

happier four or five years ago. Forty percent of the experimental group and 28 percent of the control group were not quite as happy four or five years ago.

Thirty-four percent or approximately one-third of both groups did not have as many friends as they wanted. Thirty-eight percent of the experimental group compared to 54 percent of the control group felt this was true.

During the week before the questionnaire was administered, 44 percent of the experimental group and 36 percent of the control group never lost their tempers.

On the average, one-third of both groups had no trouble getting to sleep at night.

Sixteen percent of the experimental group and 12 percent of the control group did not get along with people easily during the week before the administration of the questionnaire. Thirty-eight percent of the experimental group and 26 percent of the control group got along with people during that same time.

Families asked more of the control group than of the experimental group than they were able to give. Twenty-two percent of the control group as compared to 30 percent of the experimental group felt that their families did not ask more of them than they were able to give.

Thirty-four percent of the experimental group as compared to 22 percent of the control group wanted their children to be just like them. Twenty percent of the experimental group as compared to 18 percent of the control group did not want their children to be like them.

Fifty-two percent of the control group as compared to 34 percent of the experimental group felt that it was somewhat true for them to keep their weight down. Thirty-six percent of the experimental group and 26 percent of the control group felt that there was no problem for them in keeping their weight down. Thirty percent of the experimental group and 22 percent of the control group felt that there was a definite problem in keeping their weight down.

Thirty percent of the experimental group and 18 percent of the control group did not want to move away from their community. Twenty-eight percent of the experimental group and 22 percent of the control group would like to move away from their community.

Forty-two percent of the experimental group and 30 percent of the control group did not participate actively in community affairs. Sixteen percent of the experimental group and 18 percent of the control group did participate in community affairs.

Of the participants who had children, 31.3

percent of the experimental group felt they were not good parents also, as compared to 18.8 percent of the control group that felt that they were not good parents.

Thirty-six percent of the experimental group and 12 percent of the control group was ill during the week prior to completing the questionnaire. There was a significant difference at the .01 level.

Of the subjects who responded to the question of whether their being ill caused any cut down on their usual activities, 54.5 percent of the experimental group and 50 percent of the control group felt that it had no effect on their usual activities.

Sixty-six percent of the experimental group was employed as compared to 76 percent of the control group. Twelve percent of the experimental group and 10 percent of the control group was unemployed or had been laid off.

Of the subjects that responded, 56.8 percent of the experimental group as opposed to 30 percent of the control group were satisfied with their wage level. Of the experimental group 2.7 percent was dissatisfied.

Of the experimental group, 59.5 percent and 27.5 percent of the control group were very satisfied with the kind of work they were doing. Only 2.7 percent of the experimental group and 10 percent of the control group were somewhat dissatisfied. Only 74 percent

of the experimental group and 80 percent of the control group responded to this question.

Of the subjects who responded as to how they felt about their job as a whole, 56.8 percent of the experimental group and 27.5 percent of the control group were very satisfied with their jobs. Of the experimental group 29.7 percent and 55 percent of the control group were somewhat satisfied. Only 13.5 percent of the experimental group and 17.5 percent of the control group were somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied.

Thirty-six of the experimental subjects and 40 of the control group responded to whether they felt that their present job really used all their skills or talents. Of that number 24 members of the experimental group and 19 members of the control group felt that all of their skills and/or their talents were really being used on their present job.

Of the subjects who responded, 92.3 percent of the experimental group and 70 percent of the control group felt that discriminatory or unfair practices had kept them from getting a job.

Of the participants who responded, 100 percent, or 13 of the experimental group and 60 percent or 6 of the control group was collecting unemployment compensation.

Ninety percent of the experimental group and 36 percent of the control group had completed high school. Ten percent of the experimental group and 46 percent of the control group had attended college but had not completed four years. None of the experimental group had graduated from college, but 18 percent of the control group were college graduates or higher.

Eighty-four percent of the experimental group and 96 percent of the control group were Protestant. Four percent of the experimental group as compared to none of the control group were not affiliated with any religion.

Six members of the experimental group and one member of the control group made less than \$1,999.00 during the past year. None of the experimental group made over \$10,999.00 during the past year while 37.5 percent of the control group made \$11,000.00 or more during the past year.

The mean income of the experimental group was \$3,100.00 while the mean income of the control group was \$8,133.00 per year.

Of those who were unemployed, the average time of unemployment was greater for the experimental group (34 weeks) than for the control group (15 weeks).

A mean score was taken of the self-acceptance of one's self of both groups. Using five as being very

acceptable of one's self and one as not being acceptable of one's self. On the whole, the experimental group had a mean score of 2.75 and the control group had a mean score of 3.21. There was a singificance at the .01 level.

Conclusions

From the data presented in the findings, the writer expresses the following conclusions:

1. Because of the financial situation of the experimental group, more persons in the control group attend movies at least once a week.

2. Since the control group attends more games or sports activities, this may reflect a financial problem of the experimental group, or it may lead one to believe that there is a greater lack of exposure on the part of the experimental group.

3. Compliments and rewards are given more frequently to the control group than to the experimental group. The control group also receives a higher degree of pleasure about accomplishments.

4. Eighty percent of both groups have angry feelings to some degree.

5. The control group had a greater degree of depression than did the experimental group. This may suggest that the experimental group has a greater

acceptance of their situation than among the control group.

6. The control subjects tend to be more restless than the experimental subjects.

7. Even though there was a \$5,033 average income difference in the two groups (experimental groups average yearly income was \$3,100; control group's average yearly income was \$8,133) and even though the control group thought about money more often than did the experimental group, it is viewed that the experimental group was not as concerned about money.

8. The control group was more concerned and thought more often about age than did the experimental group.

9. Work was on the minds of each group to a high degree.

10. The most likely explanation for the frequency of thoughts about marriage is that 72 percent of the experimental group and 88 percent of the control subjects were single.

11. One could speculate that the majority of the population in general thinks about getting ahead at least sometimes.

12. While there was no significant difference, the control group was more enemy conscious than was the experimental group.

13. The control group did not think about health as much on a percentage basis as did the experimental group. One could speculate that the experimental group has a higher degree of illness during the course of a year.

14. The data indicate that the experimental group is not as happy as the control group.

15. Both groups are somewhat sociable with other people. One may conclude that it is a strong factor in making a better adjustment in this society.

16. One would speculate that if one is labeled EMR, he would not want his children to be so labeled. However, if after leaving secondary school one could adjust to society and erase the EMR label, the statement "I want my children to be like me" would have an ordinary response. With the above in mind, one could understand why 46 percent of the experimental group felt that it was somewhat true for them and 34 percent felt that it was true for them to want their children to be just like them.

17. Each group was concerned to a degree about keeping their weight down.

18. One could speculate that because of lack of transportation, the experimental group did not participate actively in community affairs.

19. From the findings one could conclude that the experimental group were better parents than the control group.

20. Fewer subjects from the control group than from the experimental group were ill during the week prior to administering the questionnaire. Whether this indicates a lack of preventive medical care or lack of general health care knowledge or poorer overall diet for the experimental subjects is difficult to determine.

21. Six percent of the experimental group and 4 percent of the control group were self-employed. While this percentage is very small, it does indicate that both groups have some independent members. One could speculate that the percentage of subjects laid off, 24 percent of the experimental group and 20 percent of the control group, may simply reflect the current employment situation throughout the country.

22. Only 10 percent or less of either group was dissatisfied with their present wages. Perhaps because of the tight job market today, most people are content on the surface if any money is coming into the household. This may also be true of the small percentage of job dissatisfaction.

23. Of the subjects that responded, both groups felt highly discriminated against.

24. The average combined income for the past year of the experimental group was \$3,100.00. \$8,133.00 was the figure for the control group. One could speculate that these incomes would not adequately support either group.

Recommendations

It seems to this writer that the following recommendations are in order.

1. Since the average salaries of the experimental group is approximately \$3000.00 per year, some effort should be made by the school and community to make it illegal for this group to be employed on an hourly basis for less than the minimum wage.

2. An affirmative task force should be set up to investigate and validate the amount of discrimination against the hiring of the Black educable mentally retarded.

3. The Black educable mentally retarded should have special classes dealing with more productive use of leisure time activities.

4. Marriage and family living should be taught in high school classes for the Black educable mentally retarded.

5. Educable mentally retarded groups should join forces to initiate and enact changes.

6. Other parts of the country should be studied to determine whether the issue of post-high school adjustment of the Black educable mentally retarded is being dealt with successfully.

7. Methods of removing the educable mentally retarded label should be investigated to allow the trained adult to blend into his society without this stigma.

8. Future research should delve into the type of skills the schools prepare both the Blacks who are enrolled in special education high school classes and the Blacks who are enrolled in traditional high school classes.

9. A future study should be made in a large school district's administrative department in an urban setting to see what their attitudes on the post-high school adjustment of the Black persons who graduated from special education classes are and on Black persons who graduated from traditional classes.

APPENDIX

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRES

1st INSTRUMENT

Sex (circle one) Male 1 Female 2

Age (write number) _____

How many people live in this household (adults and children?)

Activities

1. How many organizations, clubs and community groups do you belong to such as Am. Vets., unions, Eastern Star, PTA, or other groups?(write number)

2. The following is a list of things people do. Please indicate how often you did each of them last week.

	Not at All	Once	Several times	Every day	More than once a day
a. Read a newspaper					
b. Attend the movies					

	Not at all	Once	Several times	Every day	More than once a day
c. Listen to or watch a news program					
d. Participate in any games or sports activities such as bowling, basketball, hunting, fishing					
e. Attend any games or sports activities					
f. Read your horoscope					
g. Take trips in an auto- mobile					
h. Read the Bible					
i. Dine in a restaurant					

3. We are interested in the way people are feeling these days. The following list describes some of the ways people feel at different times. Please indicate how often you felt each way during the last week.

	Not at all	Once	Several times	Often
a. On top of the world				
b. Lonely or remote from other people				
c. Unusual anger feelings				
d. That you just couldn't get going				
e. Particularly excited or interested in something				
f. Depressed or very unhappy				
g. Pleased about having accom- plished something				
h. Bored				
i. Proud because someone compli- mented you on something you had done				
j. Restless				

	Not at all	Once	Several times	Often
k. An inability to get something done				
l. Uneasy, undefined feelings				

4. The following list describes several things people sometimes think about. Please indicate how often each thing was on your mind last week.

	Not at all	Sometimes	Often
a. Money			
b. Growing old			
c. Work			
d. Marriage			
e. Getting ahead			
f. Bringing up children			
g. Death			
h. Personal enemies			
i. Health			

5. Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days -- would you say you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy? (circle one)

Very happy...1 Pretty happy...2 Not too happy...3

6. Compared with your life today, how were things 4 to 5 years ago--were you happier, not quite as happy, or about the same as now? (circle one)

Happier...7 Not quite as happy...8 About the same..9

7. Please indicate whether the following statements are true for you or not.

	Not True for me	Somewhat true for me	True for me
a. I have as many friends as I want.			
b. I lose my temper frequently.			
c. I have trouble getting to sleep at night.			
d. I get along with people easily.			
e. My family asks more of me than I am able to give.			
f. I want my children to be like me.			
g. I do not have any trouble keeping my weight down.			
h. I would like to move away from this community.			

	Not true for me	Somewhat true for me	True for me
i. I participate actively in community affairs.			
j. ANSWER ONLY IF YOU HAVE CHILDREN. I am not as good a parent as I would like to be.			

8. Were you sick at any time during the past week?
(circle one)

Yes...1

No...2

If you were sick, did it cause you to cut down on
your usual activities? (circle one)

Yes...6

No...7

9. Which statement best describes your employment status?
(circle one)

Employee...1

Self-employed...2

Unemployed
or laid off...3

Retired...4

Part-time
worker...5

Not working and not looking for a job...6

10. What kind of work do you usually do? (write name
of job)

11. ANSWER THIS QUESTION ONLY IF YOU ARE CURRENTLY WORKING.

- a. How satisfied are you with your present wage level? (circle one)

Very satisfied...1 Somewhat satisfied...2

Somewhat dissatisfied...3 Very dissatisfied...4

- b. How satisfied are you with the kind of work you do? (circle one)

Very satisfied...1 Somewhat satisfied...2

Somewhat dissatisfied...3 Very dissatisfied...4

- c. Taking all things together, how do you feel about your job (work) as a whole? (circle one)

Very satisfied...1 Somewhat satisfied...2

Somewhat dissatisfied...3 Very dissatisfied...4

- d. Do you feel that your present job (work) really uses all your skill or talents? (circle one)

Yes...6

No...7

12. ANSWER THIS QUESTION ONLY IF YOU ARE UNEMPLOYED AND LOOKING FOR WORK.

- a. How many weeks during the last year have you been without work because of unemployment or lay off? (write number)

_____ weeks

- b. Do you feel that any kind of discrimination or unfair practice has kept you from getting a job? (circle one)

Yes...1

No...2

- c. Are you currently collecting unemployment compensation? (circle one)

Yes...1

No...2

13. Please indicate how much education you have had.
(circle one)

8th grade or less...1 Part high school...2

High school graduate...3 Part college...4

College graduate or more....5

14. What is your religious preference? (circle one)

Protestant...1 Roman Catholic...2

Jewish...3 Other....4 None...5

15. About what do you think your total family income from all sources will be this year for yourself and your immediate family? (circle one)

Less than \$1,000...0	\$ 8,000-\$ 8,999...8
\$1,000-\$1,999.....1	\$ 9,000-\$ 9,999...9
\$2,000-\$2,999.....2	\$10,000-\$10,999...10
\$3,000-\$3,999.....3	\$11,000-\$11,999...11
\$4,000-\$4,999.....4	\$12,000-\$12,999...12
\$5,000-\$5,999.....5	\$13,000-\$13,999...13
\$6,000-\$6,999.....6	\$14,000-\$14,999...14
\$7,000-\$7,999.....7	\$15,000 and over..15

Thank you very much!

SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCALE

(The asterisked items measure self-acceptance; the others measure acceptance of others.)

This is a study of some of your attitudes. Of course, there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself.

You are to respond to each question on the answer sheet according to the following scheme:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at	Slightly	About	Mostly	True of
all true	true of	half-way	true of	myself
of myself	myself	true of	myself	
		myself		

Remember, the best answer is the one which applies to you.

- *1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems. 1 2 3 4 5
- *2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do. 1 2 3 4 5
- 3. I can become so absorbed in the work I'm doing that it doesn't bother me not to have any intimate friends. 1 2 3 4 5
- 4. I can be comfortable with all varieties of people--from the highest to the lowest. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5. I don't approve of spending time and energy in doing things for other people. I believe in looking to my family and myself more and letting others shift for themselves. 1 2 3 4 5
- *6. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere. 1 2 3 4 5
- *7. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it. 1 2 3 4 5
- *8. I don't say much as social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing. 1 2 3 4 5

- *9. I realize that I'm not living very effectively,
but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use
my energies in better ways. 1 2 3 4 5
- 10. I don't approve of doing favors for people. If
you're too agreeable they'll take advantage of you.
1 2 3 4 5
- 11. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have
toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.
1 2 3 4 5.
- 12. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied
with any job I've done--if it turns out well, I
get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me,
I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a
fair test. 1 2 3 4 5
- *13. I feel different from other people. I'd like to
have the feeling of security that comes from knowing
I'm not too different from others. 1 2 3 4 5
- *14. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what
I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed
in me. 1 2 3 4 5
- *15. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.
1 2 3 4 5
- *16. Because of other people, I haven't been able to
achieve as much as I should have. 1 2 3 4 5
- *17. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situa-
tions. 1 2 3 4 5
- *18. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be
what people expect me to be rather than anything
else. 1 2 3 4 5
- 19. I usually ignore the feelings of tohers when I'm
accomplishing some important end. 1 2 3 4 5
- *20. I seem to have a real inner strength in handling
things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it
makes me pretty sure of myself. 1 2 3 4 5
- 21. There's no sense in compromising. When people
have values I don't like, I just don't care to have
much to do with them. 1 2 3 4 5
- 22. The person you marry may not be perfect, but I
believe in trying to get him (or her) to change
along desirable lines. 1 2 3 4 5

23. I see no objection to stepping on other people's toes a little if it'll help get me what I want in life. 1 2 3 4 5
- *24. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school. 1 2 3 4 5
25. I try to get people to do what I want them to do, in one way or another. 1 2 3 4 5
26. I often tell people what they should do when they're having trouble in making a decision. 1 2 3 4 5
27. I enjoy myself most when I'm alone, away from other people. 1 2 3 4 5
- *28. I think I'm neurotic or something. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I feel neither above nor below the people I meet. 1 2 3 4 5
30. Sometimes people misunderstand me when I try to keep them from making mistakes that could have an important effect on their lives. 1 2 3 4 5
- *31. Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me. 1 2 3 4 5
32. There are very few times when I compliment people for their talents or jobs they've done. 1 2 3 4 5
33. I enjoy doing little favors for people even if I don't know them well. 1 2 3 4 5
- *34. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others. 1 2 3 4 5
- *35. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life. 1 2 3 4 5
36. I prefer to be alone rather than have close friendships with any of the people around me. 1 2 3 4 5
- *37. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me. 1 2 3 4 5
- *38. I sort of only half-believe in myself. 1 2 3 4 5
39. I seldom worry about other people. I'm really pretty self-centered. 1 2 3 4 5

- *40. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all. 1 2 3 4 5
- *41. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too, but I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve. 1 2 3 4 5
- *42. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future. 1 2 3 4 5
- 43. I believe that people should get credit for their accomplishments, but I very seldom come across work that deserves praise. 1 2 3 4 5
- 44. When someone asks for advice about some personal problem, I'm most likely to say, "It's up to you to decide," rather than tell him what he should do. 1 2 3 4 5
- *45. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be. 1 2 3 4 5
- 46. I feel that for the most part one has to fight his way through life. That means that people who stand in the way will be hurt. 1 2 3 4 5
- 47. I can't help feeling superior (or inferior) to most of the people I know. 1 2 3 4 5
- *48. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me. 1 2 3 4 5
- 49. I don't hesitate to urge people to live by the same high set of values which I have for myself. 1 2 3 4 5
- 50. I can be friendly with people who do things which I consider wrong. 1 2 3 4 5
- *51. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal. 1 2 3 4 5
- *52. When I'm in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing. 1 2 3 4 5
- *53. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems. 1 2 3 4 5

54. If people are weak and inefficient I'm inclined to take advantage of them. I believe you must be strong to achieve your goals. 1 2 3 4 5
55. I'm easily irritated by people who argue with me. 1 2 3 4 5
56. When I'm dealing with younger persons, I expect them to do what I tell them. 1 2 3 4 5
57. I don't see much point to doing things for others unless they can do you some good later on. 1 2 3 4 5
- *58. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me. 1 2 3 4 5
- *59. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them. 1 2 3 4 5
60. If someone I know is having difficulty in working things out for himself, I like to tell him what to do. 1 2 3 4 5
- *61. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people. 1 2 3 4 5
- *62. I live too much by other people's standards. 1 2 3 4 5
- *63. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty saying things well. 1 2 3 4 5
- *64. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have. 1 2 3 4 5

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