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TOWARD RETAILING AS A CAREER GOAL

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Thomas Allan Hepner, B.S., B.S., M.A.

The Ohio State University
1972

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FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field: Vocational Education

Studies in Vocational Education. Professor Neal Vivian
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Eighteen year-old students have been given the right to vote and hold public office. Young people today are questioning the values of society. Morals, religion, the protestant ethic and other value concepts held sacred by adults are under siege.

The attitudes of our young people are becoming increasingly more important as they seek change. Their increasing numbers in proportion to other age groups in our society have created a definite awareness of youth. As we seek to integrate youth into the work force, one questions whether their perceptions of their occupational roles will conflict with what is expected by society. While conflict seems inevitable, resolution of this conflict appears elusive. Will young people conform and accept the traditional occupational roles or will these same occupational roles change as young people seek to redefine work?

There are many questions emerging from different quarters regarding today's high school student and his attitudes. Retailers are concerned, for these students are future customers and in many cases future employees. Schools are attempting to find patterns in what seem to be irrational student attitudes.

---

Thus businessmen and vocational educators seem to have a common goal. That goal is to determine what occupational values, attitudes, and perceptions are held by today's high school students.

**Rationale**

Attitudes of high school students preparing for occupations may be the key to answers necessary for effective vocational program planning. Educators who seek to develop a greater understanding of our youth should first determine their attitudes. A specific delineation of these attitudes as they relate to business (and in this case specifically to retailing) could enable us to revise our curriculum in order to develop a greater interest in retailing career opportunities. With greater student interest, educators might accomplish increased student understandings of occupational competencies needed for retailing careers.

From an industry viewpoint, an awareness of the attitudes of youth would result in a greater understanding of beginning workers, for many of these young people will begin their careers in retailing. Understanding employees, particularly new employees, increases the retailer's employee retention, stability of employment and productivity.

Finally, we are living in an age when no one seems to be content with simply being given an assignment. We need to know why we are performing a given task. This is especially true with young people.
David Nadler in his recent book *The Now Employee* comments briefly on his observations of today's young workers:

... their job should be challenging and interesting.

... it should involve something significant.

... have some meaning in terms of the human and physical environment of the person.

... work must be consistent with life, ... should bear some relationship to a person's life goals.

... the feeling that the work one is doing is important to someone.2

It is necessary to investigate more closely the attitudinal changes that young workers are experiencing today.

**Statement of the Problem**

This study will examine attitudes currently held by high school seniors toward the field of retailing. It will compare attitudes that working distributive education students have toward retailing with those attitudes that similar non-working students have toward retailing.

The study will seek to compare attitudinal changes occurring between working distributive education students and similar non-working students during an eight-month period. It will also compare changes occurring within the two groups and measure these changes in the pre-test and post-test phases.

Specifically, the study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. What attitudes do high school distributive education students have about retailing as an occupational goal?
2. Do similar non-working and non-distributive education high school students at the same age and grade level have the same attitudes toward retailing?
3. Do the attitudes of working distributive education students change as a result of their participation in the distributive education program?
4. Are there significant differences between attitudinal changes and the student's sex?
5. Are there significant differences between attitudinal changes and the student's race?

Need for the Study

Vocational educators have conducted surprisingly little research in the important area of determining students' attitudes toward occupations. Vocational people suspect that career attitudes strongly influence student motivation toward work—both in short-range and long-range goals. Students appear to have inflated salary expectations, negative concepts regarding job security, distorted beliefs about discrimination against young people in distribution, and many other strong attitudes that have not yet been analyzed. In few instances have these attitudes been measured or any formal
attempt made to determine the influences the attitudes may have in forecasting the number or type of young people who might be attracted to retailing.

Bennett conducted a study in which he found that blacks are notably negative in their attitudes toward retailing careers. Yet retailers consider the hiring of blacks a top-priority objective. Beasley investigated the relationship of race, sex, intelligence, and socio-economic status to attitudes toward certain types of occupations and occupational dimensions. He, too, found a significant difference between the Negro group and the Caucasian group with respect to what factors were most important in getting jobs. "In general, it appeared from this study that factors of race, sex, intelligence, and socio-economic status have important effects on attitudes toward and perceptions of jobs."  

Attitudes among young workers in general (whether they are black or white) seem to be changing. In a major exploratory study to determine crucial impediments to young worker adjustment, thirty-one vocational educators (44.9% of the sample) felt that youths' successful adjustment to the work situation was impeded by their own unrealistic aspirations.

---

3James G. Bennett, "Disadvantaged and Non-Disadvantaged Urban High School Students' Perceptions of Work Within General Merchandise Retail Department Stores," Doctoral Thesis (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1969).

and expectations as to their ability, the salary they should receive, the position they should occupy initially and the status they should be accorded within the economic organization.

One could say that each young worker in retailing has relatively firm attitudes, perceptions, values, and beliefs that may or may not be in conflict with those found in retailing. From the available data, we can determine that these attitudes and perceptions are formed during the high school years. By the time a young worker obtains his first job, his thinking about occupational goals has taken definite shape.

There have been studies that have attempted to categorize these occupational perceptions and attitudes held by young people. There is a surprising similarity in the resulting taxonomies.

In the study "High School Senior Girls and the World of Work: Occupational Knowledge, Attitudes, and Plans," the authors performed a factor analysis involving seventy-five attitude items. Five factors were found:

- Economic Mobility—reflecting a positive attitude toward work after marriage;
- Role Security—positive feelings toward the traditional view of women's role and her relationships to family, men, and work;
- Intrinsic Reward—favorably oriented to working with others;

---

Challenge—related to opportunities, running one's own life;

Extrinsic Reward—salary, promotion, benefits.  \(^6\)

Ronan found in a 1970 study the following dimensions of job satisfaction: (a) the content of work, actual tasks performed, and control of work; (b) direct supervision; (c) the organization and its management; (d) opportunities for advancement; (e) pay and like financial benefits; (f) co-workers; and (g) working conditions. Ronan also warned against generalizing and indicated that these factors "tend to be specific to a situation."  \(^7\)

Because of the many variables involved, few studies can be compared. Each seems to be searching for different answers, though many of the components are similar.

One study, "Youth Unemployment: Frictions in the Threshold of the Work Career—An Exploratory Probe," did develop independent scales to reassure work attitudes and significantly indicated in its findings that "work attitudes were associated with the work experience of these youth."  \(^8\) There are definite implications in this study for distributive education.

---


\(^8\) Herbert G. Heneman, Jr., and Rene V. Davis, Youth Unemployment: Frictions on the Threshold of the Work Career—An Exploratory Probe (Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minnesota University, 1968).
Attitudes, then, are becoming increasingly more important in the initial success of the young worker in his first job. It could be very significant to vocational educators if a definite positive relationship were to be shown between a student's high school work experience and a successful first job upon graduation. The objectives are as follows:

1. To examine distributive education senior students' attitudes toward the field of retailing as a selected occupational goal;

2. To compare attitudes of non-working high school senior students and distributive education senior students toward the field of retailing;

3. To identify whether distributive education senior students' attitudes toward retailing as a selected occupational goal change as a result of their enrollment in the cooperative distributive education program;

4. To examine measurable changes occurring in non-working senior students' attitudes toward retailing during the same time period in which their distributive education colleagues have been working;

5. To examine the relationship that exists between the sex of both distributive education senior students and non-working high school senior students and their respective attitudinal scores;
6. To examine the relationship that exists between the races of both distributive education senior students and non-working high school senior students and their respective attitudinal scores.

**Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses relate to significant differences or significant changes in attitudes toward retailing as an occupational career goal. The "attitudes" stated in each hypothesis are those held by the respondents toward the retailing field.

1. There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents in the selected sample as indicated in the pre-test;

2. There will be no significant change in the attitudes of the distributive education students in the selected sample measured from the pre-test to the post-test;

3. There will be no significant change in the attitudes of the non-working students in the selected sample measured from the pre-test to the post-test.

4. There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of the distributive education students and the non-working students in the selected sample as measured on the post-test;

5. There will be no significant difference in attitudinal scores of male and female students in either the control group (non-working high school seniors) or the experimental group (distributive education working students);
6. There will be no significant difference in attitudinal values of Caucasian and Negro students in either the control group (non-working high school seniors) or the experimental group (distributive education working students).

Definitions

The following definitions are given to help the reader in his interpretation of the study. These are believed to be key words necessary to understanding the findings. In many of these definitions, the meaning is delineated to apply to a specific context and it is essential for understanding that the reader think in terms of the definitions presented here.

Attitude

"the degree of positive or negative effect associated with some psychological object," 9

"... based upon evaluative concepts regarding characteristics of the referent object and give rise to motivated behavior."

"... construed as varying in quality and intensity (or strength) on a continuum from positive through neutral to negative." 10

---


Distributive Education

Distributive education includes various combinations of subject matter and learning experiences related to the performance of activities that direct the flow of goods and services, including their appropriate utilization, from the producer to the consumer or user. . . designed to prepare individuals to enter, or progress or improve competencies in distributive occupations. Emphasis is on the development of attitudes, skills, and understanding related to marketing, merchandising and management.11

Distributive Education Cooperative Work Program

The extension of classroom instruction into regularly scheduled paid employment in distributive occupations appropriate to each pupil’s vocational objective. Usually the school refers pupils to training stations for an average of 15 hours per week throughout the year, arranges for on-the-job training and supervision, and grants credit for successful application of classroom instruction in the training situation.12

Joint Vocational High School

A high school serving vocational students only. One designated to serve neighboring students from feeder high schools who wish to enroll in vocational education courses when these courses are not offered at the home school. These schools are generally in a central geographic location in relationship to the schools they serve and are funded in a variety of ways by the feeder school districts.

Non-Working Students

The term is used in this study to indicate senior, academic, non-vocational students who are not working in a retailing occupation.


12Ibid., p. 172.
These senior students were selected from the same schools as were the distributive education senior students. They represent a random mix of sexes, races, and content area classes.

**Retailing**

Retailing is an essential activity in any society that has developed beyond the most primitive stage. Basically the activity, or group of activities, termed retailing consists of selling merchandise to personal or household users. In the majority of instances these tasks of retailing are performed by middlemen engaged primarily in the sale of goods to ultimate consumers.\(^{13}\)

Generally these middlemen operate retail stores, but they may sell direct to consumers via door-to-door, mail order or vending machines.

**Rural High School**

Defined for this study as a high school located in an agrarian setting. Typically found in small towns, villages, or townships, a rural high school as used here is a high school geographically isolated from eight Ohio metropolitan centers.

**Suburban High School**

Defined for this study as a high school in an area adjacent to one of the eight major Ohio cities. This high school is controlled by a board of education governing that specific suburban area. In many instances it is the only high school in the school district.

Urban High School

Defined for this study as being those high schools located within the corporate limits of one of the eight major Ohio cities; a school controlled by a large metropolitan board of education.

Working Students

Used in this study to refer to distributive education senior students who work part-time in retailing occupations while attending high school. (See Distributive Education Cooperative Program.)
A General Appraisal of Attitudes

Since this study has as its primary objective the nature of attitudes and attitudinal change, an examination of attitudes and specifically, occupational attitudes is in order.

Much has been written about attitudes, how they are formed, what part they play in our thought processes and how reliable they are in predicting human behavior.

Behavioral scientists have recognized the value of attitudes and their importance in one's mental make-up. In an attempt to delineate the available information one must first look at the terminology. Attitudes, perceptions, and values are closely related in function and definition. Some authors use the terms interchangeably. However, this is not quite correct.

A perception is most often thought to be an awareness or consciousness of an idea, concept, or tangible object. In terms of complexity of thought processes, a perception is not as powerful or complex as would be an attitude or value.

Attitudes are more intense. They are apt to surface in the form of human behavior. They vary in quality and intensity, and behavioral scientists have devised methods of measuring attitudes and attitudinal change.
Shaw and Wright have indicated:

Attitudes are based upon evaluated concepts regarding characteristics of the referent object and give rise to motivated behavior. . . . Attitudes are construed as varying in quality and intensity (or strength) on a continuum from positive through neutral to negative.¹

Deverell has contrasted attitudes with opinion and indicates this relationship:

Opinions do not lead to attitudes, rather it is opinions which are symptoms, revealing the nature of attitudes which exist in our environment. . . . Attitudes are learned in our environment. Some are taught. Some stem from self-interest, many from beliefs and codes of the society in which we live.²

Thus, one visualizes a relationship between attitudes, perceptions, opinions, and values. Though each is related, they all have independent function.

Values, then, are the final synthesis of the process. One seems to confirm his perceptions, attitudes, and opinions through the formation of values. Values are the most difficult to change, for they seem to represent a culmination of this human process.

These terms help us to understand some very basic information pertinent to individual and large group thinking. It is important to keep in mind two major points. First, attitudes, values, opinions, and perceptions differ in complexity and degree. Finally, each is capable of change, but the more complex the thought process was that established the attitude, perception, opinion, or value, the more difficult it will be to change and the longer it will take to change.

¹Shaw and Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes, p. 6.
Some scientists have just recently recognized the importance of measuring attitudes. Most of the research and writing that has occurred has been initiated in the past seventy years.

Several studies have been done with workers. Social scientists are continuing to more clearly define and explore the role of work in our lives. Robert Hecht has indicated the importance of attitudinal testing of workers in a recent article in which he stated, "Attitudes enable the businessman to predict and/or measure performance especially in dealing with people."\(^3\)

Hecht further stated that measuring attitudes should be diagnostic as well as descriptive. One must not only identify attitudes but seek to define components of attitudes. Only through this comprehensive approach can we determine complete answers.

Hecht identified areas of concern in which attitudinal measures might contribute to the understanding of today's workers:

1. employer, employee relationships; attitudes toward immediate superiors
2. attitudes employees have for compensation plans and other employee benefits
3. attitudes toward working conditions
4. attitudes toward the company image\(^4\)

Personnel testing in business frequently explores the attitudinal preferences of present employees and prospective employees. In


\(^4\)Ibid.
addition to factors evaluated for employment such as experience, physical fitness and quality of performance expected, many employers will test for personality traits, job interests, ambitions, and attitudes.\(^5\)

Burtt, on a similar theme, has found that "interests are to some extent diagnostic of what that person will ultimately do in that occupation."\(^6\)

Several studies of business executives have been done to determine common personal traits in attitudes and personality characteristics. The similarity of results in such studies indicates that one might predict success or failure for the executive who possesses (or does not possess) certain attitudes and personality characteristics.

One such study using the Thematic Apperception Test found the following characteristics common to over one hundred business executives in distributive industries:

1. high drive and achievement desire
2. strong mobility drive
3. a view of authority as controlling but helpful
4. strong ability to keep order
5. strong self structured and several others\(^7\)

\(^{5}\)C. S. Deverell, Personnel Management, p. 46.


The rationale behind such studies is that by developing a profile of successful men in specific occupations, we might be better able to predict their future roles.

From this brief look at attitudinal studies done with workers, a pattern seems to emerge. One seeks to identify a specific population based on one or more demographic variables and then measures existing attitudes hoping to generalize to the entire population.

The more difficult approach to the same problem is to investigate a population whose attitudes are being formed and at best are in a state of flux. Such a population would be adolescents as they contemplate career goals.

The Development of Occupational Attitudes

Adolescence and Career Development

The development of adolescent attitudes has been a major research area for social scientists. Several studies have been done involving adolescent decision-making and the development of attitudes and future goals.

A specific area of great concern to social scientists has been the occupational choice process that adolescents go through. This choice process has been critical because in our society a student arrives at an occupational choice decision as he graduates from high school or college. In effect, he terminates the adolescent phase by reaching his occupational choice decision. The relationship between the end of the student's adolescent period and his first job is obvious.
Ell Ginsberg has described the adolescent process and the relationship to occupational choice in what is now a standard work in the field. (See Table I.)

One learns from Ginsberg that the occupational choice process is a complex crystallization of attitudes and feelings as the individual grows older chronologically and mentally.

Many variables act on the adolescent as he experiences this physical and mental process. In the early stage of development there is a dependence on the parents. Adolescents have the same opinions and attitudes as their parents. If an occupational future is thought of, it is the same as the father's.

Adolescents quickly form opinions, and soon feel an urge to test their capacities. They develop a greater awareness of reality and start to develop an appreciation of education. There is, for the first time, an awareness of the time perspective.

In late adolescence, values are formed from attitudes. Interests are now less important in the adolescent's life and the complexity of thinking is greater. Adolescents realize that they must fit into a complicated world. Reflective attitudes develop. Monetary returns are considered. Values to be derived from work are contemplated.

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## TABLE I

**OCCUPATIONAL DECISION-MAKING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6-11</td>
<td>Latency</td>
<td>Fantasy</td>
<td>Preadolescent makes his choice on the basis of likes and interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-13</td>
<td>Pre-adolescent</td>
<td>Fantasy (may carry over)</td>
<td>Greater awareness, necessity to become more realistic, becomes aware of external factors, differences in occupations, preparation training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-16</td>
<td>Early Adolescence</td>
<td>Tentative Choice</td>
<td>Value stage—he attempts to find his place in society—synthesis, what he would like to do, what he can do—the problems of reality, economics, race, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-18</td>
<td>Late Adolescence</td>
<td>Realistic Choice</td>
<td>Transition, a forced decision brought on by school or work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, considerations of college and/or a lifetime occupation are considered. Occupational choice is now thought of in the broad framework of a life plan. The young adult has to order his values. They may change in the process. He may be wary of premature commitments. He wants greater responsibility, but is concerned with conditions of work, more educational preparation and money, among other factors.

In this final stage, just prior to graduation, Ginsberg sees three major decisions that the adolescent must make:

1. exploration—need to acquire the experience to make his occupational choice
2. crystallization—assesses all factors and commits himself
3. specification—specific career objectives are evaluated and a field of specialization is considered

J. E. Horrocks, another noted psychologist, has added additional information to findings very similar to Ginsberg's. Horrocks warns of the idealistic adolescent who needs guidance and help in this period of disillusionment. He does not opt for sheltering the adolescent but feels that adults must be more understanding in helping the adolescent make the transition from fantasy to realism. At the same time, it is hoped that the adolescent will not have to compromise his high standards too much, eventually working out an acceptable relationship between his values and the realities of daily living.10

Horrocks sees parents, followed closely by teachers, as being major influences on the adolescent's life. He also found that adolescents have a strong tendency to generalize on the basis of one case and thus may form attitudes and shape values hurriedly and in an irrational manner.

Horrocks identifies specific variables affecting adolescent occupational choice:

1. the age of the student—the older are more realistic
2. sex—females tend to be more mature
3. parents and family—there are some correlations with father's occupation
4. friends and acquaintances
5. social prestige

A study done in Georgia specifically pointed to the dilemma facing the young person in this difficult period of transition. The study sought to determine relationships between problems in occupational choice and demographic variables. It was found that boys were more concerned about the future than were girls. The younger students had a greater need for counseling, particularly at the sophomore level, and finally, occupational choice problems were best solved at the local level within the local school system.12

11 Ibid.

Youth and Vocational Choice

One senses the dilemma that faces the young worker when one observes the occupational world he is moving into. Warters explains, ", . . . except in time of war, the employment of youth is generally not needed or wanted." She continues and points to state and federal labor laws that appear to discourage the young worker and the apparent discrimination that exists between age groups.

This discrimination undoubtedly has its influence on youthful attitudes toward work. Consider:

1. The employer places a premium on experience, yet obviously the young worker in his first job has no experience.

2. Without experience, the young worker faces an unskilled lower-ranking job.

3. The young worker is evaluated against his peers who have tenure and experience. He is not measured against himself but industry standards developed from adult performances.

Other researchers contribute additional contradictions:

1. The young worker must accept responsibility yet his job doesn't require it (see #2 above).

2. He must work hard--yet he notes this is not necessary.

3. He must get along with others--yet he must be aggressive.

4. He must learn to value money--yet no one gets ahead by saving.

5. He must learn to hold a job--yet you get ahead by moving.14


Similar contradictions appear in a study which summarizes factors of vocational choice held by youth and adults. (See Table 2.)

**TABLE 2**

**CRITERIA FOR A GOOD JOB**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adult</th>
<th>Youth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical Nature of the Job</td>
<td>1. Working Conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Amount of Supervision</td>
<td>2. Opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Wages</td>
<td>3. Income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fair Treatment</td>
<td>4. Fair Treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Human Relations</td>
<td>5. Tenure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Union</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Physical Conditions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


To close this apparent gap between youthful expectation and reality, sociologists and educators offer the following guidelines:

The change from school to work often results in cultural shock to the neophyte. This could be mitigated by suitable pre-employment socialization in which responsibility as well as mechanical skills would be recognized.15

Most authors feel that the student himself must be more involved in the occupational choice process. They indicate that often negative attitudes evolve from students because the students resent the close control that adults seem to have over the occupational choice process.

Edward Gross outlines his comprehensive plan to achieve a balance in this adult-youth decision. Gross sees preparation for work as an educational process involving:

1. Preparation for life in an organization—involving authority, security quests, impersonality, routine, conflict, mobility, and demotion.

2. Preparation for a set of role relationships.

3. Preparation for a level of consumption involving a certain life style.

4. Preparation for an occupational career involving changes in the nature of jobs and different types of jobs depending on the position in the life cycle.\textsuperscript{16}

The adolescent thus approaches a major decision point in his life. He phases out of adolescence and either continues his schooling or starts his first full-time job. Those who enter the work force have hopefully made at least a tentative decision for a lifetime occupational choice.

The young worker runs head-on into the adult world where attitudes, opinions, and values differ from his own. It is a difficult period for him.

Composition of Occupational Attitudes

Self Actualization

Several social scientists have explored what is rapidly becoming a major theory in vocational development. Self actualization has been defined by Donald E. Super:

In expressing a vocational preference a person puts into occupational terminology his idea of the kind of person he is; that in entering an occupation, he seeks to implement a concept of himself; that in getting established in an occupation he achieves self actualization.17

Super explains that the role of the beginning worker may be influenced greatly by his identification with an adult worker. The young worker sees the older experienced worker as a model and may seek to emulate him. This experience may continue as the young worker translates the experienced worker’s values into his own self concepts. This seems to be a pattern in reaching self actualization.

Perhaps, due to the age we live in, the young worker is especially conscious of self. He is particularly receptive to the self-actualization theory.

Another social scientist in discussing self-actualization has stated, "occupational information . . . is reacted to in terms of these individual perceptions and meanings, in terms of how it relates to the individual's concept of himself."18

One looks with interest on the theory of self-actualization. Most authors who have written about occupational choice theory and factors influencing present workers' attitudes and values explore the relationship existing between man and his work. Invariably, the point is made that "job satisfaction is positively associated with the degree of congruence between job conditions and personal values." The more important or more intense these values are, the greater is the effect on the job satisfaction.

The image that the worker has of himself can very well be an important key to his attitudes toward his job which in turn determine the degree of job satisfaction that he will have.

Status

Status is certainly one of the major factors in youth attitudes toward occupations. It has to do not only with remuneration and the material things that result from remuneration but with prestige. Status may be related to whether the job is a professional, skilled, or semi-skilled job. It may have to do with the working conditions or something as remote as the geographic location of the job. But, most of all, status is what other people think of the job.

George S. Counts did the original research in occupational social status in 1925. His study formed the base for several replications since that time.

What is truly remarkable about these studies is that the results have changed very little over the years. "The scores in a 1947 occupational prestige study and a replication of the same study in 1963 resulted in a product moment correlation figure of .99."20

This prestige or status is measured by:

1. The way in which an occupation is articulated into the division of labor
2. The power and influence implied in the activities of the occupation
3. The characteristics of the members of the occupational grouping
4. The amount of resources society puts at the disposal of the members.

Some notable findings of these studies include:

1. A "clerk in a store" ranked 70th (N.90)
2. A "manager of a small store in a city" ranked 55th (N.90)
3. Trade occupations seemed to show the greatest gains
4. Grocer, farmer, and mail carrier showed the greatest losses
5. Males and females rank the occupations in the same order

It is interesting to note also that the occupations listed in rank order apparently had little to do with economic reward. Supreme Court Justice has consistently ranked first, with corporate president ranking twelfth (N.90) and college professor ranking fifth (N.90).21

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21 Ibid.
Nevertheless, occupational status is a factor in the development of students' attitudes.

Youth vs. Adults

Unfortunately, little has been done to compare directly attitudes of young workers with those of their adult colleagues. Aside from criteria listings mentioned earlier there is a noticeable lack of information in this area.

This writer recently spoke with an executive of one of our nation's largest retailers in an effort to determine whether attitudinal research was being conducted with young people in this obvious era of social change. It was quite disappointing to be told that this apparently was not an area of concern. He related that "any good personnel man after a brief interview can judge whether a prospective employee has the right attitudes to develop into a productive worker."22

However, the National Retail Merchants Association is concerned as are most large retailers, in a thoughtful publication "Training and Motivating Retail Sales People", Seymour Helfant quotes Jack Straus, Chairman of the executive committee of R. H. Macey and Company:

Mr. Straus blames poor attitudes and apathy on a general loss of respect for service occupations, a diminishing sense of individual responsibility, and the knowledge that jobs are so plentiful one can always get another.23


In the same publication Helfant lists a summary of retail workers' motivations (but does not distinguish between young people and experienced workers). These are:

1. Money Rewards
2. Promotion
3. Praise
4. Job Content—Respect for its purpose

Perceptions of eleventh grade students were surveyed in a 1970 study by Matthew Pasquale, Jr. Pasquale surveyed 4,171 eleventh grade students geographically distributed over the United States. His purpose was to determine what occupational characteristics the sample students placed in high priority when looking for a job.

Pasquale developed a 17-item list of characteristics thought to be important in job hunting. The sample was carefully stratified to reflect: geographic distribution, size of student population, ethnic, racial, and social backgrounds. Schools selected were categorized to include: urban, suburban, and rural settings.

Possible correlations between demographic groups were studied closely. The 17 items were listed in rank order of importance and comparisons made between demographic groups. Pasquale found: "there was majority agreement within and among groups as to the desirable occupational characteristics that are thought to be important in future employment." The significance of this study lies in the

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24 Ibid., p. 32.
detailed analysis of the varied demographic strata and the comparisons of rankings made by each group.25

It is disappointing that more comparisons between youth attitudes and adult attitudes have not been made. This area will be covered further in a final section on changing concepts of work and the youthful attitudes that are creating change.

Women

The number of females in the work force is growing. In a current publication it was reported that "The proportion of the labor force composed of females in the period 1947-67 went from 27.4% to 35.2%. During the same period it decreased from 86.8% to 81.5% for males."26

It is further estimated that women will make up about 40 percent of the labor force by 1980. Women workers as a group have some definite characteristics. They work more part-time jobs than do men. Women work mostly for economic reasons in what becomes a second interest for them. Occupations in which women are concentrated usually are dominated by women.

There is a definite segregation and bias in job assignments given to women working in retailing. Saleswomen serve female


customers and salesmen serve male customers. High ticket items carrying lucrative commissions are sold by men. If the merchandise has a mixed appeal to both men and women, the large retail store will generally appoint salespeople of the sex that seems to be in the majority. In some instances this is changing. There has been some change in the men's clothing department. Female salespeople now commonly sell men's clothing. It has been found that many women shop for their husbands or boy friends.27

Retailers have been eager to hire the mature middle-aged housewife. They claim that housewives have a base of merchandise knowledge from personal experience that younger people lack. Retailers also claim their attitudes toward working are more positive since they are unconcerned about promotion and career opportunities. Women in retailing seem to work because they want to work and are motivated primarily by money.28

However, the same reasons that make a middle-aged woman attractive to retailers also make her unattractive in long-range planning. Part-time women do not provide future leadership for retailers. They often are detached and have little loyalty to their employer.

A few attitudinal studies have been done involving high school girls and their outlook for occupational planning. A pattern has developed in studies of this nature. Young school-age women seem to


28Helfant, Training and Motivating Retail Sales People, p. 5.
be more career conscious in the lower grades. As a young woman approaches her last year of high school she thinks less about working and more about marriage.

In a 1961 study of young women, it was reported that sixty-one per cent of the high school females indicated that they would continue work after marriage. Of this same group fifty per cent indicated they would work after their children were grown. It appears that these young women were preparing to work after graduation but probably not until after they had married and raised their children.29

In a more current study high school senior girls were given an attitude scale in an attempt to determine correlations among demographic variables and their knowledge of the world of work. Items were made up from the following categories:

1. financial reward
2. suitability for women
3. advancement and recognition
4. social service
5. economic necessity
6. fulfillment
7. creativity and challenge
8. working conditions
9. inter-personal relationships

Notable findings in this study include:

1. Many of the girls seemed fairly well informed about the job requirement but unaware of the biases existing against women in the work force.

2. Girls from the metropolitan schools know more about the world of work but had fewer plans for full-time work than did girls from non-metropolitan communities.

3. Social status correlated highly with plans for further education.

4. Girls who attended vocational schools scored differently than did girls attending comprehensive high schools.

5. "Generally, girls were not well informed about the probable nature and extent of their vocational roles and their attitudes and plans reflected this lack of information."^{30}

There is much to be done in determining attitudinal variations between sexes. This is an area that is becoming more important as we recognize the new roles of today's women.

The Black American

The attitudes of all Americans seem to be in a state of change. As one explores patterns in attitudinal development among youth, working adults and women, it is impossible not to investigate the black American. Yet, almost no significant research has been done to explore the attitudes of the black American toward work and more specifically retailing.

Much has been done to describe the socio-economic plight of the American black. Several studies have dealt with the quality of education afforded blacks. The black culture, patterns of employment and progress in hiring blacks, have been examined.

James Bennett explored the perceptions of disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged youth toward retailing. In what is still the only study in the specific area, Bennett found:

1. Disadvantaged blacks when compared with white students were noticeably less realistic in their perceptions of retail occupations
2. Blacks were less aware of criteria for becoming employed and advancing in the job
3. Blacks indicated that they would rather work than be on welfare
4. Blacks perceived stealing from an employer as a less serious crime than did white students
5. Black students felt that factory work is more stable than department store work
6. They believed that opportunities for blacks were not as great as opportunities for whites in retailing
7. Blacks believed that blacks were not promoted as often as were whites in retailing.

Bennett concluded by stating that black Americans through their negative perceptions contributed to the low enrollments of blacks in high school distributive education. They further would not be enthusiastic about working full-time in retail occupations.

One can't help observing that Bennett has made no attempt to judge the accuracy of the black perceptions. This, of course, is not the job of the researcher. However, if the black perceptions are accurate, why should they change them? Perhaps it is the responsibility of retailing to change the obvious inequities that exist.

### Vocational Students

Many studies have been done exploring the attitudes of vocational students as they complete their high school programs and prepare to embark on a career. The pattern of adolescent choice and the sequence of events leading to this choice have been covered. It has been found that such factors as sex, economic status, self actualization, and prestige are all major factors developing student attitudes and crystallizing them to form the bases for the final occupational decision.

What has not been explored is the role of vocational education in helping the student to synthesize his career information. Vocational educators have claimed credit for effectiveness in this decision-making role by pointing to countless follow-up studies.

Follow-up studies indicate whether or not the student has remained in the occupation for which he was trained. The results of such studies vary. Generally, the longer the period of time after the student has graduated, the more favorable are the results. This is questionable. Many such studies do not allow for marriage and the students return to the occupation in later years. These studies
sometimes do not consider our students who enter the military and continue their civilian careers upon discharge.

However, at least one study has indicated the importance of vocational education in shaping attitudes while the students were in school enrolled in a vocational education program.

Heneman and Davis explored the attitudes of students toward work and thirty-three biographical factors. The study was a three-part study. The first phase (of concern to this study) was the development of a Youth Opinion Questionnaire. This instrument explored work attitudes and expectations. "The study demonstrated that reliable and relatively independent scales to measure work attitudes of threshold workers could be developed and that the measured work attitudes were associated with the work experience of the youth."^32

This study is significant. If there is a strong relationship between the development of attitudes toward work and the students' work experience, then cooperative vocational programs could be forming favorable attitudes for the students at the same time they are attending school.

Benton Miles, in a 1971 doctoral study, measured the perceptions of distributive education students and training sponsors. Miles developed a Likert attitude scale and measured the attitudes of training sponsors and distributive education students toward distributive education as a training program.

Miles concluded that there were no significant differences in the mean scores of students classified as to: type of community in which the program was located, student sex, utilization of training plans, socio-economic levels, and employment status.

There were no correlations in training sponsors' scores when their scores were classified according to: the type of community in which the training station was located, the type of training station, use of the training plan, and the length of time the employer had served as a training sponsor.

Miles' most significant finding in his study of attitudes was that the utilization of a training plan had a significant relationship on the training sponsor's perception of distributive education as a training program.33

In short, a vocational education cooperation program could be the vehicle to help the student in his transition from school to work.

The Youth Value Revolution

Any discussion of youth values today would not be complete without some exploration of the "revolution." Alvin Toffler has covered it in his book Future Shock. Charles Reich has given us The Greening of America. James Michener has documented the problems at Kent State in his book of the same name.

33Benton Miles, "The Measurement of the Perceptions of Distributive Education as a Training Program Held by Distributive Education Students and Training Sponsors" (unpublished Doctoral study, Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1971).
The youth revolution has to do with the changing of values, perceptions, and attitudes. Society as we know it now may be quite different in the next decade. Authors are alerting us to this force:

... one reason that such concern with commitment and the search for meaning is so highlighted in our generation, especially among young people is the rapid changing of society, which lends a feeling of impermanence and irrelevance to things traditional.34

Whereas earlier generations slipped through a stage of Idealism into an acceptance of the existing order, more and more of today's youth are not accepting their society. In simplest terms, it would seem that traditional values are not very palatable to vast members of today's youth.35

Without further exploring the many diverse and complex changes taking place in our society today, one is directed to observe this general change and its effect on the work role as we have known it.

Changing Concepts of Work

Fortune magazine devoted an entire issue to the changing attitudes and values of youth. Their comments indicate the complexity and scope of the movement:

Traditionally, motivational interpretations of job satisfaction have focused on environmental factors, such as pay, promotion, security, the content of the job, job conditions, opportunity for social interaction, or in general, what is called "work roles." But we are looking at values in a larger sense when we ask if the values in society which


support job satisfaction are changing. The approach takes motivation out of the context of the individual and the work situation and places it in a larger, more abstract context, the changing society itself.36

Writing on the same theme, C. Gilbert Wrenn has warned us: "The nature of employed work in our society has changed, and its power to give satisfaction to the worker diminished; the sooner we accept this fact, the sooner we can develop a comprehensive set of solutions."37

One such publication has just recently appeared. Its purpose is to help develop solutions. Nadler has written The NOw Employee, an extremely practical reflection on today's youth and their attitudes toward work and society.

As Nadler interprets youth, there is a growing conflict toward the youth's life goals and the pressures for change on the job.

Specific attitudes must be changed if the young person is going to "get along" in his work. His appearance may be altered so that he conforms to standards set by his employer and the employer's customers.

Nadler speaks of the self image of the NOW employee. His definition is very close to self-actualization. The self image plays a large part in determining what type of work the young person will go into. Especially important is how the young person sees himself


and those he works with. The self image results in observable behavior. The employee acts in situations in a manner in keeping with his self concept. Morality is defined by the self concept and to act differently is immoral. Yet, the employer may require him to act differently, hence the conflict.

Nadler also indicates the significance of the attitudes that youth have toward their jobs. He sees attitudes as critical because they lead to observable behavior patterns. If managers are to deal effectively with these behaviors they must know what these attitudes are.38

Nadler feels that attitudinal changes at all levels will continue.

In a key statement Nadler summarizes: "The young feel that the individual is important. Partially as a reaction to computerization and depersonalization and partially as a reaction to the pressure of society, the culture emphasizes that the individual must maintain and not be forced into a mold."39

Summary

This study then will examine attitudes that young people demonstrate as they begin their final year of high school, and then measure these same attitudes as they conclude their schooling and prepare to either work or go on to college. The study will measure attitudinal


39Ibid., p. 34.
change. The population will consist of a group of vocational working students and a group of non-vocational, non-working students.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Design Overview

The population for the sample consisted of all Ohio high schools offering distributive education in the senior year. The sample was drawn from these schools. Sample schools were asked to participate with the following criteria in mind: geographic location in the state, number of students, inner-city-suburban-rural, race, male-female, and the sample schools' willingness to cooperate. Since these selection criteria were followed, pure random selection was not accomplished. Therefore, the basic research design for this study must be classified as quasi-experimental.

The sample consisted of working distributive education students (experimental group) and non-working senior students (control group) from the same high school. Ten groups of distributive education students were selected and ten groups of non-working senior students from the same high schools were chosen.

The plan was to administer a Likert attitude scale to the sample groups as a pre-test at the beginning of the school year and then administer the same instrument as a post-test at the conclusion of the school year.
The Likert scale was developed to measure attitudes toward retailing. The independent variable was the combination of exposure to retailing through the classroom teaching of distributive education and the accompanying laboratory work experience in a retailing establishment.

Hypotheses were determined using the rationale that differences would be found between the control group and the experimental group in the pre-test phase and again at the final post-test. Also, any differences occurring within the control and experimental groups from pre-test to post-test were to be noted.

### Development of the Attitude Scale

**Defining the Continuum**

The pattern for the development of the Likert attitude scale was derived from course work and conferences with Dr. Robert P. Bullock, Professor of Sociology, The Ohio State University.

In this initial phase the following steps were taken:

1. The variables were identified as feelings, attitudes or perceptions held by high school seniors toward distributive occupations.

2. An analysis of the variables confirmed that positive and negative items could be constructed from each variable or category of variables. A response to each item then could be measured on a limited continuum with five intervals representing degrees of positive or negative response to the item. This is the Likert scale format.
3. Three sources for the generation of items were used: self statements, a student survey and a review of the literature. The student survey provided the major means of generating items.

a. One hundred fifty distributive education high school students were randomly selected. These students represented eight Ohio high school distributive education programs. At this time, the plan was used to classify schools, i.e., urban vs. suburban, small vs. large, etc.

b. The sample students were simply instructed to make short, specific statements regarding job opportunities in distributive occupations. It was assumed that distributive education students would be able to define and understand "distributive occupations." The students were not required to sign their name to this form. This survey form is found in Appendix A.

c. These brief statements from the sample group of distributive education students were developed into scale items using the following criteria:

   Items were categorized by a general indication of similarity in the theme of the statement.

   A frequency count was made of the number of times an item representing a category occurred.

   Every effort was made to preserve as closely as possible the student respondent's original thought and wording.

   It was necessary to rewrite some items so that they complied with the Edward's criteria for writing scale items. In the few instances where items were created by the researcher, Edwards' criteria was again followed closely.40

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40Allan E. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction, p. 27.
Categories

1. Items derived from the student statements and created items (by the researcher) formed the following categories:
   a. Job Prerequisites
   b. Financial Rewards
   c. Career Opportunities
   d. Status
   e. Working Conditions
   f. Human Relationships

2. The item categories were so designated using the following rationale:
   a. Similar studies (notably Herzberg) have used categories for Likert instruments to enable the researcher to more efficiently analyze the data.
   b. This writer consulted with distributive education colleagues in the field to establish the face validity of the categories.
   c. Finally, the writer relied on fifteen years of personal experience in marketing and distributive education to correctly categorize the items.

Writing Items

1. Ninety-four items were written from the student survey results. Each item was written in both positive and negative form.
2. The original ninety-four item scale was evaluated for construct validity by Dr. Bullock and members of the Spring 1970 Sociology 752 class. This evaluation was conducted to determine if the Edwards' criteria for writing attitudinal scales had been met.

3. Content validity was evaluated by the researcher with five local distributive education coordinators, distributive education colleagues at Ohio State University and members of the Ohio State Department of Distributive Education.

4. A final scale was developed in the Likert format. It contained fifty-six items. (See Appendix B.)

5. Six items were added for later validity evaluation. Common terms were defined clearly for the respondent and instructions were given for completion.

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**Initial Field Test**

**Population**

1. Five area high schools were selected for field testing (Spring, 1970) the first Likert scale. All five schools offered distributive education cooperative education programs. All senior students in the population sample were completing one year of cooperative distributive education. None of the schools selected for this field testing phase had participated in the Item development survey.

2. No attempt was made to stratify schools by urban, suburban, rural classification (or any other classification). Students were not stratified by demographic characteristics.
3. One hundred nine instruments were returned. One hundred were usable. The data was transferred to computer cards.

4. Positive items were scored by giving the highest weight to the most positive response and scaling down in equal intervals. For example, a positive item would be scored:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Item) Retailers are leaders in their communities.

Conversely, a negative item would be scored:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Item) Retailers are unfair to young workers.

A high summated item score would thus indicate positive attitudes toward retailing while a low sum would indicate a negative outlook toward retailing.

5. Information regarding the respondent's name, his school, his sex, his present employer, his age and his future career plans was included to establish validity. At least one of these items was invalid. Many respondents either answered incorrectly or did not answer the item dealing with the respondent's employer (see item number 5, Appendix B.)
Clever's Item Analysis

Dr. P. T. Clever has adapted an "Internal Consistency Item Analysis Routine" to the IBM 1620 computer. This computer program follows the conventional internal consistency technique developed by Runquist, Sletto, Likert and others.

Clever's program generates values necessary for an internal consistency item analysis of a Likert attitude scale. The total sample is analyzed into what is known as a split-half profile. Scores are summed for each scale and the resulting scores arrayed from low to high. The sample is then divided into two groups (split-halves). The first N/2 being the low half and the second N/2 being the high half. This initial array is based on the sum of scores for each individual scale and yields the Scale Value Difference (SVD) and the Critical Ratio (CR).

The second computer pass again yields a division of scores (or split half) but this score division is based on the sum of scores for each item rather than each scale. The scores for each item are then arrayed from low to high. The sample is then divided in similar fashion (to the preceding division technique) and two N/2 groups result.

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41 P. T. Clever, "Internal Consistency Item Analysis Routine" (unpublished paper, Columbus, Ohio: Data Center, College of Administrative Science, The Ohio State University, February 28, 1968).

42 E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, Personality In the Depression (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1936).


These two preceding calculations form the basis for the following components. The components follow with their functions:

1. Means

A low-half mean, high-half mean and total sample mean were calculated. The low-half mean and high-half mean result from the summation of total scale scores. The total mean is the mean for each item for the total sample.

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

2. Standard Deviations

Using the split halves based on division by total scale scores, a standard deviation was computed for each item for the low-half, high half and total sample.

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{N\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}{N^2}}$$

3. Scale Value Difference (SVD)

Each scale item has an SVD computed. The SVD is the difference between the low-half mean and the high-half mean for each item when the division is based on the summation of total scale scores. The SVD is a major measurement indicating internal consistency. The greater the SVD score the more consistent the item is with the other scale items.

$$SVD = \bar{X}_{ht} - \bar{X}_{lt}$$
4. Critical Ratio (CR)

The critical ratio tests the null hypotheses that the SVD is zero in the population from which the sample is drawn.

\[
CR = \sqrt{\frac{S^2_{\text{SVD}}}{\frac{N}{2}} + \frac{S^2_{\text{SVD}}}{\frac{N}{2}}}
\]

5. Maximum Possible Scale Value Difference (MPSVD)

The MPSVD is a measure of the discriminating power of each individual item. It is derived from the difference between the low-half mean and the high-half mean. The division of halves for this statistic is made on the basis of score summations for each item.

\[
\text{MPSVD} = \frac{X}{h} - \frac{X}{l}
\]

6. Scale Value Difference Ratio (SVDR)

This is a simple ratio of the SVD/MPSVD. It gives the measure of maximum discriminating power of each item and the relationship of each item to other items in the scale.

\[
\text{SVDR} = \frac{\text{SVD}}{\text{MPSVD}}
\]

7. Split-Half Correlation (RSPLIT)

This gives the total internal consistency of all items in the scale. Odd item scores are summed with the resulting sum (X). Even numbered scores are summed with the result (Y). The yield is the Product Moment Correlation of the split halves for the total sample.

\[
\text{RSPLIT} = \sqrt{\frac{NEXY - (EX)(EY)}{(NEX^2 - (EX)^2)(NEY^2 - (EY)^2)}}
\]
8. Corrected Split-Half Correlation (RCORR)

The Spearman-Brown formula is applied to the split-half correlation and "corrects" the correlation of scales with K items. This statistic is derived by calculating even items and odd items into two subscales with K/2 items.

\[
RCORR = \frac{2(RSPLIT)}{1 + RSPLIT}
\]

These are the major components of Clever's Internal Consistency Analysis. The computer printouts that follow in this section are all derived from the Clever program.

Finally, internal consistency depends on the number of scale items presented. The shorter the scale, the less likely you are to have reliability. For this reason one hundred or more respondents were used in all the testing done in this study. Forty-five or more items were included in each Likert scale developed.

Initial Field Test Findings

In the first item analysis of the Likert scale (Spring, 1970) the following results were obtained (see Appendix C):

\[
\begin{align*}
RSPLIT & \quad .8229 \\
RCORR & \quad .9028
\end{align*}
\]

The corrected (RCORR) correlation appears to be well within the range of acceptance as indicated by Edwards.\(^{46}\) Though, as mentioned previously, there is some disagreement among scientists as to whether

the reliability coefficient measures the particular scale (summated ratings vs. equal appearing intervals) or the method of scoring. In either case the initial scores appear to be well within the limits and there were sufficient items to validate these final correlations.

However, an item by item analysis reveals several items did not pass discrimination standards. Dr. Bullock has indicated that each item, to successfully discriminate, must have a Critical Ratio of 2.0 or greater and a Scale Value Difference Ratio of .30 or greater. Applying Bullock's criteria of discrimination to the scale, we eliminated the following items:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>C.R.a</th>
<th>S.V.D.R.b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Requires a score of 2.00 or greater for acceptance.

b Requires a score of .300 or greater for acceptance.

It is interesting to note that items number 30 and 40 met the critical ratio criteria (2.0 or greater) but failed to meet the scale value difference criteria level of .30 or greater. Only one item
(number 24) met the scale value difference ratio and failed the critical ratio standard. The majority of unfit items failed to meet both criteria levels.

Final Field Test

Five distributive education classes were selected in the central Ohio area to participate in the second field testing of the Likert scale. This testing took place in the Spring of 1971. Some of the schools selected took part in the earlier survey and initial field test. However, since both the survey and the initial test were conducted in 1970, the students now participating had no part in earlier tests. One hundred thirty distributive education students participated in this second field test.

The following changes were incorporated into this new instrument (see Appendix D):

1. Items not meeting statistical standards on the initial analysis were eliminated. There were no substitutes made. This second scale included forty-five items.

2. All reference to distribution or distributive occupations within item wording was changed to retailing and retail occupations. This change was made to provide greater specificity.

3. Item number 5, previously identified as poor due to the number of people not answering it or giving vague answers, was completely revised. The wording now reflected only retailing and was much less ambiguous.
In this second item analysis (Spring, 1971), the following results were obtained (see Appendix E):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{R SPLIT} & \quad 0.7726 \\
\text{R CORR} & \quad 0.8717
\end{align*}
\]

The following items failed to meet the discrimination criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>C.R.(^a)</th>
<th>S.V.D.R.(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>0.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Requires a score of 2.00 or greater for acceptance.

\(^b\)Requires a score of .300 or greater for acceptance.

At this point, one might ask when the elimination of sub-standard scale items should stop. Is there a point when all items would meet the standards and the researcher could proceed with confidence?

Consulting with Dr. Robert Bullock, he said, "Criterion-scoring is based on different items and their relationships to each other every time the item-analysis is run. When you have what you think is an acceptable number of items and a high corrected split-half correlation you should stop."
Though the corrected split half correlation seemed to be deteriorating, the figure is well-within the limits (typically .85 or greater). The deterioration may be simply due to the diminishing number of items. It was decided that this scale as it was presented was within the limits of reliability. Checking completed instruments for face validity was successful. The instrument checked out for use in the study. A final "Summary of Scale Items" is shown in Table 3.

Actual Instrument Implementation

Population and Sample

The larger population was the 315 distributive education programs in the state of Ohio. The experimental group was drawn from this population and the control groups would be established within the same schools selected for their distributive education classes (experimental groups).

The study sample was selected with the following criteria in mind:

1. urban schools were to be represented
2. suburban schools were to be represented
3. rural schools were to be represented
4. schools representing all economic levels were to be represented
5. schools attended by both black and white students were included in the sample

ibid., p. 156.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Item Numbers ... (see Appendix VII)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Prerequisites</td>
<td>27, 33, 35, 51</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Rewards</td>
<td>11, 23, 26, 30, 38, 40</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career (Promotion) Opportunities</td>
<td>7, 13, 19, 21, 24, 32, 36, 39, 41</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>9, 12, 14, 20, 22, 28, 44, 45, 48, 50</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>8, 15, 16, 17, 18, 25, 31, 34, 37</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relationships</td>
<td>10, 29, 42, 43, 46, 47, 49</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items Stated Positively</td>
<td>7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 31, 33, 34, 36, 37, 42, 44, 46, 48, 50</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items Stated Negatively</td>
<td>12, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 35, 38, 39, 40, 41, 43, 45, 47, 49</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. the sample was confined to distributive education students who were employed in retailing occupations during their senior year of high school.

7. control group students were to be from the same high school as the distributive education students but not working in the retailing field. There was no criteria for numbers of males, females, blacks, vocational students or academic students.

8. both large and small (student enrollment) schools were selected.

9. there was no criteria applied to either the participating distributive education teacher or his cooperating colleague. They needed only to agree to help.

10. School systems where administrators have policies against external research activities were not considered.

11. A geographic spread was desired. The schools selected represent all areas of the state of Ohio except the south-eastern portion of the state.

A brief description of each of the schools participating in the study is shown in Table 4.
### TABLE 4

**GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR STUDY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Number of Students in High School</th>
<th>Urban, Suburban, Rural Level</th>
<th>Economic Level</th>
<th>Black Population</th>
<th>Geographic Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bedford H.S.</td>
<td>1882</td>
<td>Suburban (Cleveland)</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>Slight</td>
<td>N.E. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boardman H.S.</td>
<td>2350</td>
<td>Suburban (Youngstown)</td>
<td>Upper Middle to High</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N.E. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleveland Heights H.S.</td>
<td>3084</td>
<td>Suburban (Cleveland)</td>
<td>Upper Middle to High</td>
<td>Slight</td>
<td>N.E. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Champion H.S.</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Upper Low to Middle</td>
<td>Slight</td>
<td>N.E. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbus Brookhaven H.S.</td>
<td>1550</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Upper Middle</td>
<td>Slight</td>
<td>Central Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dayton Dunbar H.S.</td>
<td>1473</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>S.W. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fredericktown H.S.</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Upper Low to Middle</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Central Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lima H.S.</td>
<td>1858</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>About 1/3 of Total</td>
<td>N.W. Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pioneer J.V.S.</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Lower Middle</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Central Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stow</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>Suburban (Akron)</td>
<td>Upper Middle</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N.E. Ohio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Remaining information from interviews with distributive education teachers in the respective schools, May, 1972.
Pre-test, Post-test Timing

The sample was drawn and the pre-test scales sent to the schools the second week of September, 1971. An instruction sheet directed to the teachers administering the scales and an example of the final scale as it was administered to the student are found in Appendices F and G, respectively.

The Likert scale was administered to 281 non-distributive education students and 266 distributive education students in the ten high schools indicated previously. The scales were sent out by September 1, 1971, and returned to Ohio State by September 30, 1971.

The post-test was sent out April 24, 1972, to the participating schools and returned prior to May 15, 1972. The pre-test and the post-test scales were then analyzed.

Mortality Criteria

A thorough analysis of the completed instruments was made to determine:

1. absences to establish the number of students who had taken either the pre-test or the post-test, but not both
2. distributive education students who had listed themselves as "not presently employed" on both the pre-test and post-test
3. non-distributive education students who indicated on both the pre-test and the post-test that they were presently working in a retailing occupation
4. those who did not include their name on either the pre-test or the post-test
5. the respondents who choose not to cooperate but did so by completing their instruments in an obvious irrational manner.

These points were the criteria to establish mortality. A respondent fitting any one or all of the above criteria was eliminated from the study. The final number of respondents measured in the sample was 197 in the control group and 219 in the experimental group. (For further information see Table 5.)

**Summary**

In summary, the following steps were taken to implement the research design:

1. The population was defined as those Ohio high schools offering distributive education in the twelfth year.

2. Sample groups of working distributive education students made up the experimental group. Non-working students selected from the same high schools as the experimental groups made up the control groups. Ten schools were selected according to pre-determined criteria. The design is thus classified as a quasi-experimental one (lacking randomness).

3. A Likert attitude scale was developed to measure attitudes that students in both groups have toward retailing as a career goal. The scale evolved from students' responses to an attitude survey.
TABLE 5
SAMPLE MORTALITY INFORMATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Original Sample</th>
<th>Mortality</th>
<th>Final Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stow H.S.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedford H.S.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boardman H.S.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunbar H.S.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Champion H.S.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brookhaven H.S.</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lima H.S.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fredericktown H.S.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pioneer J.V.S.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleveland Heights H.S.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24% of original sample of 547
76% of original sample of 547
4. Three Likert scales were developed in succession with field testing and an item reliability analysis refining each scale until it was believed that the final scale was sufficiently valid for use.

5. The sample groups were given the Likert instrument at the beginning of the school year and at the conclusion of the school year. Differences in responses were measured between the two sample groups and within these same groups.

6. The final data was analyzed to determine mortality and ready the responses for computer analysis.

7. A Kolomogorov-Smirnov statistical test of goodness of fit was selected to determine the significance of the hypotheses. This procedure is detailed in the following chapter.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

Overview

This chapter will include the analysis of the data, the interpretation of the data and the findings that resulted.

The interpretation of the data will use as a reference point the study's hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

Much of the analysis of the data in this study has been carried out by the use of the computer. There is no question that the computer is a valuable tool for the researcher. However, the computer design has some minor limitations in studies of this type.

When a researcher works with a computer program, as was done in this study, he must interpret from the computer printout. This printout yields only final data and does not show the derivation or evolution of the final data. For example, one knows that the K/S, D statistic is the greatest difference occurring between the cumulative distributions in a response category. The program gives the D statistic but does not give the response category in which the greatest difference occurred.

The output of the computer program includes or specifies which of the two groups was more favorable or less favorable, i.e., scored higher or lower. However, it does not give the degree of favorableness. While this information is adequate to accept or reject the null
hypotheses, it leaves the researcher at a disadvantage in interpreting the data. A more complete analysis of the final statistics could be undertaken if the entire data analysis was given on the printout.

Analysis of the Data

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Goodness of Fit

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (hereafter referred to as K/S) test used in this study was the K/S two-sample test. The researcher's hypothesis is that the two distributions arose by random sampling from the same population.

The K/S two-sample test is frequently used to compare the numerical level on some scale. In this study the scale is the Likert scale and the numerical value for a positive item is 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 for Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree (respectively). The values are reversed for negative items on the scale.

Scale items were then placed into six variable classifications. For example, items relating to the general variable of human relations were considered as a whole. (See Appendix H for "Items Classified as Variables for Statistical Analysis.") Responses for each item in the Likert scale were then counted and the figures arranged in a frequency distribution for that variable.

The major purpose of the K/S analysis is to arrive at cumulative proportions of distributions in the two samples. The sizes of the differences between the control group and the experimental group are
Indicated in the analysis. The greatest difference existing between the two values in the cumulative proportions of distributions is the D statistic.

The K/S test would be set up in this manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>cf</th>
<th>cp</th>
<th>dc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where:
- **Response** = that point on the continuum where frequencies of respondents are cumulated
- **f** = the number of respondents in both groups counted at different levels
- **cf** = cumulated frequency values; the maximum number being the total sample for each group
- **cp** = cumulated frequencies expressed in cumulated proportional terms for each group
- **dc** = the differences between the cumulated proportions for each value expressed for both groups
- **D** = the greatest difference between the two sets of cumulated proportional scores.

The K/S (D) can then be used in a formula to yield an approximated Chi Square or in a two-tailed test one might decide whether or not
The computer first ran internal analysis scores within the experimental and control groups. This sequence of observations in the first phase follows:

**Experimental group only measured from pre-test to post-test**
- the total group
  - whites
  - blacks
  - male
  - female

**Control group only measured from pre-test to post-test**
- the total group
  - whites
  - blacks
  - male
  - female

The second phase of the computer analysis was concerned with the comparison between the experimental and control groups. The following comparisons were made:

**Experimental group pre-test distributions compared to control group pre-test distributions for:**
- the total group
  - whites
  - blacks
  - males
  - females

**Experimental group post-test distributions compared to control group post-test distributions for:**
- the total group
  - whites
  - blacks
  - males
  - females

The total sample size (N.219) for the experimental group and (N.197) for the control group exceeded the parameters of the computer
to reject the null hypothesis by determining what size $D$ is necessary to be significant at the predesignated levels. This formula:

\[
\text{Significance Level} \quad \text{Critical } D \text{ Value}
\]

\[.10 \quad 1.22 \sqrt{\frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 N_2}}
\]

\[.05 \quad 1.36 \sqrt{\frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 N_2}}
\]

The responses on the Likert scale in cumulative form indicate the degree of the respondent's positive or negative feelings. These frequency distributions were also calculated for sub-groups: males, females, blacks and whites. The K/S test was the tool that was used to compare frequency distributions and determine significance or lack of significance. The K/S test had particular application for this study because of the necessity to examine the differences between two frequency distributions.

The Computer Program for Kolmogorov-Smirnov

The Ohio State University Computer Center was contacted and it was found that a K/S Two Sample Test, version 40.09, was available for use on the 360/165 IB'1 computer. This program was originally developed at the Computer Institute for Social Science Research at Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan. Two basic approaches to data analysis were taken.

The computer first ran internal analysis scores within the experimental and control groups. This sequence of observations in the first phase follows:

**Experimental group only measured from pre-test to post-test**

the total group
- whites
- blacks
- male
- female

**Control group only measured from pre-test to post-test**

the total group
- whites
- blacks
- male
- female

The second phase of the computer analysis was concerned with the comparison between the experimental and control groups. The following comparisons were made:

**Experimental group pre-test distributions compared to control group pre-test distributions for:**

the total group
- whites
- blacks
- males
- females

**Experimental group post-test distributions compared to control group post-test distributions for:**

the total group
- whites
- blacks
- males
- females

The total sample size \(N=219\) for the experimental group and \(N=197\) for the control group exceeded the parameters of the computer
program. It was necessary to reduce the sample and 95 computer response cards were selected at random making certain that each randomly selected pre-test card was matched with the same respondents post-test card. This same technique was followed in reducing the sample size of the white respondents sub-group. In this instance the white experimental group (N.191) was reduced to (N.95) and the white control group (N.178) was reduced to (N.95). These were the only two groups in which it was necessary to reduce the sample sizes to meet the computer program constraints. All other groups were measured using the original sample sizes.

Findings by Method of Measurement

Internal Analysis Within the Experimental and Control Groups

The experimental and control groups were made up of individuals each of whom has a pre-test score and a post-test score. These scores were compared. Statistical significance for the entire study was measured at the .05 level.

Experimental

The experimental group is composed of distributive education students who have been measured in a pre-test given at the start of their final year of high school and a final post-test given as they concluded their final year of high school. This group of students has been working in retailing establishments and has benefitted from the closely correlated high school program of distributive education.
The total group.—Refer to Table 6 for the following discussion of the total experimental sample group.

Ninety-five respondents in the experimental group, when measured from pre-test to post-test, have indicated statistically higher scores on pre-test responses. Five of the six variables have significantly more favorable responses on the pre-test when pre-test responses were compared to post-test responses for the experimental group only.

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF PRE- AND POST-TEST FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR THE TOTAL EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probability (2-sided)</th>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Experimental Group</td>
<td>Financial Reward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N = 95)</td>
<td>.0120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Only those probability values significant at the .05 level are shown. There were no statistically significant probability values in the Job Prerequisites variable.*

White respondents.—Refer to Table 7 for the following discussion of the experimental sample sub-groups.

Ninety-six white respondents in the experimental group have indicated more positive responses on pre-test scoring in five of the six variables measured from pre-test to post-test. This group's responses showed significant change by recording higher scores on the pre-test when measured from pre-test to post-test.
TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF PRE- AND POST-TEST FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS
FOR EXPERIMENTAL SUB-GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probability (2-sided)</th>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CAREER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SUB-GROUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FINANCIAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Promotion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WORKING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HUMAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CONDITION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RELATIONSHIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (N.96)</td>
<td>.0089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (N.102)</td>
<td>.0367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (N.96)</td>
<td>.0071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.0299</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Only those probability values significant at the .05 level are shown. There were no statistically significant probability values in the Job Prerequisites variable nor were there any statistically significant probability values (at the .05 level) in the Black sub-group in this comparison. All of the above probability values indicate more positive scores at the pre-test level when pre-test scores were compared with post-test scores.

Black respondents.—There is no significant change indicated here in a sampling of ninety-eight black students from pre-test to post-test.

Male respondents.—The variable containing those items relating to status has shown a significant difference. Male respondents indicated more favorable responses on the pre-test when compared to the post-test on the variable dealing with status.

An Interpretation one might make here is the apparent lack of support that males failed to give in the previous high scores recorded in the white respondent sub-group. Male responses made up one-half of the responses in that sub-group.
Female respondents.— Ninety-six female respondents showed more favorable responses in pre-test scoring when compared to post-test scoring on four of the six variables.

It is apparent that female scores were responsible for the high positive scores in pre-test scoring indicated by the white respondents sub-group.

Summary.— The total experimental group responses were more favorable on the pre-test when comparisons within the group were made from pre-test to post-test.

In five of the six variables measured, responses by the total experimental group were more positive on the pre-test.

Pre-test scores were significantly higher on the majority of variables in the white respondents and female sub-sample groups.

Male respondents indicated higher scores on the status response variable on the pre-test. These scores apparently did not contribute to the higher pre-test scores in the white respondents group.

The scores of black students showed no significant change in attitudes, even though black females were a part of the composition of the female group which showed significant differences.

Finally, females as a sub-group have indicated more positive responses in the pre-test scoring when compared to the post-test. These same responses apparently contributed strongly to similar high pre-test responses by the white respondents.
Control

The control group was composed of non-working, non-vocational students from the same high schools represented by respondents in the experimental group. In this analysis the control group scores are compared from pre-test to post-test. The comparison is an internal one—within the control group only.

Total control group.—No significant differences were observed.
White respondents.—No significant differences were observed.
Black respondents.—No significant differences were observed.
Male respondents.—No significant differences were observed.
Female respondents.—No significant differences were observed.

Summary.—The control group did not significantly change.

Comparisons Between the Experimental and Control Groups

In this second phase of the computer analysis, the control group and experimental group were compared to determine any significant statistical differences existing between the two groups.

The total experimental group was first compared with the total control group. The two groups were compared at the pre-test stage and again at the post-test stage. It was again necessary to reduce the sample size of both these groups to meet the parameters of the computer program. However, in this instance, it was not necessary to match response cards since pre-test to post-test comparisons were not being made.

Finally, pre-test comparisons among the four respondent sub-groups were performed. In the white group random selection of a smaller sample was again necessary to meet the program parameters.
It was not necessary to match response cards nor was it necessary to have equal numbers in each group. The first comparison was made between the total experimental group and the total control group on the pre-test only.

**Pre-Test**

The total groups.—The experimental group, when compared to the control group at the pre-test stage indicated more positive responses in all six variables. Table 8 indicates response values on the six variables for the reader.

See Table 9 for reference in this section.

### Table 8

**Comparison of the Total Experimental and Control Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>Probability (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exp. (N=95)</th>
<th>Cont. (N=95)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.0001</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Pre-requisites</td>
<td>.0074</td>
<td>.0003</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Reward</td>
<td></td>
<td>.0000b</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career (Promotion)</td>
<td></td>
<td>D=.4000</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td>D=.4632</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td></td>
<td>D=.3684</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level; only the significant values are shown.

bSignificance is determined for these figures by taking the (D) score and manually calculating the significance level using:

\[
D = \frac{\sqrt{N_1 + N_2}}{N_1 N_2}
\]

# TABLE 9

**COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SUB-GROUPS' FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS ON THE PRE-TEST**  
*All values are probabilities (2-sided).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Group</th>
<th>Job Prerequisites</th>
<th>Financial Reward</th>
<th>Career Opportunities</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Working Conditions</th>
<th>Human Relationships</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.73 (exp)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.117(con)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.20 (exp)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.19 (con)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.100(exp)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.0022</td>
<td>.0219</td>
<td>.0003</td>
<td>.0001</td>
<td>.0038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.95(con)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.106(exp)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.0000b</td>
<td>.0141</td>
<td>.0003</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>.0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.89(con)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level. Only the significant values are shown.*

Significant is determined for these figures by taking the computer (D) score and manually calculating the significance level using:

\[
D = \frac{N_1 + N_2}{\sqrt{N_1 N_2}}
\]

For critical D at .05 level, \(d = 1.36\).

White.--Responses of white students in the experimental group at the pre-test stage were more favorable on two of the six variables. Experimental group scores were higher than those scores in the control group on the career opportunities and working conditions variables.

Black.--Black respondents in the experimental group showed more positive responses on the human relations variable when compared with their colleagues in the control group.

Male.--Male respondents in the experimental group showed more positive scores on five of the six variables when compared with like members of the control group in the pre-test measurement. These five variables were: job prerequisites, career opportunities, status, working conditions and human relationships.

Female.--Female respondents in the experimental group showed more positive responses on five of the six variables when compared to their colleagues in the control group. These five variables were: financial reward, career opportunities, status, working conditions and human relationships.

Summary.--There seems to be little question that the experimental group recorded more positive responses than did the control group in all of the variables at the pre-test stage. This was the only instance in the entire study where all of the variables showed higher scores by the experimental group in group comparisons (in this case, experimental vs. control).

Comparing males and females, one notes that four of the variables showing significance are the same while one differs. Males showed more positive scores on the job prerequisites variable and females indicated more positive scores on the financial reward variable.
Post-Test

The total group.—The significant favorable responses found on the pre-test also appeared in the post-test stage. In five of the six variables the experimental group scored higher than did the control group on the post-test comparison. Refer to Table 10 for total experimental and control group response comparisons.

**TABLE 10**

**COMPARISON OF THE TOTAL EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS’ FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS ON THE POST-TEST**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probability (2-sided)</th>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Groups</strong></td>
<td><strong>Job</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. (95)</td>
<td>.0009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con. (95)</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level. No significance was reported in the variable Career (Promotion) Opportunities. Only the significant responses are shown.

See Table II for reference to sub-group responses.

White.—White respondents showed no significant differences on the post-test scoring. The experimental group indicated no significant difference when compared to the control group.

Black.—The black student respondents in the experimental group did not show significant differences when post-test scores were compared to the control group post-test scores.
TABLE II

COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS ON THE POST-TEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Group</th>
<th>Job Prerequisites Probability (2-sided)</th>
<th>Working Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>N.98 (exp)</td>
<td>.0024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>N.107 (exp)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level. No significance was reported in variables Financial Reward, Career (Promotion) Opportunities, Status or Human Relationships. Sub-groups, White and Black, had no statistical significance reported in any variable.

Male.--Male respondents in the experimental group showed more favorable responses on two of the variables on the post-test. Male respondents in the experimental group showed more favorable responses on the variables "job prerequisites" and "working conditions" when compared to control group males in post-test scoring.

Female.--Females in the experimental group scored higher when compared with their colleagues in the control group on one variable. Experimental group females indicated higher significant scores on the variable "working conditions" when pre-test scores were compared to post-test scores.

Summary.--In each case of statistical significance, the experimental group has scored higher or more positively when compared to the control group. There is no instance where the control group has scored more positively than the experimental group either in pre-test or post-test scoring.
The experimental group has scored higher on the majority of the variables in the pre-test and post-test responses. Only on one post-test variable did males in the experimental group score more positively than the control group. On two variables experimental group females scored more positively in the post-test scores when compared with their colleagues in the control group.

**Interpretation of the Data**

The major finding to the researcher has to be the significant scoring within the experimental group. It seems evident that distributive education students (experimental group) showed more favorable responses at the beginning and at the conclusion of their retailing experience when compared to the control group.

The control group showed virtually no change from pre-test to post-test. Black scores were noticeably stable. Only on one variable did a significant finding occur. Black experimental students on the pre-test showed significantly higher scores on the human relationships variable than did their colleagues in the control group.

**Acceptance or Rejection of the Null Hypotheses**

The hypotheses originally stated in this study are found in Chapter I. The "attitudes" stated in each hypothesis are those held by the respondents toward the retailing field. The hypotheses are restated here together with the findings of the study.
1. **Hypothesis:** There will be no significant difference in comparisons of attitude responses between the control group and the experimental group respondents in the selected sample as indicated in the pre-test.

**Findings:** More positive scores at the pre-test stage were reported in five of the six response categories for all respondents in the experimental group when compared with like respondents in the control group.

More positive scores at the pre-test stage were reported in five of the six response categories when male experimental group respondents were compared with like respondents in the control group.

More positive scores at the pre-test stage were reported in five of the six response categories when female experimental group respondents were compared with like respondents in the control group.

**Conclusion:** The hypothesis is rejected.

2. **Hypothesis:** There will be no significant change in the attitudes of the distributive education students in the selected sample measured from pre-test to post-test.

**Findings:** Distributive education students (experimental group) showed more positive responses on the pre-test in five of six variables when compared to post-test scores for the same group.
Distributive education females, when measured as a sub-group, showed higher, more positive responses at the pre-test level when compared to post-test responses in four of the six response categories.

Distributive education males, measured as a sub-group, showed more positive scores in one response category on the pre-test level when compared to the post-test.

Conclusion: The hypothesis is rejected.

3. Hypothesis: There will be no significant change in the attitudes of the non-working students in the selected sample measured from the pre-test to the post-test.

Findings: No significant change was observed.

Conclusion: The hypothesis is accepted.

4. Hypothesis: There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of the distributive education students and the non-working students in the selected sample as measured on the post-test.

Findings: Distributive education students showed higher, more positive responses when compared to non-working students at the post-test stage. In five of the six variables measured in the post-test distributive education students were more positive in their responses when compared to non-working students.

Conclusion: The hypothesis is rejected.
5. **Hypothesis:** There will be no significant difference in attitudinal scores of male and female students in either the control group (non-working high school seniors) or the experimental group (distributive education working students).

**Findings:** Females in the experimental group showed higher scores on the pre-test in four of the six response categories when pre-test scores were compared with post-test scores within the demographic group.

Males, in the same internal comparison (from pre-test to post-test), showed a higher score in one response category on the pre-test.

There were no significant differences in the male and female sub-groups within the control group.

**Conclusion:** The hypothesis, as stated, would be accepted for the control group. However, the same hypothesis, as stated, would be rejected for the experimental group.

6. **Hypothesis:** There will be no significant difference in attitudinal scores of Caucasian and Negro students in either the control group (non-working high school seniors) or the experimental group (distributive education working students).

**Findings:** Comparisons of pre-test scores to post-test scores within the white group revealed that the experimental white group showed higher, more positive scores when compared to the control group whites in two variables on the pre-test.
Black students, in the experimental group, measured from pre-test to post-test showed a higher score in one response category on the pre-test.

Conclusion: There is not enough evidence to dispute the hypothesis for either group. The hypothesis is accepted.

Discussion of the Data

The findings in comparisons between the experimental and control groups are of interest. The experimental group showed significantly more positive responses at the pre-test stage when compared to the control group. This occurred in all the sub-groups except the black sub-group.

Though distributive education students had indicated that they had "not previously worked in a retailing establishment" on preliminary questions to establish validity, it could be that natural enthusiasm and interest in the retailing field may be responsible for the more favorable attitudinal responses when the experimental respondents were compared to their colleagues in the control group.

One other interpretation of the same results may be that at the beginning of the school year students may have indicated answers they thought were expected of them by their teachers, similar to the Hawthorne phenomena.

The more favorable responses recorded by the experimental group females in the pre-test when compared to their colleagues in the control group and then the absence of these positive responses at the post-test may point to discrimination against women in business or simply a young woman's desire to be married as she approaches graduation.
It is known that young women have become disillusioned in their initial jobs when they find that many employers do not expect them to become career employees. Employers in business and in other fields tend to look upon a young woman as temporary help. It is expected that she will be married in her early twenties and work until she bears children. It is further thought that she may or may not return to her job after her baby is born.

Consequently, a young woman who does intend to work five years or more will often become restless when she finds that it is difficult for her to convince her employer that she does intend to become a career woman whether or not she marries and has children. The high school females in this study may be reflecting these attitudes.

Conversely, several recent studies, notably Sylvia Lee's study of high school females, indicate young women are more career oriented in their junior high years. As they approach graduation, they tend to think more about marriage and career plans take a lower priority. The females in this study may have followed this pattern thus accounting for the deterioration of positive responses on the post-test when pre-test to post-test comparisons were made.

Black students failed to show any notable significant change in either phase of the analysis.

Like females, they were considered as a sub-group to the total sample and no special emphasis was made to consider them as a major part of the study. Also, black students were compared with black students. No attempt was made to compare their values with whites or other sub-groups.
Still another interpretation of black student responses to this study may be the careful selection that they are subjected to in order to become part of the distributive education program. In many Ohio high schools, black students are subjected to more rigorous selection criteria than are the white students when they express an interest in distributive education. One of these criteria is that they have "the proper attitude." However, this does not explain why they failed to have significantly different attitudes than their colleagues in the control group.
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The intent of this study was to measure attitudes that distributive education students have toward retailing. It is believed that such a study of attitudes and the change that occurs in attitudinal preferences could help vocational educators better understand their students and use this new-found knowledge to help the students better plan their vocational careers.

The measurement of attitudes is a relatively complex area. Social scientists are not in accord as to which is the best method of measuring attitudes. One must talk with those who are knowledgeable in the area and weigh this information with similar findings in text materials and research studies.

A major point, not mentioned previously, that had to be held in mind throughout the study was the danger of measuring cognitive learning rather than attitudinal change. This was a constant consideration that had to be avoided throughout the complex development and testing of the Likert scale.

The decision to adopt an experimental design (notwithstanding lack of randomness) has undoubtedly added strength to the study. As one studies the statistics it is apparent that the control group remained relatively constant.
The experimental group did show more positive responses when pre-tested just before the introduction of the experimental variable (the work experience and accompanying classroom program of distributive education). This significance in attitudinal change reappeared at the post-test.

The lack of significance in black groups is noteworthy. A recent study similar to this one has shown black attitudes to be significantly negative toward retailing (see Bennett). Without any similar evidence in this study, it is difficult indeed to make any suppositions.

**Conclusions**

The following conclusions have been made after careful study.

The attitudes of female distributive education students were more positive when compared to control group students at the pre-test. This same significance did not appear when the experimental group was compared to the control group females on the post-test.

Several studies have shown females have thought less about jobs and more about marriage as they approach their graduation date. This is a major finding in a recent study by Sylvia Lee (see Bibliography).

A second explanation for this point may simply be that young females have higher expectations at the beginning of the year than do the males and then in the actual experience of working find that females are not considered to be working for a long-term career. In
fact, they are expected to get married. Employers may provide for a young man's future, but think of the young female as temporary help. This may explain post-test differences in males and females.

There was no significant change in control group scores from pre-test to post-test nor did the control group show greater change than did the experimental group in any stage of the study.

The control group pattern was static.

Black students showed little change in attitudes toward retailing either at the pre-test or post-test levels or between the experimental or control black groups.

Responses depended on the relationship of experimental scores to control scores in one phase and then inter-relationships with the control group in the second phase.

One must remember that black students were measured within their own group. They were not compared with white students or females, but simply compared with those who were in the experimental group and control group.

Generally, black students who do participate in distributive education are selected with one criteria being that of a "good attitude." However, the control group did not show any difference in scoring compared to the experimental group.

Distributive education students showed more positive scores when compared to non-distributive education students in the pre-test and post-test stages. It is very possible that the pre-test differences occurred as a result of the distributive education students'
highly motivated and enthusiastic feelings at the start of the school year. Also, these differences may simply reflect the Hawthorne phenomena—the desire to excel because one knows he is being measured.

The experimental variable—the distributive education school program and accompanying cooperative work experience could have accounted for post-test differences between the experimental group and the control group.

**Recommendations**

The recommendations can be best presented in a listing of suggestions for further study.

**Need For Further Study**

1. There is a dire need for attitude scales to be used again in replication studies. Because so much controversy exists among scholars as to the reliability of attitude scales, they should be used repeatedly to establish reliability. The Likert scale developed for this study should be used again.

2. Attitudes of distributive education students should be compared with those of other vocational education students to determine if similar response patterns exist. Are distributive education students genuinely positive toward retailing and does this positive feeling exist in other young people toward their first jobs?
3. A study should be carried out comparing distributive education coordinators' attitudes toward retailing with those of their students. The research carried out here has indicated a wide variety of factors influencing a young person's attitudes on the job. These would include: the student's parents, his working colleagues, school officials (notably the guidance counselor), and the student's peers. Attitudinal inter-relationships working with these variables would warrant consideration for study.

4. More career information needs to be given vocational students. Opportunities in retailing need to be explored more carefully and more frequently with vocational students. Distributive educators should work more closely with business to emphasize that distributive education is much more than a work experience program.

5. More research needs to be done on the opportunity that exists for females in retailing. What are the opportunities for advancement and security that exist in retailing for females? Are they the same as those for males?

6. There should be a comparative study done between distributive education students who are graduated from high school and have successfully worked for three years and employees of similar backgrounds who have not taken distributive education.

7. Employers should be surveyed to determine whether or not training plans are used in working with distributive education
students. An attitudinal comparison should be made of those students who are being trained with training plans compared to those students who do not benefit from the use of training plans.

8. Not enough has been done with former distributive education students. Graduates in the retailing field could be interviewed to tell us some of the answers that we need to questions like:
   a. factors that young people consider when selecting retailing as a career
   b. the real value of distributive education
   c. what does business really think of distributive education graduates
   d. how does the distributive education graduate hold up in competition with the non-vocational graduate, with the technical school graduate or even the college graduate.

Answers to questions like these might be surveyed from employers and school administrators in addition to the students. It would be revealing to compare the answers.

9. More should be done to enroll blacks in distributive education. A study should be done comparing directly black distributive education students with white students. One might also investigate the selection criteria for black students applying for distributive education compared with white applicants.

10. This study should be replicated. There is a definite feeling that several significant points brought out in the findings
should be investigated in greater depth. These would be:

a. The strong positive feelings observed by females and
the deterioration of these same feelings.
b. The lack of significant findings in the black group.

II. Since this study was primarily concerned with the attitudes and
the formation or evolution of attitudes toward retailing, many
different origins of attitudes were explored. One area that
was not explored was the area of socio-economic influences
toward attitudinal development.

Socio-economic factors and their influences on adolescent
career choice and attitudinal development need to be studied.
Likert scales could be administered to different stratified
economic and social groups with score comparisons made.
Correlations between attitudes and variables affecting attitudes
could be sought. There are many implications here for further
study.
APPENDIX A
PLEASE LIST BELOW ALL THE REASONS WHY YOU THINK JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS ARE GOOD OR BAD.

KEEP YOUR SENTENCES SHORT AND BE AS SPECIFIC AS POSSIBLE.

FOR INSTANCE: YOU CAN GET PROMOTED QUICK IN SALES JOBS. THE HOURS ARE BAD. THE PAY IS GOOD.

LIST AS MANY REASONS—GOOD OR BAD THAT YOU CAN THINK OF.

YOUR NAME IS NOT NEEDED. THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.
16.
17.
18.
19.
20.
21.
22.
The following is an opinion-type survey. It is part of a preliminary study being done to determine attitudes regarding work in the distributive occupations.

Your answers to these questions are extremely important. All answers will be confidential. However, if you do not wish to give your name or the name of your school—you may leave these spaces blank.

Thank you for your cooperation...
1. ____________________________  2. ____________________________

Circle the Choice of Your Answer

3. Age
   1. 14
   2. 15
   3. 16
   4. 17 or over

4. Sex
   1. Male
   2. Female

5. My Present Employer Is:
   1. A Retailer
   2. A Wholesaler
   3. In a Service-type Business

6. I plan to work full-time in a retailing, wholesaling or service-type job after graduation.
   1. YES
   2. NO

EACH STATEMENT below is an opinion expressed about some characteristic of a distributive occupation.

A distributive occupation is defined as any job in the retailing, wholesaling or service-type industries.

Please consider these statements as if you were a full-time employee working in a distributive occupation.

There are no right or wrong answers. We simply want to know how you feel about the statement based on your experience working in a distributive occupation.

Select and circle one of the following answers given for each statement below.

All answers are confidential. Individual results will be known only to the researcher.

SA = Strongly Agree  A = Agree  U = Undecided  D = Disagree  SD = Strongly Disagree

7. You can get promoted fast in a distributive job.  SA  A  U  D  SD

8. You get a variety of assignments in a distributive job.  SA  A  U  D  SD

9. Good unions make distributive jobs attractive to young people.  SA  A  U  D  SD

10. An outgoing personality is necessary to work in distribution.  SA  A  U  D  SD
11. One has a feeling that he is "needed" in a distributive job.  
12. Meeting all kinds of customers is interesting and fun.  
13. Pay scales are adequate in distribution.  
14. Working in a store is extremely boring.  
15. Distributive occupations offer security.  
16. A store manager is a leader in his community.  
17. You learn a lot in a distributive occupation.  
18. You don't have to be too smart to work in distribution.  
19. Supervisors are too strict in distributive jobs.  
20. Stores are pleasant places to work in.  
21. You have to work too many holidays and weekends in distributive jobs.  
22. Young employees are not treated fairly in distributive jobs.  
23. You might someday be able to own your own business as a result of having worked in a distributive job.  
24. Locations of distributive businesses make them convenient to work in.  
25. Company benefits are above average in distributive jobs.  
26. Executive positions are readily available to the distributive employee who works hard.  
27. Most stores are old-fashioned in their physical appearance.  
28. Too many employees in distribution get fired when they reach forty years of age.
29. The opportunity to sell on commission is good.
30. There are too few people working too many jobs in distribution.
31. You have to wait too long for promotions in a distributive occupation.
32. You do the same things over and over again in a distributive job.
33. Unions are not strong enough in distribution to really help the employees.
34. An employee's personality does not determine whether or not he is successful in distribution.
35. You don't have a chance to be recognized as an individual in a distributive occupation.
36. Distributive jobs would be attractive if you didn't have to work with customers.
37. Pay rates are shamefully inadequate in distribution.
38. Store work is exciting.
39. There is too much chance of getting fired in distribution.
40. Store managers usually are not community leaders.
41. The more education you have—the further you will go in the distribution field.
42. Supervisors are helpful and concerned in their dealings with employees.
43. It is necessary to work long hours if you want to get ahead in distribution.
44. Supervisors recognize young people as being the future leaders of their company.
45. Job experience in distribution is not that valuable.
46. The closeness of one's job to his home is not important.

47. Company benefits in distribution compared to other jobs are poor.

48. If you are close friends with "the right people" in your job you can get ahead a lot faster than by just working hard.

49. The presence of a number of people in distribution past the age of forty indicates that the field offers you security.

50. Commission selling is not good.

51. There are too many employees in most stores.

52. Supervisors in distributive occupations do not want you making suggestions for improvement.

53. You can learn a lot by watching your fellow employees.

54. Profit is the only concern of today's businessman.

55. Today's large store is usually an efficient well-managed operation.

56. The public generally looks down its nose at people who work in stores.

57. If you can't do anything else you can always sell something.

58. Store supervisors welcome helpful suggestions from their employees.

59. The employees working in distributive occupations are dull, uninteresting people.

60. Today's businessman is very much concerned about helping to solve the problems of our society.

61. Distribution suffers from incompetent supervisors and managers.

62. A job in distribution is recognized by most people as being a very responsible job.

63. A good salesman is an intelligent person who has to know a great deal about people.
APPENDIX C
APPENDIX D
The following is an opinion-type survey. It is part of a preliminary study being done to determine attitudes regarding work in the retailing occupations.

Your answers to these questions are extremely important. All answers will be confidential. However, if you do not wish to give your name or the name of your school, you may leave these spaces blank.

Thank you for your cooperation.
1. ___________________________ 2. ___________________________

Circle the Choice of Your Answer

3. Age
   1. 14
   2. 15
   3. 16
   4. 17 or over

4. Sex
   1. Male
   2. Female

5. My Present Employment Status:
   1. I am presently employed in retailing.
   2. I am not presently employed in retailing.
   3. I have worked previously in retailing, but I am not presently employed in retailing.

6. I plan to work full-time in a retailing job after graduation.
   1. YES
   2. NO

EACH STATEMENT below is an opinion expressed about some characteristic of a retailing occupation.

A retailing occupation is defined as any job dealing with the sale of goods to the consumer public. Department stores, small specialty stores and supermarkets are just a few of the many outlets thought of as being "retail."

Please consider these statements as if you were a full-time employee working in a retailing occupation.

There are no right or wrong answers. We simply want to know how you feel about the statement based on your experience working in a retailing occupation.

Select and circle one of the following answers given for each statement below.

All answers are confidential. Individual results will be known only to the researcher.

SA = Strongly Agree  A = Agree  U = Undecided  D = Disagree  SD = Strongly Disagree

7. You can get promoted fast in retailing.

8. You get a variety of assignments in a retail store.

9. One has a feeling that he is "needed" in retailing.
10. Meeting all kinds of customers is interesting and fun. SA A U D SD
11. Pay scales are adequate in retailing. SA A U D SD
12. Working in a store is extremely boring. SA A U D SD
13. Retailing occupations offer security. SA A U D SD
14. A store manager is a leader in his community. SA A U D SD
15. You learn a lot in a retailing occupation. SA A U D SD
16. Supervisors are too strict in retailing. SA A U D SD
17. Stores are pleasant places to work in. SA A U D SD
18. You have to work too many holidays and weekends in retailing. SA A U D SD
19. You might someday be able to own your own business as a result of having worked in retailing. SA A U D SD
20. Young employees are not treated fairly in retailing. SA A U D SD
21. Executive positions are readily available to the retail employee who works hard. SA A U D SD
22. Most stores are old-fashioned in their physical appearance. SA A U D SD
23. The opportunity to sell on commission is good. SA A U D SD
24. You have to wait too long for promotions in retailing. SA A U D SD
25. You do the same things over and over again in retailing. SA A U D SD
26. Unions are not strong enough in retailing to really help the employees. SA A U D SD
27. An employee's personality does not determine whether or not he is successful in retailing. SA A U D SD
28. You don't have a chance to be recognized as an individual in retailing. SA A U D SD
29. Retailing jobs would be attractive if you didn't have to work with customers.
30. Pay rates are shamefully inadequate in retailing.
31. Store work is exciting.
32. There is too much chance of getting fired in retailing.
33. The more education you have—the further you will go in retailing.
34. Supervisors are helpful and concerned in their dealings with employees.
35. Job experience in retailing is not that valuable.
36. Supervisors recognize young people as being the future leaders of their company.
37. The closeness of one's job to his home is not important.
38. Company benefits in retailing compared to other jobs are poor.
39. If you are close friends with "the right people" in retailing, you can get ahead a lot faster than just by working hard.
40. Commission selling is not good.
41. There are too many employees in most stores.
42. You can learn a lot by watching your fellow employees.
43. Profit is the only concern of today's businessman.
44. Today's large store is usually an efficient well-managed operation.
45. The public generally looks down its nose at people who work in stores.
46. Store supervisors welcome helpful suggestions from their employees.
47. The employees working in retailing are dull, uninteresting people.

48. Today's businessman is very much concerned about helping to solve the problems of our society.

49. Retailing suffers from incompetent supervisors and managers.

50. A job in retailing is recognized by most people as being a very responsible job.

51. A good salesman is an intelligent person who has to know a great deal about people.
APPENDIX F
Subject: Distributive Education Study

To: Cooperating Teachers

From: Tom Hephner
Distributive Education Materials Lab
115 Townshend Hall
Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210
Phone - 422-4277

The following study is an attempt to measure student attitudes toward retailing. The statements were developed from actual comments made by Distributive Education students during a preliminary study last year 1970-71.

Simply, we are interested in finding out whether a student will change his attitudes toward retailing during a school year as a result of his cooperative work experience in Distributive Education.

You and your school have been selected to help us in this study. If administrative clearance is necessary, please secure approval before starting. I will help in any possible way. Call me collect or I will visit your school if necessary. If your school policy is such that studies of this nature are prohibited--forget it. However, there is nothing about the instrument or study that should be deemed offensive in any manner. The value of such findings can be very helpful in our program objectives.

The schedule is as follows:

1) During the second week of September, 1971, you will receive 75 of the attitude scales. (See enclosed form)

2) Administer the attitude scales to your Senior D.E. class.
   a) We must have Senior students only who are working or will be working during the year.
   b) Each student should complete the scale and particularly sign his name. This is for no other reason than identification. No one will see the completed scales except the writer. No individual analysis of any kind is planned. We need the name only so group pre-test and post-test scores can be compared.
   c) The actual time for a class to fill out the scale should vary between 15 minutes to 30 minutes.
3) Obtain the cooperation of another teacher of Senior students who are not part of any Cooperative Work program. This can be an American Democracy class, Senior English, etc.

   a) The number of students should approximate the number of your D.E. class.

   b) The selected class should be of both sexes.

   c) Don't be concerned if a few students in the selected class work after school and on weekends.

   d) Administer the same attitude scale to the cooperating class of non-vocational students. Please be certain that each attitude scale is signed by the student for group identification purposes.

4) Send both sets of completed scales in the self-addressed envelope to Columbus.

5) The exact same process will be repeated in early May, 1972. The same scale (post-test) will be given to the same students. This is why names are important.

What Do We Hope To Accomplish?

1) Vocational students will be compared with non-vocational students prior to work experience to see if attitudes are similar.

2) Vocational students will be compared with non-vocational students after the work experience to see what changes have occurred.

We plan no comparison between a class or classes within a singular school. Test scores will be lumped together with other participating schools in Ohio. Comparisons between vocational and non-vocational students are all we are interested in. We hope to have a combined sample of 500 students representing 12 different schools in Ohio.

Thank you very much for your cooperation. If you want a copy of the final results, drop me a note when you return your May attitude scales and I will see that you, your school (if you wish), and your cooperating colleague all receive copies of the results of this study.

Thanks again for your help.

Tom Hephner
Date: April 17, 1972

MEMORANDUM to: Cooperating Teachers

From: Thomas Hephner

Subject: Distributive Education Study

First let me thank you and your cooperating teacher for gathering the data for us this past fall. We received many useful questionnaires, and the study is shaping up nicely, thanks to your cooperation.

The procedure is pretty much the same as last fall. I have enclosed the explanation of the project that we sent to you then. You may want to review it.

For this final step, here is what we need:

1. Pass out the enclosed attitude scales to the same students who took them last year. I have enclosed rosters of the students who took the original pre-test. This post-test is the same test and should be administered to the same students who completed the fall pre-test. Do not be concerned about absences, drop-outs, etc. We have allowed for this.

2. Names are important because we are comparing scores from pre-test to post-test. We are not concerned with individuals in that we care whether Jim Jones specifically increased or decreased his specific score. We are interested primarily in the positives who may have turned negative, etc.

3. After the forms have been completed, please return them to me in the enclosed envelope. I would like to have all returns in by May 8th.

I hope to complete the study in August. You will have mailed to your home address two copies of the findings—one for you and one for your cooperating colleagues.

Needless to day, I am in your debt. Please let me know what I might do for you. Thanks again for your help.

Tom Hephner

TH:vic
Circle the Choice of
Your Answer

3. Age
   1. 14
   2. 15
   3. 16
   4. 17 or over

4. Sex
   1. Male
   2. Female

5. My Present Employment Status:
   1. I am presently employed in retailing.
   2. I am not presently employed in retailing.
   3. I have worked previously in retailing, but I am not presently employed in retailing.

6. I plan to work full-time in a retailing job after graduation.
   1. YES
   2. NO

EACH STATEMENT below is an opinion expressed about some characteristic of a retailing occupation.

A retailing occupation is defined as any job dealing with the sale of goods to the consumer public. Department stores, small specialty stores and supermarkets are just a few of the many outlets thought of as being "retail."

Please consider these statements as if you were a full-time employee working in a retailing occupation.

There are no right or wrong answers. We simply want to know how you feel about the statement based on your experience working in a retailing occupation.

Select and circle one of the following answers given for each statement below.

All answers are confidential. Individual results will be known only to the researcher.

SA = Strongly Agree   A = Agree   U = Undecided   D = Disagree   SD = Strongly Disagree

7. You can get promoted fast in retailing.

8. You get a variety of assignments in a retail store.

9. One has a feeling that he is "needed" in retailing.

10. Meeting all kinds of customers is interesting and fund.  

11. Pay scales are adequate in retailing.  

12. Working in a store is extremely boring.  

13. Retailing occupations offer security.  

14. A store manager is a leader in his community.  

15. You learn a lot in a retailing occupation.  

16. Supervisors are too strict in retailing.  

17. Stores are pleasant places to work in.  

18. You have to work too many holidays and weekends in retailing.  

19. You might someday be able to own your own business as a result of having worked in retailing.  

20. Young employees are not treated fairly in retailing.  

21. Executive positions are readily available to the retail employee who works hard.  

22. Most stores are old-fashioned in their physical appearance.  

23. The opportunity to sell on commission is good.  

24. You have to wait too long for promotions in retailing.  

25. You do the same things over and over again in retailing.  

26. Unions are not strong enough in retailing to really help the employees.  

27. An employee's personality does not determine whether or not he is successful in retailing.
28. You don't have a chance to be recognized as an individual in retailing.

29. Retailing jobs would be attractive if you didn't have to work with customers.

30. Pay rates are shamefully inadequate in retailing.

31. Store work is exciting.

32. There is too much chance of getting fired in retailing.

33. The more education you have—the further you will go in retailing.

34. Supervisors are helpful and concerned in their dealings with employees.

35. Job experience in retailing is not that valuable.

36. Supervisors recognize young people as being the future leaders of their company.

37. The closeness of one's job to his home is not important.

38. Company benefits in retailing compared to other jobs are poor.

39. If you are close friends with "the right people" in retailing, you can get ahead a lot faster than just by working hard.

40. Commission selling is not good.

41. There are too many employees in most stores.

42. You can learn a lot by watching your fellow employees.

43. Profit is the only concern of today's businessman.

44. Today's large store is usually an efficient well-managed operation.
45. The public generally looks down its nose at people who work in stores. SA A U D SD
46. Store supervisors welcome helpful suggestions from their employees. SA A U D SD
47. The employees working in retailing are dull, uninteresting people. SA A U D SD
48. Today's businessman is very much concerned about helping to solve the problems of our society. SA A U D SD
49. Retailing suffers from incompetent supervisors and managers. SA A U D SD
50. A job in retailing is recognized by most people as being a very responsible job. SA A U D SD
51. A good salesman is an intelligent person who has to know a great deal about people. SA A U D SD
FINAL LIKERT ATTITUDE SCALE  
(See Appendix G)  

ITEMS CLASSIFIED AS VARIABLES FOR STATISTICAL ANALYSIS  

I. Job Prerequisites  

27. An employee's personality does not determine whether or not he is successful in retailing.  
33. The more education you have—the further you will go in retailing.  
35. Job experience in retailing is not that valuable.  
51. A good salesman is an intelligent person who has to know a great deal about people.  

II. Financial Reward  

11. Pay scales are adequate in retailing.  
23. The opportunity to sell on commission is good.  
26. Unions are not strong enough in retailing to really help the employees.  
30. Pay rates are shamefully inadequate in retailing.  
38. Company benefits in retailing compared to other jobs are poor.  
40. Commission selling is not good.  

III. Career (Promotion Opportunities)  

7. You can get promoted fast in retailing.  
13. Retailing occupations offer security.  
19. You might someday be able to own your own business as a result of having worked in retailing.  
21. Executive positions are readily available to the retail employee who works hard.  
24. You have to wait too long for promotions in retailing.  
32. There is too much chance of getting fired in retailing.  
36. Supervisors recognize young people as being the future leaders of their company.  
39. If you are close friends with "the right people" in retailing, you can get ahead a lot faster than just by working hard.  
41. There are too many employees in most stores.  

IV. Status  

9. One has a feeling that he is "needed" in retailing.  
12. Working in a store is extremely boring.  
14. A store manager is a leader in his community.  
20. Young employees are not treated fairly in retailing.
IV. Status (continued)

22. Most stores are old-fashioned in their physical appearance.
28. You don't have a chance to be recognized as an individual in retailing.
44. Today's large store is usually an efficient well-managed operation.
45. The public generally looks down its nose at people who work in stores.
48. Today's businessman is very much concerned about helping to solve the problems of our society.
50. A job in retailing is recognized by most people as being a very responsible job.

V. Working Conditions

8. You get a variety of assignments in a retail store.
15. You learn a lot in a retailing occupation.
16. Supervisors are too strict in retailing.
17. Stores are pleasant places to work in.
18. You have to work too many holidays and weekends in retailing.
25. You do the same things over and over again in retailing.
31. Store work is exciting.
34. Supervisors are helpful and concerned in their dealings with employees.
37. The closeness of one's job to his home is not important.

VI. Human Relations

10. Meeting all kinds of customers is interesting and fun.
29. Retailing jobs would be attractive if you didn't have to work with customers.
42. You can learn a lot by watching your fellow employees.
43. Profit is the only concern of today's businessman.
46. Store supervisors welcome helpful suggestions from their employees.
47. The employees working in retailing are dull, uninteresting people.
49. Retailing suffers from incompetent supervisors and managers.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Reports


