

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PRESIDENT'S YOUTH
OPPORTUNITY CAMPAIGN IN RELATION TO
ATTITUDE CHANGE TOWARD EDUCATION
AND EARNING A LIVING

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to study attitude changes. This study has the following four major objectives: (1) To determine the effect of the Youth Opportunity Campaign on participants' attitudes toward education and earning a living; (2) To measure and analyze attitude changes after employment in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign; (3) To assess the effectiveness of the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign in changing participants' attitudes and accomplishing project objectives; (4) To make recommendations for state and national policy decisions in the formation and functioning of youth employment programs.

An attitude is a learned behavioral motive whose formation and alteration is an organized and systematic process. The end product of the socialization process is embodied in attitudes of the individual and are reflected in his words and deeds. Man's daily interaction with other persons, his interpersonal interaction in groups, and his dealings with cultural products are related to the formation of his own definite and persistent attitudes, and jointly effect the attitudes of others.

Forming an attitude toward a group, an institution, or

a social issue means one is no longer neutral in his perception of them; they possess value for him in a positive or a negative way. An attitude determines a certain expectation, standard, or goal in reference to certain items or events which bring about satisfaction. Events contrary to the expectations determined by an attitude arouse dissatisfaction proportional to the value of that attitude to the individual. The needs of an individual are the basis of his attitudes and serve as motivators of behavior (Sherif & Sherif, 1956). Thus, an attitude important to the individual becomes a motive. It defines what is preferred, expected, and desired and marks off what is undesirable and to be avoided. Therefore, an attitude is goal directed.

If the attitude of a person toward a given object, or class of objects, is known, one can consider other situational variables and predict the behavior of that person in reference to specific objects and events.

This chapter will define attitude as that term is used both in theory and measurement and will consider specific characteristics of the concept. The nature of attitude change in relation to internal and external sources of stimulation will be examined.

The Definition of Attitude

Definitions of the term attitude are numerous and varied. However, the existing definitions agree upon one common characteristic: Attitudes entail an existing predisposition to

respond to social objects which, in interaction with others situational variables, guide and direct the overt behavior of the individual (Cardno, 1955).

One question is whether behavior related to a given attitude should be specifically or generally defined. The issue concerns the degree to which attitudes may be considered to have a specific referent. A review of theorists shows that Eysenck (1947) and Rokeach (1960) tend to make attitudes a generalized and pervasive disposition of the person, while Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953), Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962), and Sherif and Cantril (1945) consider attitudes to have a specific referent, or class of referents. The latter point of view has the advantage of preventing the term from becoming so generic as to be valueless in research studies.

Another question concerns the composition of an attitude. The conception of attitude advanced by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957) and Anderson and Fishbein (1965) generally is accepted. It considers attitudes to have three components: affect, cognition, and behavior. This viewpoint considers an attitude to be a set of evaluative reactions, based upon evaluative concepts, which are closely related to other cognitions and to overt behavior (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961; Rhine, 1958). This concept of attitude has the advantage of relating the term with the nature of attitude change accepted by most authorities. This concept also related to the operations of the attitude scales used in this research.

There are a number of common definitions of attitude which have become formal with use of the term:

"An individual's social attitude is a syndrome of response consistency with regard to social objects" (Campbell, 1950, p. 31).

"An enduring learned predisposition to behave in a consistent way toward a given class of objects" (English & English, 1958, p. 50).

"A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport, 1954, p. 45).

Anderson and Fishbein (1965) define attitude as the evaluative dimension of a concept, after Osgood (1957), and suggest that the attitude toward an object is the sum of the strength of beliefs about the object.

Thus, an attitude is a relatively enduring system of evaluative, affective reactions based upon concepts or beliefs which have been learned about a social object or class of social objects.

Characteristics of Attitudes

Considering the definitions, it is observed that attitudes are specific, interrelated, predispositions to respond overtly to something. In addition to being predispositions to respond to social objects, attitudes possess the following general characteristics:

I. Attitudes are based upon evaluative concepts regarding characteristics of the referents object and give rise to motivated behavior (Anderson & Fishbein, 1965; Osgood, 1957). Attitudes are affective reactions which evaluate concepts (are goal oriented) and give rise to motivation. Perceived success or failure causes frustration, deprivation, or gratification, depending on whether or not the attitude referent is goal facilitating. As affective reactions, attitudes are conceptualizations which serve as motives. To conceptualize is to place two or more entities, abstract or physical, in some relationship. In this instance, it is placing the object of the attitude in some relationship with the goals of the conceiver.

II. Attitudes vary on a continuum from positive through neutral to negative (Krech, 1962; McGrath, 1964; Newcomb, Turner, & Converse, 1965). The evaluation of the object of an attitude is related to an individual's goals. This evaluation is the quality of the attitude in terms of the individual's needs and may be located on a positive-negative continuum in relation to goal attainment. The strength or intensity of the attitude is represented by its position on the continuum and reflects its affective strength. Therefore, the quality of the attitude represents its strength as a motivator.

The neutral point of the attitude continuum poses a problem of interpretation, to which several solutions have been proposed. The neutral point has been defined as the

lack of predisposition to respond, i.e., no attitude toward the object in question (Shall & Wright, 1967). The neutral point has also been proposed to represent the point of balance in positive-negative evaluative conflict, thereby reflecting an ambivalent attitude (Guttman, 1954). Finally, the neutral point has been interpreted as a lack of integrated, clearly defined attitudes regarding the object (Walter, 1951).

III. Attitudes are learned, rather than being innate or a result of constitutional development and maturation (McGrath, 1964; Sherif & Sherif, 1956). Attitudes are learned through interaction, usually in social stimulus situations (Sherif & Sherif, 1956). Since they are learned, attitudes demonstrate the same properties as other learned reactions such as latency and threshold, and they are subject to change through thinking, inhibition, extinction, fatigue, etc. (Gallenbech & Smith, 1950).

IV. Attitudes have specific referents, or classes of referents (Newcomb, 1965; Sherif & Sherif, 1956). These social referents may be concrete or abstract and result from direct or indirect contact with the object or situation. Attitudes vary in definitiveness and scope according to the number and kinds of objects encompassed as referents (Krech, 1962). Krech uses the term multiplexity to refer to the scope of attitude. A multiplex attitude is one possessing a large number, or a heterogeneous group, of objects. Definitiveness refers to the precision with which members of the

referent class are defined. A small number of objects or homogeneous group of objects is more precisely defined than a large number or heterogeneous group. Thus, simplex attitudes should be more definitive and become more extreme and intense. Definitiveness is referred to as the "latitude of acceptance" by Hovland (1957). He states that central attitudes tend to be stronger than peripheral ones, and therefore, should be more definitive and less multiplex.

V. Attitudes possess varying degrees of interrelatedness (Krech, 1962; McGraw, 1964). Attitudes are interrelated when they possess common evaluations to similar referents. Attitudes which are highly interrelated form clusters or subsystems. These subsystems are interrelated and form the total attitudinal system of the individual. More central attitudes are highly interrelated, causing them to be maximally resistant to change for two reasons: (1) to change on central attitude causes change and breakdown of many peripheral attitudes; (2) more central attitudes possess greater value, i.e., are of greater importance, to the individual. The more central attitudes are assumed to be more resistant to change, due to more efficient reinforcement during learning.

VI. Attitudes are relatively stable and enduring (Sherif & Sherif, 1956). To the extent that all persons strive for perceptual closure, central attitudes tend to remain unchanged, and when attitudes vary with regard to centrality, they also vary in the degree to which they can be altered.

The major sources of stability in attitudes are, there-

fore, their interrelatedness, their history of reinforcement in learning, and the active resistance to change by their possessor in situations threatening his needs or disrupting his perceptual closure.

The Nature of Attitude Change

Attitudes cannot be explained ~~solely~~ in terms of factors outside the individual or factors within the person. Both internal and external influences interact jointly to shape a particular psychological organization or pattern of perception which is revealed in human behavior. The relation between outside stimuli and internal impulses interdependently determine situational variations in the expression of attitudes. Sherif and Sherif (1956) refer to this totality of external and internal factor interaction as the "immediate frame of reference." Buxton (1942) has given a similar definition of the term: a background of stimulation which influences the expression attitudes.

The salient factors which tend to determine the individual's immediate frames of reference should be included in any analysis of attitude change. The internal process of attitude change is best defined in relation to the individual's psychological structure, his organized set of cognitions about himself and his world. Finally, the external or social factors of attitude change should be analyzed in relation to reference group influences.

Cognitive Models of Attitude Change

The psychological process of attitude change has been analyzed in reference to three not entirely different cognitive models of attitude change. These models are: the congruity model (Osgood, 1960 & Tannenbaum, 1953), the balance model (Heider, 1958), and the consonance-dissonance model (Festinger, 1957).

Each model introduces the principle of cognitive consistency, a principle based on the idea that psychological structure is an integrated, organized, set of cognitions regarding some object or event. According to Katz (1960) and Brown (1962), each model states that the introduction of new information can disrupt the existing organization and produce disequilibrium. Thus, each model attempts to understand the adjustment made between the existing structure and new information so that equilibrium is achieved.

Each model denotes cognitions as the image or map of the world held by an individual. Cognitions are organized into a system which provides meaning and stability. Thus, in all cognitive reactions like perceiving, thinking, imagining, and reasoning there is a continual striving for harmonious relationships between the thoughts, beliefs, and actions that make up an attitude. When inconsistency occurs, the individual is motivated to reduce it and establish harmony. In effect, the cognitive process constantly strives for cognitive balance.

These cognitive models have as their starting point the

principle of consistency-inconsistency and explain attitude change as a strain toward cognitive consistency.

Social Factors in Attitude Change

People do not exist in isolation; their thoughts and attitudes are interwoven through constant interpersonal interaction with those of other people. Every person is a member of at least one group, the norms of which are accepted as personal values and the goals of which are internalized as his own goals. Sherif and Sherif (1956) designate this type of groups as being the individual's reference group and the prime source of values which regulate his behavior. The attitudes of an individual are derived from the values and norms of his reference groups, whether it be as a son of a family or a member of a gang. The possibility of conflicts between the values of two or more reference groups for a particular individual is obvious.

Just how much effect decisions made in the course of interpersonal interactions have on the attitudes and behavior of participants was studied by Lewin (1943) during World War II in reference to strongly held food preferences. The aim was to change the consumption patterns of housewives from food which they ordinarily ate to meats which they usually passed by. It was found that more women from sessions in which individual decisions were made after discussion served the unfamiliar meats than did housewives from sessions in which participants had heard only a lecture.

A similar investigation by Pennington, Haravey, and Bass

(1958) found that opinions changed more when discussion was allowed than when it was not. Bennet (1955) found that both the act of making a decision and the degree of consensus perceived by the individual appeared to account for the effectiveness of interpersonal interaction decisions in bringing about attitude conformity. Additional support for the importance of interpersonal discussion in decision-making comes from an experiment by Mitnick and McGinnies (1958) in which interpersonal discussion was found to have greater long-term effectiveness in changing attitudes than did lectures.

Thus, decisions arrived at in interpersonal interactions serve to motivate participants to work on a common task and to accept derived solutions. A member of a group which is important to him, his reference group, accepts goals established by the group as his personal goals and group values as his own (Sherif & Sherif, 1964). All salient factors contributing to the immediate frame of reference of the individual should be considered in reference to attitude formation and change; highly important among the salient factors are the values of the individual's reference group.

Summary

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. Attitude change is a change in predisposition, i.e., a hypothetical state which causes a person to respond selectively and affectively to a

stimulus, the change being either in the organization or structure of beliefs or in the content of the beliefs entering into the attitude organization.

An attitude is observed through a characteristic mode of behavior, verbal or nonverbal, and a change of attitude is assessed through significant changes in this mode of behavior. Attitude change seldom implies reduction to a state of neutrality, but means a change from one stand to another on an issue.

In attitude change, the interrelation of internal and external factors influence the direction and range of change. An attitude is changed in relation to objects, persons, or situations through interpersonal relations, especially in groups. However, these outside influences alone are not sufficient to account for the change of an attitude. The individual's own cognitive selectivity, largely determined by existing motives and attitudes, has to be considered as well. The psychological process of attitude change presented above was not intended to resolve conflicts in the various theories, but rather to present common concepts found in each. Each of these theories, in part at least, views man as striving for harmonious integration of cognitions and sees attitude change as the individual's attempt to resolve conflicting or dissonant cognitive relationships and adapt to his social stimulus situations.

CHAPTER II

PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESIS

The problem is to measure attitudes toward education and earning a living, and determine if attitude change occurs after subjects participate in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign in which they are exposed to a series of communications. The President's Youth Opportunity at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area has as its purpose the creation of healthy educational and occupational attitudes among economically disadvantaged youth through summer employment and counseling. Due to the action orientation of this program, there is an absence of opportunity for treatment variation and experimental controls. Thus, the subjects' pre-employment attitudes must be the base line from which treatment effects, in the form of attitude formation and change, are assessed. To measure initial attitudes and the extent of attitude change, attitude scales must be given prior to participation in the program and immediately after its completion.

The program includes, in conjunction with various types of jobs, communications in lecture and demonstration form once a week for the ten weeks duration of the program. These communications are generally related to the purposes of the Campaign.

A complete description of the Manpower Research and Training Program under the auspices of which this study was conducted and the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign is presented in Appendix A.

Related Studies In Attitude Change

The coordination of Youth Opportunity Programs to maximize meaningful employment for youth at federal, state, and local government levels has secured \$1.5 million in planning funds for the nation's 50 largest cities (President's Council On Youth Opportunity, March 1, 1968). The planning grants have enabled each of the 50 cities to appoint a youth coordinator for implementation of a city wide employment program. An estimate of funds and jobs for disadvantaged youth in 1968 totals \$490,000,000 and 796,000 jobs (Appendix B).

A review of available information in federal programs assisting children and youth provides no information on the effectiveness of such programs in terms of assessment of attitude formation and change. The information most frequently given includes only the size and expenditures of the programs with no indication of results. This lack is primarily due to such information being either non-existent or restricted to particular agencies without publication in the scientific literature.

Further personal investigation by the writer resulted in his conclusion that the Youth Opportunity Campaign offered at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area is unique, in that he

found no evidence to indicate the existence of a comparable program. No effort is feasible, therefore, to compare the program studied in this research to similar programs.

Attitude change among participants of the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign at Oklahoma Air Materiel Area is intended to result from two specific aspects of the program: (1) exposure to weekly communications in the form of films, lectures, and demonstrations; (2) interpersonal interaction of participants in small gatherings from time to time. These forms of communication persuasion are identified respectively as one-way exposure situations (lack of active participation toward a common goal) and contact situations (individual interaction in regard to mutually shared interests). In addition to the specific persuasion situation, the participants involvement in their assigned jobs is intended to result in positive attitude shifts.

The following selection of related studies was limited to cases in which the effectiveness of these situations were examined.

One-Way Exposure to Communications

Experiments using communication to change attitudes have presented speeches, written material, debates, discussions, motion pictures, and entire courses of study. Surveys like Murphy, Murphy, and Newcomb (1937) and Williams (1947) show that most studies report some shifts of attitude in the direction intended by the communication. Other studies have reported no changes or unpredictable shifts where some sub-

jects changed toward the communication and others changed in the opposite direction.

A summary of thirty-one studies dealing with social attitudes, superstitions, and scientific attitudes was presented by Arthur Lichtenstein (1934). Some of the conclusions were based upon careful experiments, while others were not so well founded.

Of these studies, fourteen said that instruction of one sort or another produced no favorable change in attitudes. For example, Young (1927) found that college students showed no change in racial attitudes after a course in Sociology. Symonds (1925) found that higher schools (grades eight through college) created little change in social attitudes. Garrison-Mann (1931) found that college courses affected male college students' social and religious attitudes very little.

Fourteen other studies reported that some kind of instruction does produce change in attitudes. For example, Biddle (1932) found that among high school students racial and national, and social attitudes were significantly affected by lessons in propaganda. Chen (1933) further found that among college students propaganda affected change in racial and national attitudes. Droba (1932) and Willoughby (1930) found that college courses effected change in social attitudes among students. Clark (1930) found that children became less prejudiced as they advanced in education. Willey and Rice (1924) found that among college students, one speech made changes in scientific attitudes.

Finally, the results of three studies are ambiguous, i.e., the change operates both ways, or in an unpredicted way. For example, Maller-Lundeen (1933) found that among junior and senior high school students, education tended to correct, but some times fostered, superstitions and common beliefs. Gilliland (1930) found that among college students one course in psychology reduced superstitious beliefs markedly.

By subdividing these studies into three major classes, it was found that in the social attitudes (including racial, national, and economic) eight found change, eight did not, and two were hazy; in common beliefs, two found a change, four did not, and one was open; in scientific attitudes, five found a change and two did not. The last two classifications overlap considerably, (common belief and scientific) and if they are combined, the score is six to six, exactly in the same proportion as the studies in social attitudes. The conclusion, therefore, is that factors other than the communications or their contents are critical in determining attitude formations and change.

Analyzing the results by populations, it is found that studies using college students as subjects reported a definite change occurring in six cases and no change in seven. In the studies involving high school students, seven found changes due to education, and six found no such changes. Among junior high school pupils two studies said yes, and three said no change in attitudes. Finally, elementary

school pupils changed in one case and did not in the other, which supported the conclusion evidenced by the other populations that age and level of education makes little difference in the occurrence of attitude change.

A review of studies outside of classroom and lecture situations also yield inconsistent results. Murphy et al. (1937) noted that frequently studies reported most prominent shifts in attitude scores following communications were by individuals whose initial scores were "neutral" or "undecided". Schlorff (1930) studied the effect of weekly classes in the history and status of Negroes on the way ninth-graders ranked racial groups. A significant upward shift in rank assigned to Negroes was found for the experimental group while the rank assigned to Negroes by the control group remained the same. However, the rank assigned to Negroes by experimental subjects was still toward the lower end of the scale.

Cherrington and Miller (in Murphy et al., 1937) compared the effects of a speech and pamphlet favoring pacifism on attitudes of college students toward war. The experimental groups shifted considerably more in the anti-war direction than did control groups (not exposed to speech or pamphlet) and the shift was more lasting for the experimental groups.

Studies such as the Peterson and Thurstone studies (1933) using motion pictures found that while viewing one motion picture one time had no effect on attitude scores, two or three films on the same topic might produce significant effects. Length, interval between presentations, and

number of repetitions of propaganda representing a certain stand were found to be important factors in effecting attitude change.

A number of studies indicate that presenting communications designed to influence attitudes, regularly over a time period, does not guarantee attitude change. One experiment in particular by Campbell and Stover (1933) found that eighteen weeks of high school classes emphasizing anti-war material and respect for other nations had no significant effect on attitude test scores.

Finally, of equal importance to the shift in attitude toward a stand presented in a communication is the finding that a communication sometimes produces an effect opposite from that of the communication. In some studies, shifts were found away from the stand presented. Sherif and Sherif (1956) call this result "contrast effect". For example, Manske (1935) studied the effect of 10 lessons on the Negro in twenty-two high school classes. Test scores on the Hinckley scale for two classes shifted in the direction of the teacher's position on the topic and test scores in eight classes shifted in the direction opposed to the teacher's stand.

In an attempt to explain unexpected attitude change, Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953) investigated the effects of persuasive communications as they are affected by the communication, the source of the communication, and the audience to which it is presented. By varying the source of communi-

cation had greater effect when its source is regarded by subjects as trustworthy and reliable than when the source seemed untrustworthy to them. Audiences were found to learn the content of a communication regardless of the source, but they were persuaded more by the "high credibility" sources. Thus, an individual's attitudes toward the content and the source of communications are interacting factors in determining the effect of persuasive communications.

Contact Situations and Attitude Change

Contact situations include a variety of human relationships in which the individual interacts with other people. When the persons involved have established social relations, as in membership and/or reference groups, the norms and practices of the group become highly significant sources of attitude change.

Newcomb's Bennington College study (1948) reported the effects of shifts in reference groups upon attitudes. At geographically isolated Bennington College for women there existed tightly knit campus groups. Most students spent the majority of the school year on campus. This small, rather homogenous, student body was taught by a faculty which expressed liberal stands on the social and political issues of the time. For a great majority of the students, who were for the most part from conservative homes, the college community, over time, became their reference group. The majority of the students had shifted by their Senior year from the conservative stands they held during their freshman year

to liberal stands. The differences on six of the nine social issues tested were statistically significant. However, this direction of attitude change did not occur for all students. Some students apparently continued to be influenced by their families and maintained their conservative attitudes. These students did not relate to the college community as a reference group. Newcomb concluded that the attitude changes which occurred were explainable in terms of the reference group concept. For the majority, the college community was effective in providing a sense of belongingness, a sense of status and achievement.

In 1949 Newcomb sent follow-up questionnaires to the Bennington graduates involved in the study and found that the longer the residence in this "closely knit, integrated community", the greater was the change in attitude and the greater the persistence of the changed attitudes (Newcomb, 1950).

A study by Brophy (1946) lends support to Newcomb's study by finding that prolonged positive interactions with individuals belonging to a discriminated minority (Negroes) results in attitude changes in favorable directions. In his study among seamen, crew members reduced their prejudice toward Negroes with whom they experienced common dangers and joint efforts on the job.

Lewin (1943) found individual participation in discussion sessions results in more changes in attitudes than the lecture method. Lewin's findings imply that a man's atti-

tudes are derived from the norms of a group to which the individual relates himself. Attitudes are formed by the individual as a result of his active participation in a group setting and, therefore, will resist changes when he is merely exposed to a lecture contrary to his beliefs. A change in social attitudes must either involve change in the attitudes of his reference group or his changing his reference group (Sherif & Sherif, 1956). Cartwright and Zander state "Although group standard can change, the more striking characteristic about them is their enduring quality" (1953, p. 149).

Relation of Youth Opportunity Campaign to Pertinent Studies

From the information derived from the studies on attitudes, and attitude change, the question arises as to whether a relatively enduring system of cognitive evaluations can be changed in ten weeks of work experience and exposure to scheduled communications. Features of the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign are considered with related studies.

Time Limit

Several investigators, e.g., Young (1927), Garrison-Mann (1931), would consider ten, forty hour work weeks too short a time for effectively changing attitudes. Other studies have reported marked attitude change in less than one third of this time period, e.g., Willey and Rice (1924), Gilland (1930). Considering the positive relationship between time spent in group interaction and the amount of at-

titude change, Sherif & Sherif (1956), it is possible that this program did not provide enough time to effect attitude change.

Group Influence

The procedure for selection of youths in this program yields a segmented and heterogeneous aggregate of individuals. No groups, existing per se, are involved directly in the program. The subjects are individually dispersed to different job locations. Only a few assignments permit subjects to work together on the same project at the same job site. The subjects spend only one third of each twenty-four hour period at work. The remainder of each day is spent "at home" in familiar background situations which very likely, in many instances at least, interfere with the establishment of work-related reference groups. The formation of reference groups within the program is further hindered due to the lack of peer friendships, and group interaction among the subjects. It is probably that the subjects' reference groups remain in their respective background, off the job, situations. Therefore, the amount of individual identification with work groups is likely not sufficient to produce attitude change. The factors of age difference and the socio-economic gap between the young summer employees and permanent employees also limits the possibilities for the formation of reference groups on the job. Therefore, the limited amount of active participation by subjects in group settings reduces the possibilities for group interaction in changing attitudes.

Presentation and Content of the Scheduled Communications

The majority of the communications are presented in lecture form. This allows only for one-way exposure and little active participation by the subjects in decision making. The lecture approach, being one of the least effective techniques of attitude change, may be expected to have little influence on attitude change.

The content of the scheduled communications (Appendix A) is only generally related to the attitudes being studied and lacks continuity. In addition, only one-fourth of the subjects participate, and there are only one or two discussion periods involved in this study (others were scheduled but participation was lacking). Therefore, the communications in this program are felt to hold little promise as a source of attitude change.

Work Experience

Research has confirmed that work experience can be a prime source for establishing positive or negative attitudes, depending upon the degree of job satisfaction offered. Problems from the lack of job satisfaction among industrial workers has been evidenced by a lack of individual commitment to the job (Dubin, 1956). Weiss and Kahn (1959) found that a vast majority of workers view work as imposed, not enjoyed, and negative, rather than freely chosen, productive, and positive. Argyris (1957) and McGregor (1960) deplored the lack of need satisfying and self-actualizing job elements available to the worker in an industrial environment.

In a study by Barrett, Katzell, and Parker (1961), it was observed that urban workers expressed less job satisfaction and desired greater job satisfaction than small town employees. It was found that job satisfaction was positively related to two aspects of job performance: (1) quantity, i.e., the number of products processed per man hour of production; and (2) profitability, i.e., the net profit realized by the employee.

Axelrad, Ginzberg, Ginsberg, and Herma (1951) found that the individual usually recognizes three main sources of job satisfaction: (1) return in the form of monetary rewards and prestige; (2) intrinsic satisfaction or pleasure in a specific activity and its accomplishment; and (3) concomitant satisfactions, such as working in a particular environment or with a particular group.

Several studies have indicated differences in satisfaction derived from intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic job factors. Feld, Gurin, and Veroff (1960) found that a greater satisfaction was derived from "ego satisfying work," and a more limited and less intrinsic satisfaction when gratification comes mainly from extrinsic aspects of the job. Hoffman and Mann (1956) found that job interest increased with more stimulating and meaningful job content. Kornhauser (1962) found similarly that jobs requiring well-developed skills offer greater mental health than repetitive machine operators.

Paul F. Wernimont (1966) found that subjects endorsed

more intrinsic than extrinsic factors in self-descriptions of past satisfying job situations. Achievement opportunities, job content, and responsibility were mentioned most often in describing past satisfying situations. Lack of advancement and recognition were most often mentioned in dissatisfying situations. It was concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors are more prominent in both cases. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) found that the development and full use of one's capacities and talents, along with work group and work situation satisfactions, were important sources of intrinsic reward. Barrett, Prien, and Svetlik (1964) found that as job difficulty increased, employee attitudes were significantly more positive toward the job.

Therefore, positive work attitudes generally accompany increased responsibility and challenging work assignments. More tangible evidence of recognition, such as increased salary or better working conditions is likewise associated with positive attitudes.

The work offered in the Youth Opportunity Campaign at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area, is questionable as a positive source of attitudes. Little consideration is given to subjects' qualifications in job selection due to the work being in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. Subjects have little choice in determining the type work they perform. The content of the jobs offered, especially to males, con-

tain few intrinsic elements, such as opportunity for advancement, feedback from quantity and profitability of the job, stimulating and responsible assignments, and good salaries.

Hypotheses

On the basis of the research evidence presented and the conditions existing in the Youth Opportunity Campaign, hypotheses are advanced concerning the attitudes and attitude changes toward education and earning a living which take place over the ten week duration of the program.

Concerning Attitudes

1. (a) Subjects' will have moderately positive pre-test and post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living.
- (b) Subjects' pre-test attitudes toward education will be more positive than their pre-test attitudes toward earning a living.
- (c) Subjects' post-test attitudes toward education will be more positive than post-test attitudes toward earning a living.
2. (a) Pre-test attitudes toward education will not vary with age (younger versus older subjects).
- (b) Pre-test attitudes toward education will not vary with prior work experience (less experienced versus more experienced subjects).
- (c) Pre-test attitudes toward education will not vary on the basis of sex.

3. (a) Pre-test attitudes toward earning a living will be more positive for older subjects as compared with younger subjects.
 - (b) Pre-test attitudes toward earning a living will be more positive for male subjects as compared to female subjects.
 - (c) Pre-test attitudes toward earning a living will be more positive for subjects with more prior work experience as compared with those with less prior work experience.
4. (a) Post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living will be more positive for females as compared to males.
 - (b) Post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living will be more positive for older subjects as compared to younger subjects.
 - (c) Post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living will be more positive for subjects with more prior work experience than subjects with less prior work experience.
 - (d) Subjects having prior experience in the Youth Opportunity Campaign will have lower, but more stable attitudes (will not change in the course of the program) toward education and earning a living, as compared to subjects with no work experience or work experience outside the program.

Concerning Attitude Change

5. (a) Subjects participating in the program will show no attitude change toward education.
- (b) Subjects participating in the program will show no attitude change toward earning a living.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

In the Oklahoma City metropolitan area, during the month of June, 1967, 10,000 youth applied for summer employment through the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission. From this number, 2,200 youth between the ages of 16 and 21 qualified for the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign being conducted at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area. The selection of these youth were based upon two criteria. First, they had to be from lower income families, as previously defined, and second, the youth had to express an interest and commitment for returning to school.

Two hundred and thirty-four youth were initially employed to receive ten weeks of employment and developmental services offered by this summer program. However, fifteen youth resigned for various reasons and 219 youth actually completed the entire program. From this group of 219 youth, a sample of 201 (92%) youth was taken as subjects of this research. The exclusion of these 33 youth from the sample was due to random factors not related to the subjects of the sampling procedure, such as illness, leaving the program for better jobs, and the like. Therefore, the sample is con-

sidered representative of the youth in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign.

The characteristics of the sample are these:

General

Sex male (40.2%), female (59.8%); Race White (57.7%), Negro (37.6%), Indian (3.4%), Spanish (1.3%); Age 17.9 (mean), 16 (22), 17 (46), 18 (81), 19 (33), 20 (13), 21 (6); Marital Status single (92.4%), married (2.6%); Community rural (24.4%), urban (75.6%); Home (48.7% broken homes) father--deceased or not living at home (41.6%), mother--deceased or not living at home (7.2%); Average number of children in family (3), 2 to 5 (62%); Income Source father (45.2%), mother (27.8%), welfare (19.4%), other (16.6%); Annual Family Income All youth--male (\$3826), female (\$4519), White--male (\$3737), female (\$4545), Negro--male (\$3004), female (\$3044), Indian--male (\$3464), female (\$3628), Spanish--male (\$6850), female (\$4800).

Education

Subject's Level 11.98 (mean grade); Grade Point Average 2.59 (4 point system); Parent's Level father (10.75), mother (11.45); Subject's Advanced Education Choice 4-year college (36.2%), university (22.4%), business college (17.1%), vocational-technical school (17.5%); Subject's Reported Parental Attitude Toward Education favor (82.2%), disfavor (3.1%), neutral (14.7%).

No subject indicated that he or she would drop out of school if it were possible and 96.5 percent of them stated

that they were considering post high school education. The reasons most often given for staying in school were, "desire to succeed in today's world" (38.2%) and "desire to gain knowledge" (38.1%).

A follow-up survey of youth returning to high school after the 1966 Y.O.C. was conducted. Out of the 230 youth in the 1966 program, a sample of 206 (90%) was taken to determine the number of youth returning to high school. Of those sampled high school youth, 90 percent actually did return to school. The 10 percent (21) tallied as "drop-outs" were not enrolled in any form of higher education to the knowledge of their high school. Those persons who dropped out and were attending night school or technical institutes were tallied as being enrolled.

Work Experience

There were 64 (31.8%) males who had work experience, but had never been in the Y.O.C. There were 14 (6.5%) males who had work experience and had been in the Y.O.C. and 3 (1.5%) who had never had a job.

There were 78 (38.8%) females who had work experience, but had never been in the Y.O.C. There were 23 (11.4%) females who had work experience and had been in the Y.O.C. and 19 (9.5%) who had never had a job.

Measurement Techniques

Questionnaires

A pre- and post-employment questionnaire was constructed.

The post-employment form was follow-up of similar questions asked on the pre-employment questionnaire and allowed for comparison of subject responses before and after exposure to the summer program at O.C.A.M.A. The questionnaires were developed from a series of topics designated in the research design and were used in the assessment of the Campaign. The chairman of the candidate's Master's Thesis Committee approved the selection of questions and counseling staff of Project MOD reviewed the questionnaires and improvements were suggested (Appendix C).

Attitude Scales

Included in the questionnaires were attitude scales pertaining to education and earning a living which were also given before and after employment. The Attitude Toward Earning A Living Scale was constructed by Hinckley and Hinckley (1939) in connection with a study of the effects of a work relief program on attitudes. Hinckley collected approximately 800 statements by reviewing work relief literature and by asking a number of persons to state their own opinions about earning a living. These were edited to 188 statements which were scaled by the Thurstone method of equal-appearing intervals. This included sorting the statements into one of eleven intervals according to degree of favorableness or unfavorableness of feeling toward earning a living expressed by each statement. Each statement was rated on an eleven point rating scale and the scale became the psychological continuum on which the statements were judged and all that

is required is that some average value be found for the distribution of judgments obtained for each statement. The average value can then be taken as the scale value of the statement on the eleven point continuum (Edward, 1957).

After discarding judges who appeared to be careless, Hinckley used 217 sortings to compute scale and Q values. After discarding items with large Q values, indicating little agreement among judges of the degree of favorableness or unfavorableness of a statement, 27 items were selected to provide an even distribution from the lowest to the highest scale value.

The subjects Hinckley used for the scaling procedure were 250 students in the summer session at the University of Florida. The split-half reliability was found to be .90. The method of selecting items suggests content validity of the scale, but no other evidence of validity is available. Shall and Wright (1967) recommend recomputation of scale values, but attempts at doing so were made impossible by E. D. Hinckley's advanced age and inability to respond to communications.

Concerning current application of the scale, it was felt that this attitude scale would be used with subjects in a situation very similar to the original situation for which it was constructed. The subjects in this research came from poverty backgrounds and were employed in a federal work program designed to create jobs for disadvantaged youth.

The Education Scale measured attitudes toward the value

of education or of being educated. This 22-item, Likert-type scale was developed by Rundquist and Sletto (1936). The items are broad in content, ranging from effects of possessing an education upon one's leisure time and economic opportunity to conflict between education and work. Some of the items are dated, but none so seriously as to require alteration or elimination (Shall and Wright, 1967). College students, high school teachers, members of classes for the unemployed, and men on relief (2,882 subjects) were used by Rundquist and Sletto in construction of this scale.

Rundquist and Sletto (1936) report split-half reliabilities of .82 and .83 based upon samples of 500 males and 500 females, respectively. They also report test-rated reliabilities of .84 for a sample of 70 males and .85 for a sample of 75 females. The scale is felt to be quite adequate for measuring attitude toward education.

In the present study subjects responded to each item by placing a mark (/) across the provided line (Appendix C). In all items, the extreme ends of the line represented their most certain or definite feelings on the statement and a mark toward the center of the line indicated little or no conclusion toward the statement. This method enabled securing a quantified measurement of attitude.

The "own-category" scoring technique was used instead of the Likert-type scoring (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). The difference between the two scoring techniques is that the former allows the respondent to select any position on the ten cen-

timeter line as representing his own feeling toward the statement, whereas in the Likert-type, the respondent is limited to one of five alternatives. Each statement's line was measured and given a score from 0 to 10 (to the nearest tenth of a centimeter), indicating the distance of the mark from the negative end of the line. All the 22 statement scores were averaged and a scale score determined.

Procedure

This research is a study of attitude change and, therefore, necessitated a pre-program--post-program research approach. The data measured was obtained on two occasions, before and after employment of youth at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area.

The pre-employment questionnaire and attitude scales were given on the subjects' first day of employment, prior to actual acquaintance with the job site and fellow workers. This was done to secure a measure of the subjects' existing attitudes.

The subjects were tested in groups of twenty-five to thirty at a time and were selected according to the date they reported for employment. The researcher, assisted by staff members, administered the questionnaire and attitude scales according to a standard procedure (Appendix C). The identity of the individual subjects was unknown by the researcher and at no time was the subject required to place his name on either the questionnaire or attitude scales. Questions

asked by subjects concerning completion of items on the questionnaire were individually answered by staff members, but no interpretation of items in the attitude scales were given. The directions were read aloud while each subject read them to himself. This enabled the subjects to progress at a rather uniform rate and reduced the number of disturbances by subjects finishing early. The time required for testing was about thirty minutes and conditions were conducive to comfort and concentration.

The post-employment questionnaire and attitude scales were given during the subjects' last week of employment. This allowed for ten weeks of full time employment and Y.O.C. activities. Each subject in the sample had the same opportunity to attend all programs and a roll was kept on attendance. The majority of the subjects participated in every activity with only a few missing one or two of the mass meetings in which the scheduled communications were presented. Thus, each subject received a very similar exposure to the programs offered. The differences between subject responses before and after the summer program were attributed to subject attitude change deriving from the total program and not to specific variations in the treatment of the subjects.

The follow-up questionnaire and attitude scales were given at one time to all subjects following the final program activity. The instruments were administered in the same manner as the pre-employment instruments. Once again, the identity of the subjects was unknown and the subjects were

encouraged to answer honestly, as they felt. The time required for testing was approximately forty-five minutes.

The conditions for testing were not as favorable as during the pre-program administration due to the large number of subjects in the test situation. Subjects were tested in the Base Theatre with lap boards used as writing surfaces. The theatre temperature was comfortable, but the lighting was slightly dim. However, no difficulty was observed in subject response and motivation appeared high.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The concept of attitude change defined in this research requires a measurement of subject attitudes before and after program participation. The principle measure used in evaluating the hypotheses is the difference between pre-test and post-test scale scores on education and earning a living attitude scales (Appendix C). Statistical tests were used to determine significant differences in pre-test and post-test scale scores (attitude change). The raw data was obtained from the expressed attitudes of 201 subjects before and after ten weeks of work experience and exposure to scheduled communications in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area.

The subjects used in this study represent a more or less random sample of 2,200 disadvantaged youths who qualified for the Y.O.C. in Oklahoma City (Appendix A). This sample was similar in age, sex, race, annual family income, education, and socio-economic background to the population of 2,200 socio-economically disadvantaged youths qualifying for the summer Y.O.C. program. The selection criteria used by the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission satisfied Civil Service specifications (Appendix A) and provided for random selection of

the sample from the larger population of disadvantaged youths. With this random and representative sample, statistical measurements were used which allowed inferences to be made from this research to programs and personnel with similar characteristics.

Analysis of Data

The scale scores for each attitude scale were the mean of subject responses to each scale item. The scale score means were used in relation to the research variables such as sex, age, or work experience, as attitude measurements for pre-test and post-test analysis.

Tests were used to determine significant attitude change between pre-test and post-test attitude scale scores (Steel and Torrie, 1960).

Coefficients of linear correlation were computed between pre-test and post-test scale scores for each attitude scale to measure the degree of correlation of individual scale score changes.

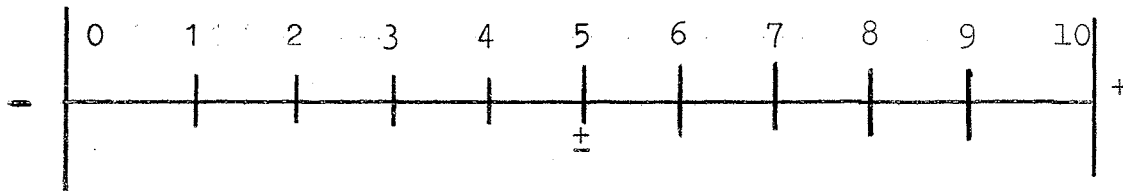
A post program questionnaire was given to all subjects (Appendix C). Items were scored and recorded as subject-variable percentages. The questionnaire items were designed to give information on the subjects' opinions as to the meaningfulness of work, the value of earned money, the effectiveness of the scheduled communications, and the effectiveness of the counseling in the program. Responses to these items also revealed some of the motivating factors re-

sponsible for attitude change.

The hypotheses stated in Chapter II were evaluated as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (a). The scores assigned to item responses ranged from 0 to 10. A score near 0 indicates a highly negative attitude, a score near 5 indicates neutrality, and a score near 10 represents a highly positive attitude (Table I).

TABLE I
ATTITUDE CONTINUUM



Examining the means of pre-test and post-test attitudes in Table II reveals that subjects did have moderately positive attitudes toward the value of education (7.88) and earning their own living (7.66). Their mean scores fell in the positive zone of the attitude continuum, therefore, hypothesis 1 (a) is accepted.

TABLE II
PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST ATTITUDES TOWARD
EDUCATION AND EARNING A LIVING

	Education	Earning A Living	P<.05
Pre-test \bar{X} ¹	7.88	7.66	NS
Post-test \bar{X}	7.55	6.57	.001

¹ \bar{X} (mean)

Hypothesis 1 (b). The pre-test portion of Table II reveals that no significant difference existed between pre-test means of subjects toward education (7.88) and earning a living (7.66).

Hypothesis 1 (c). The post-test portion of Table II reveals that subjects had significantly higher attitude scores toward education than scores toward earning a living after participation in the program. A significant difference ($P<.001$) was found between post-test means. Therefore, hypothesis 1 (c) is accepted.

Hypothesis 2 (a). Table III shows that pre-test attitudes did not vary by age, i.e., no mean was significantly different from any other mean. Younger subjects did not have more positive attitudes toward education than did the older subjects. Therefore, hypothesis 2 (a) is accepted.

TABLE III
PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD
EDUCATION BY AGE

S AGE	N	\bar{X}	P<.05
16	22	7.77	NS*
17	46	7.75	NS
18	79	7.99	NS
19	33	7.82	NS
20	14	7.86	NS
21	6	8.03	

* No significant difference among any means.

Hypothesis 2 (b). Table IV shows that pre-test attitudes did not vary with work experience. Therefore, hypothesis 2 (b) is accepted.

TABLE IV
PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD
EDUCATION BY WORK EXPERIENCE

	\bar{X}	P<.05
No work experience	7.91	NS
Work experience outside Y.O.C.	7.89	NS
Work experience and Y.O.C.	7.82	

Hypothesis 2 (c). Table V supports the hypothesis that pre-test attitudes toward education will not vary on the basis of sex. No significant differences were observed between male and female attitudes. Therefore, hypothesis 2 (c) is accepted.

TABLE V
PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDE
TOWARD EDUCATION BY SEX

	\bar{X}	P<.05
Male	7.68	NS
Female	8.01	

Hypothesis 3 (a). According to Table VI attitudes toward earning a living were not more positive for younger than older subjects. There were no significant differences among means for any age. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (a) is rejected.

Hypothesis 3 (b). Table VII shows that pre-test attitudes toward earning a living did not vary significantly according to sex. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (b) is rejected.

TABLE VI
 PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD
 EARNING A LIVING BY AGE

S Age	N	\bar{X}	P<.05
16	20	7.70	NS*
17	44	7.54	NS
18	78	7.69	NS
19	32	7.65	NS
20	13	7.73	NS
21	6	7.69	NS

* No significant difference among any means.

TABLE VII
 PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD
 EARNING A LIVING BY SEX

	\bar{X}	P<.05
Male	7.70	NS
Female	7.64	

Hypothesis 3 (c). Table VIII shows that pre-test attitudes toward earning a living were not higher for the more experienced as compared to the less experienced worker. No significant differences were found in attitudes at any level of work experience. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (c) is rejected.

TABLE VIII
PRE-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD
EARNING A LIVING BY WORK EXPERIENCE

	\bar{X}	P<.05
No work experience	7.82	NS
Work experience outside Y.O.C.	7.68	NS
Work experience and Y.O.C.	7.57	

Hypothesis 4 (a). The prediction that post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living will be higher for females than males was not supported by data in Table IX. Hypothesis 4 (a) is rejected.

Hypothesis 4 (b). According to Table X post-test attitude means toward earning a living and education did not vary significantly at any age level. Post-test scores on these scales were not more positive for older subjects. Therefore, hypothesis 4 (b) is rejected.

TABLE IX

POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION
AND EARNING A LIVING BY SEX

	Male	Female	P<.05
Education	7.28	7.74	NS
Earning a living	6.50	6.61	

TABLE X

POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION
AND EARNING A LIVING BY AGE

S Age	Education \bar{X}	Earning a Living \bar{X}
16	7.45	6.42
17	7.44	6.54
18	7.64	6.61
19	7.56	6.41
20	7.75	6.66
21	7.19	6.46
	P<.05	NS

Hypothesis 4 (c). Table XI shows that post-test attitudes toward education and earning a living were not significantly different and did not increase with increase in work experience. Therefore, hypothesis 4 (c) is rejected.

Hypothesis 4 (d). The data in Table XI shows no difference between pre-test and post-test attitude scores toward education or between pre-test and post-test attitude scores toward earning a living in relation to work experience. Subjects with no, little, and much work experience had pre-test and post-test attitudes which were positive and very similar toward education and toward earning a living. Table XI does show more stable educational attitudes on the part of subjects with Y. O. C. experience than on the part of those who had worked previously, but not in the Youth Opportunity Campaign. The latter showed significant attitude change ($P < .001$). However, subjects with no prior work experience in or outside of the Y. O. C., had no attitude change toward education over the duration of the program. Hypothesis 4 (d) is rejected.

Hypothesis 5 (a). This hypothesis and the following hypothesis concerns the degree of attitude change which occurred during employment in the Y.O.C. (pre-test to post-test). Hypothesis 5 (a) states that no significant change will occur between subject pre-test and post-test attitudes toward education. An examination of Table XII shows that for the total sample there was a significant change in attitudes toward

TABLE XI
 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN
 ATTITUDE BY WORK EXPERIENCE

	0*	1*	2*	P<.05
Education				
Pre-test \bar{x}	7.91	7.89	7.82	NS
Post-test \bar{x}	7.63	7.52	7.68	NS
P<.05	NS	.001	NS	
Earning a living				
Pre-test \bar{x}	7.83	7.68	7.57	NS
Post-test \bar{x}	6.64	6.73	6.50	NS
P<.05	.001	.001	.001	

* 0 No work experience.

* 1 Work experience outside Y.O.C.

* 2 Work experience and Y.O.C.

TABLE XII
 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN
 ATTITUDE FOR ALL SUBJECTS

	Total Population		P<.05
	Pre-test	Post-test	
Education	7.88	7.60	.001
Earning a living	7.28	6.24	.001

the value of education. This change was negative in that attitude scores toward the value of education were lowered. However, even though there was a negative attitude change, the post-test attitudes toward education remained moderately positive (Table I).

A closer look at the change in educational attitudes reveals that they did not lower significantly for all research variables. Referring to Table XI it is observed that attitudes changed significantly only for subjects with work experience other than Y.O.C. No attitude change was found in either the no work experience, or the Y.O.C. experience groups.

Table XIII demonstrates inconsistent attitude change according to age. Ages 16, 19, and 20 evidenced no attitude change, while ages 17, 18, and 21 did change significantly.

TABLE XIII
 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN
 ATTITUDE TOWARD EDUCATION BY AGE

S Age	Pre-test \bar{X}	Post-test \bar{X}	P<.05
16	7.77	7.45	NS
17	7.75	7.44	.05
18	7.99	7.64	.001
19	7.82	7.56	NS
20	7.86	7.75	NS
21	8.02	7.19	.05

Table XIV shows that both males and females lowered their educational attitudes with the females attitude change being more significant (P<.001).

Therefore, hypothesis 5 (a) is rejected for the sample as a whole, but must be qualified in reference to the specific variables of age, and work, and program experience.

TABLE XIV
 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDE
 TOWARD EDUCATION BY SEX

	Pre-test \bar{x}	Post-test \bar{x}	P<.05
Male	7.68	7.28	.02
Female	8.00	7.75	.001

Hypothesis 5 (b). This hypothesis applies to change in attitude toward earning a living. Referring to Table XII it is observed that the sample as a whole had a negative attitude toward earning a living. Comparing attitude change by sex shows that males and females exhibited comparable attitude change toward earning a living (Table XV). A comparison by sex for attitude change toward education shows similar results (Table XIV).

Referring to Table XI it is observed that all groups showed negative attitude change toward earning a living regardless of work experience. However, when considering attitude change toward education according to work experience, those who had never worked before and those who had prior Y.O.C. experience did not show significant changes in attitude.

Finally, Table XVI reveals that all age groups exhibited negative attitude change toward earning a living.

TABLE XV

PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDE
TOWARD EARNING A LIVING BY SEX

	Post-test \bar{X}	Pre-test \bar{X}	P<.05
Males	7.70	6.76	.001
Females	7.64	6.61	.001

TABLE XVI
 PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST DIFFERENCES IN ATTITUDE
 TOWARD EARNING A LIVING BY AGE

	Pre-test \bar{x}	Post-test \bar{x}	P<.05
16	7.70	6.42	.001
17	7.54	6.54	.001
18	7.69	6.61	.001
19	7.65	6.41	.001
20	7.73	6.66	.001
21	7.69	6.49	.01

Therefore, hypothesis 5 (b) is rejected. Considering the occurrence of attitude change according to research variables, negative attitude change was more consistent toward earning a living than toward education.

Finally, pre-test and post-test attitudes toward education had a positive correlation coefficient of .63. Pre-test and post-test attitudes toward earning a living had a positive correlation of .86. Thus, negative attitude change toward education and earning a living demonstrated uniformity of change between pre-test and post-test attitudes. However, negative change was more consistent among subject attitudes toward earning a living (.86).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

There are a number of factors which probably interacted in determining the attitude changes found in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area. These factors are not restricted to those specifically and intentionally included in the program per se. The decrease in the positiveness of the participants' attitudes toward education and earning a living will be examined.

Factors in Attitude Change

Factors which would limit attitude change in the direction of the scheduled communications and program objectives were: (1) The short duration of the Youth Opportunity Campaign and the limited time spent each day on the job by the subjects; (2) The lack of interpersonal interaction in group settings and individual identification with the job situation; (3) The subjects' continued influence by, and identification with, familiar background situations; (4) The lecture form of communication which reduces active individual participation; (5) The lack of job satisfaction i.e., jobs contained few intrinsic elements for personal satisfaction due to minimum wages, lack of skill requirements

or opportunity for developing skills, "make-work" duties, and no advancement.

These factors are certainly not conducive to positive attitude change, but whether they were sources of negative attitude change can only be inferred. However, the researcher being employed as a guidance counselor in the program was able to determine some of the subject's expressed reactions to the program.

On the basis of questionnaires answered by all subjects and random verbal interviews, it was determined that one in every four subjects felt the program was least helpful in providing "meaningful and valuable work". Sixty percent of the subjects stated that their jobs were "busy-work". The amount of "make-work" jobs, for males especially, was evidenced by twice as many males as females stating their work was "boring" and "not a needed part of the work force". These reactions are not surprising considering that ninety-five percent of the females had office jobs as typists, while 70 percent of the males had jobs as laborers in warehouses, or on roads and grounds.

In addition to these remarks, only half as many males as females stated that their jobs were interesting, useful, rewarding, and of "help to others". The need for higher wages was expressed by 80 percent of the college students because they felt that "the money earned was not sufficient for furthering education".

A positive effect of subject placement in un-skilled

jobs was that it caused 3 in every 4 subjects to understand the limited advancement opportunities for a high school graduate. Three in every 4 subjects also stated their understanding of the need for advanced education to receive better occupational opportunities.

The need for improved weekly meetings was evidenced by one in every three subjects stating that the scheduled communications were not related to the personal interests of the youth. One in every three youth also said the program was least helpful in providing personal and educational counseling.

This assessment demonstrates a certain degree of openly expressed negative subject reaction to the summer program. It indicates that summer jobs for youth need up-grading, money earned is not felt by the subjects to be sufficient for furthering education, and more personal and educational counseling is needed. Subject reactions to the program can be used as implications of some of the sources of negative attitude change.

The studies in attitude change presented in Chapter II reported differences in the effect of communications on attitude change. Attitudes were reported to change differently under varying conditions of age and educational level. Sherif and Sherif (1956) identified the "contrast effect" as attitude change in the direction opposite that purposed by persuasive communications when the subject's position in reference to the communication was extreme. Reactions in

the opposite direction to the intent of communications leads to the conclusion that perhaps unrecognized factors were present in this study which limited reliable prediction of attitude change on the basis of the program content alone. Due to the lack of experimental controls and variation in treatment effects, it is felt that unrecognized factors did exist which were, at least partially, responsible for the negative changes in attitudes which were found.

The following observations are presented as possible sources of negative attitude change" (1) The differences in initial and follow-up testing situations could have introduced negative post program subject reaction; (2) The disillusionment of subjects by working near important jobs, but not being able to function in a valuable position could have negatively affected their outlook for self employment or further education; (3) Subjects could have reacted negatively toward being identified as disadvantaged and separately employed in a federal aid program; (4) The measure of initial attitudes could have been superficially high due to subjects responding in "socially expected" ways when they were initially tested on the same day they received their base operation; (5) The measurement of post program attitudes was done in a more permissive atmosphere (i.e., all subjects together in a large theater) than that in which the initial testing situation was conducted and therefore, could have allowed for more honest subject responses; (6) Job jeopardy might have been implicit during the initial measure-

ment, whereas in the post-program measurement of such an influence toward giving "socially expected" replies was, at least, diminished.

Thus, a variety of possible sources of negative attitude change have been suggested. However, no definite conclusions can be made concerning the actual sources of the negative attitude change. One conclusion is certain, field studies on research as complicated as attitude change require control of treatment and situational factors for the formulation of definite conclusions.

Summary

Using differences in attitudes toward education and earning a living before (pre-test) and after (post-test) participation in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign, a study was made of attitudes and attitude changes of youths in the program at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area. Scales were administered before and after a program of ten weeks employment and exposure to scheduled communications. It was observed that the participants pre-program attitudes did not vary on the basis of age, sex, or work experience. This same lack of variation on the basis of these variables was found in post-program attitudes. It was found that although subjects started with and maintained moderately positive attitudes toward education and earning a living, negative attitude change in the course of the program did occur. The negative attitude change was more consistent among subjects

toward earning a living than it was toward education.

The lack of treatment variation and experimental controls inherent in the study, made possible precise identification of the causes of the negative attitude change. However, responses in interviews and questionnaires indicated that subjects were not satisfied with job content or wages, the topics of the scheduled communications, and the extent of counseling provided.

Policy Recommendations for Youth

Employment Programs

1. Improved Outreach. Youth employment programs, especially in metropolitan areas, should be expanded to include greater number of the severely disadvantaged. This is done by lowering income levels to include only the poor.
2. Program Planning. Funding should be at least several months in advance. An advanced planning unit should be employed permanently to develop new ideas and examine past deficiencies. Programs should avoid ambiguous objectives, random procedures, and subjective evaluations.
3. Work Experience. Make-work jobs destroy individual initiative and commitment toward career planning. Jobs must be meaningful, constructive, and a source of pride. Job satisfaction will be achieved through increased wages, better placement, and up-graded jobs.
4. Education Programs. Programs in basic education are necessary and must include high individual involvement.

Seminar style discussion encourages personal involvement and group communication. Vocational interest programs are always needed among the poor and uneducated.

5. Recreation Programs. Organized summer activities should be provided with adequate facilities. Group interaction affords opportunities for assimilation and reorganization of attitudes and interests toward more productive activities.
6. Program Analysis. Statistical analysis and objective evaluation of program effectiveness is non-existent in many programs. The effects of employment, training, and guidance need to be examined by attitude and achievement tests. Follow-up for long-term program effects is also valuable.

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APPENDIX A

THE MANPOWER RESEARCH AND TRAINING PROGRAM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

On March 10, 1966, the U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration accepted the proposal for a Manpower Research Program at Oklahoma State University. The purposes of this program are (1) to train manpower specialists in a two year program culminating in an M.S. degree, and (2) to promote further manpower research. Accomplishment of the training function is through an interdisciplinary combination of existing curriculum, new courses, and student research experience. A summer internship is required in the area of manpower research for each manpower fellow. Inherent in the design of the internship is the application of research material toward the formulation of the master's thesis. It was for this reason that the writer accepted employment at Oklahoma City Air Materiel Area as a guidance counselor in the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign. A proposal for assessing O.C.A.M.A.'s rendition of the President's Campaign was accepted by the director of the Manpower Research and Training Center, Oklahoma State University as research of value to the Manpower Administration and the Department of Psychology, Oklahoma State University.

The Summer Internship

Introduction

The present magnitude and immense commitment of the federal government toward manpower development and utilization has not been equaled in the history of our nation. In the past decade, our nation's serious commitment has demonstrated itself with a series of revolutionary manpower programs designed to upgrade worker's skills and improve the matching of workers to jobs. These programs were made possible by enactment of the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and its subsequent amendments, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Education Acts of 1964 and 1965, the Executive orders assuring equal opportunity and title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

With these innovations, the concept of an active manpower policy, geared to the individual and the locality, was recognized as a necessary component of the overall national economic policy. It has become steadily clearer that economic growth and stability require increasing the employability of workers and reducing to a minimum the human waste created by a changing economy. One group for which this realization has become increasingly evident is the disadvantaged young workers. Here the nation has attempted to provide the necessary job opportunities to convert a flood of youth, between the ages of 16 and 21, into a valuable national resource in-

stead of an urgent social problem. More and more young men and women, in and out of school, receive the work experience and training which helps to fit them for responsible places in society and to save them from life times of chronic unemployment and degrading poverty.

A review of the major programs serving disadvantaged youth for fiscal years 1965-1967 (see page 70) demonstrates the present magnitude of youth employment and training programs. In 1965, 357,741 youth were enrolled or employed in out-of-school, or summer programs. In 1966 an estimated 540,000 youth were enrolled or employed in these programs and in 1967 an estimated 497,000 youth will be engaged in such programs. These opportunities were provided by Neighborhood Youth Corps, Job Corps, the M.D.T.A. programs, and vocational education work study programs (Manpower Report of the President, 1966).

The President's Youth Opportunity Campaign

This Campaign, which was officially instituted in 1965, illustrates further the nation's commitment toward a Great Society and is an outgrowth of the War on Poverty initiated by the President in 1964. The Y.O.C. is designed to provide employment, financial aid, and guidance for young people and unskilled workers.

On March 21, 1967, this year's Y.O.C. was approved under Executive Order 11330 which provided for the coordination of the Y.O.C. by each federal agency, to the extent permitted by law and within available funds (Civil Service Bulletin,

MAJOR PROGRAMS SERVING DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, FISCAL
YEARS 1965-67, (ENROLLMENTS OR JOBS)

Programs	Out-of- school programs	In-school programs	Summer programs ¹
1965			
Total	126,741	117,000	114,000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	62,000	102,000	114,000
Job Corps	10,241	-----	-----
MDTA training	54,500	-----	-----
Vocational education work- study program	-----	15,000	-----
1966			
Total	159,000	185,000	196,000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	60,000	100,000	196,000 ²
Job Corps	30,000	-----	-----
MDTA training	69,000	-----	-----
Vocational education work- study program	-----	85,000	-----
1967 ³			
Total	172,000	160,000	165,000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	64,000	125,000	165,000
Job Corps	45,000	-----	-----
MDTA training	63,000	-----	-----
Vocational education work- study program	-----	35,000	-----

¹ Many summer program enrollees are also served by the in-school program.

² Estimated.

³ Includes 31,000 jobs provided during the summer of 1965.

Reference: Highlights From The 1966 Manpower Report, U.S. Department of Labor, W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary, p. 30.

316-617). The 1967 program represented the third such program approved under this order. This Executive Order instituted the President's Council On Youth Opportunity with the Vice President as its chairman. The Citizens Advisory Board of Youth Opportunity was also instituted to assist and provide information to the Council On Youth Opportunity.

The President directed federal agencies to exercise leadership in providing meaningful summer work and training for youth between the ages of 16 and 21. Its goal was to employ at least one extra youth for every 100 regular employees. This created a million extra jobs for youth in 1965 and more than a million extra jobs for youth in 1966 (Manpower Report of the President, 1966). In 1967, the President appointed responsible leaders in thirty major cities of the nation to find summer jobs for youth.

The employment of youth in the Y.O.C. is in accordance with the guidelines set forth in Executive Order 11330. The Y.O.C. adopted many of its entrance requirements from the Office of Economic Opportunity's Neighborhood Youth Campaign and Job Corps. The youth were hired by the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission which has the task of selecting only those youth meeting the financial specifications provided by the Civil Service Commission. The maximum income allowed in qualifying for the program was \$3,600 for the average family of three, with allowances for \$600 more for each additional dependent. If the dependent was in high school, the family was allowed an additional \$500 and, if in college, an addi-

tional \$1500.

The youth were appointed to temporary positions (700 hours appointment) as Civil Service employees and were paid the minimum wage (\$1.40 per hour) established by the Fair Labor Standards Amendment of 1966.

Project MOD (More Opportunity and Development)

Project MOD, Oklahoma City Air Material Area's rendition of the President's Youth Opportunity Campaign, provided a program which was two-fold in purpose. First, it attempted to create healthy attitudes and work habits toward an occupational career. Second, it provided a developmental service for promoting attitude and behavior adjustment.

Project MOD emphasized (1) More youth employed--20 additional youth were employed over the previous year; (2) More opportunity--to learn, earn, and receive guidance in personal, social, and educational area; (3) More advanced preparation--supervisor, monitor, youth orientations to the program; (4) More close contact between the counselors and the youth--on the job observations, weekly meeting, and counseling interviews.

Internship Activities

The position which the researcher held was as a counselor for providing guidance services for the youth. Available for use in vocational guidance was the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, The Occupational Outlook Handbook, materials on Civil Service jobs, and other occupational listings. Bulletins from the various universities, colleges, business

schools, and vocational schools in Oklahoma were also made available along with information on scholarships, loans, and other types of financial assistance.

A second responsibility was the provision of developmental programs. A series of lectures was presented to the entire group with a series of small meetings being conducted for special interest groups. The following is a listing of the major and minor developmental programs arranged by topic.

A. Health and Physical Fitness

1. Dr. Rex Kanyon, Associate Professor of Clinical Pathology at the Oklahoma University Medical School presented a lecture entitled "Looking For A Healthier Tomorrow".

B. Occupational and Vocational Planning

1. Mrs. Mary Ann Wood, Vocational Counselor for the State Department of Education, spoke on "Trends In Employment For The 70's".
2. U.S. Air Force recruiters provided a small group session for those interested in "Careers In The Air Force".
3. Darlene Dunn of the Park Avenue Charm School presented a lecture and style show entitled "The Proper Dress and Behavior For The Working Girl", to the young ladies in the program.
4. The occupational opportunities at Tinker were presented to the young men in the program by a presentation of Tinker's film "From Prairies To Space".

C. Personal Adjustment

1. Dr. Vernon Sisney, Chief Clinical Psychologist of the Veterans Administration Hospital, spoke on the topic "What Makes Me Tick".
2. Ken Cariker, Sports Announcer for KWTW, Channel 9, spoke to the young men on the topic "Sports As A Means of Self-Discipline".

3. Russell Holloway, and Oklahoma City Attorney, spoke on the topic "Involvement".

D. Educational Opportunities

1. Dr. Vernon McAllister, Director of Personnel for Midwest City Public Schools, posed the question, "Is There Any Other Way To Opportunity, Other Than Education?".
2. Mr. William Austin, Assistant Director of Instruction for Midwest City Public Schools, emphasized the benefits of teaching as a profession.
3. Mrs. Evelyn Thompson, school counselor for Del City High School, dealt with scholarships and loans available to students preparing for college.

E. Social Adjustments

1. Joan Wall, a social worker with Sunbeam Home, held a small group meeting with the young ladies to discuss the topic of "Marriage and Mate Selection".
2. Dan Combs, from Oklahoma Highway Patrol spoke on "Traffic Safety" emphasizing the proper concern for other's lives.

The third major responsibility of a counselor in the program was the incentive program for the outstanding youth in the summer campaign. Two rating forms were given to the immediate supervisor of the youth and their performance was rated on two occasions, for the purpose of measuring the youth's general adjustment to their job situations.

The Awards Day was August 20 which officially terminated the 1967 President's Youth Opportunity Campaign. Ten youths received awards for being selected as outstanding. Two youths, one male and one female, were selected as the most outstanding boy and girl in the summer program.

APPENDIX B

April 19, 1968

PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON YOUTH OPPORTUNITY--ESTIMATE OF FUNDS
AVAILABLE FOR SUMMER PROGRAMS (IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS)

	1967	1968
NYC Program	176.7	157.9
MDTA Program	22.5	23.3
Concentrated Employment and Jobs Program	-----	20.0
College Work-Study Program	49.5	49.5
Upward Bound Program	19.0	20.0
Summer Head Start Program	101.5	102.5
Community Action Program	36.7	35.0
Vocational Education Work-Study Program (OEO Funds)	-----	7.5
Other HEW Programs	16.8	31.2
Federal Employment Program	24.2	43.4
TOTAL	446.9	490.3

April 19, 1968

PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON YOUTH OPPORTUNITY--ESTIMATE OF SUMMER
JOBS FOR DISADVANTAGED YOUTH (IN THOUSANDS)

	1967	1968	Difference
NYC - In-School	294	294	
NYC - Out-of-School	77	63	-14
MDTA - Youth and R&D Program	39	41	+ 2
College Work-Study	90	90	
Youth Employment in Head Start	6	6	
CEP (Concentrated Employment)	0	22	+22
JOBS (Long-Range Part of NAB)	0	10	+10
Federal Hiring (YOC)	43	70	+27
*TOTALS	549	596	+47
NAB - Summer Job Goal		200	+200
*FINAL TOTAL	549	796	+247
*Does not include:			
Vocational Education Work-Study		28	+28

APPENDIX C

Number _____

The answers you give in this section will help us determine what effect your summer's work experience has had on your future plans.

GIVE EACH QUESTION SPECIAL THOUGHT BEFORE ANSWERING.

Try to indicate your most accurate feeling about the statements you make.

Directions: Fill in the appropriate blanks or circle the correct responses. The remaining questions can be answered by placing a mark (/) across the provided line. In all questions the extreme ends of the line represent your most certain or definite views on the statements and a mark toward the center of the line indicates little or no conclusion toward the statement.
ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS.

A. My Background

1. Age _____
2. Education Level (number of years completed): _____
3. School Preference (next year):
 - a. College
 - b. High School
 - c. Trade or Vocational School
 - d. Work Only
4. Grade Average:
 - a. A
 - b. B
 - c. C
 - d. D or below
5. Have you decided upon or made definite plans toward a career or specific occupation? a. yes b. no

6. Parents' attitude toward you furthering your education:
- They want me to continue with advanced education.
 - They are against education beyond high school.
 - They do not care what I do.
7. Parent's Education Level:
- Father _____ (number of years completed)
 - Mother _____ (number of years completed)
8. From what I have earned at Tinker this summer, I have saved \$ _____, and with this money I plan to _____.

B. Project MOD: Youth Opportunity Campaign.

1. This summer's work experience has been beneficial to me in the following way: (Select one)
- helped me learn how to work with others.
 - provided me with definite plans for an occupational career
 - helped finance my future educational plans
 - resulted in my deciding to further my education beyond my previous expectations before working this summer
 - other _____
2. This program (work and group meetings) was least helpful to me in the following way: (Select one)
- in providing meaningful and valuable work experience
 - in providing the necessary information concerning educational and training opportunities
 - in helping me with my personal and job related problems
 - in making available trained personnel which could help me concerning matters of importance to me
 - other _____
3. I am disappointed in what the program has actually accomplished for me and feel that many improvements could be made in the Youth Opportunity Campaign summer program. a. yes b. no
- If yes, please make suggestions for improvement: _____
4. I feel that the lectures and speeches could have been more related to vital topics of interest and concern to youth of my age. a. yes b. no

5. Was your supervisor favorable and cooperative toward your attending the activities of the program.
a. yes b. no
6. As a result of my summer work experience, I am seeking a permanent position at Tinker A.F.B.
a. yes b. no
7. As a result of my summer experience, I am seeking a permanent job outside of Tinker A.F.G.
a. yes b. no
8. My summer's work experience has caused me to realize how (little, much, neither) value my high school education alone is in getting a good job.
9. As a result of this summer's work program I have decided to enter a government sponsored program where I will be paid a wage to enter school in a specific trade or skill. a. yes b. no
10. Was the money you earned this summer sufficient for your educational plans?
College: a. yes b. no
Vocational or Trade school: a. yes b. no
High school: a. yes b. no
11. Have you had to postpone your educational plans as a result of insufficient funds earned this summer at Tinker A.F.B.? a. yes b. no
12. Will the money which you have earned at Tinker A.F.B. this summer allow you to go to school full time without having to use additional money from other sources?
a. yes b. no
13. Would you further your education if it required your going into debt, or your asking for a loan, and having to work twenty hours a week in addition to school subjects? a. yes b. no
- If yes, how certain are you of your decision?
- Very uncertain |-----| Very Certain
14. Do you think the possibility of being awarded a cash prize and/or receiving public recognition has improved the way in which your friends have performed their jobs? a. yes b. no
15. Did your job this summer cause you to think seriously about your abilities, interests, and educational needs for earning a living at a job? a. yes b. no

Directions: Fill in each blank space with + for agree, - for disagree, or ? for undecided for questions 16, 17 and 18 only.

16. Do you think this program (work and group meetings) has caused any of your friends to change their minds in favor of:
- _____ attending or returning to college or training schools of any kind
 - _____ making definite plans toward a chosen career of interest to them
 - _____ understanding the need for advanced educational training
 - _____ understanding the importance of education in the world of work
 - _____ understanding the limited advancement opportunities for high school education only
17. My job this summer was interesting_____, meaningful_____, rewarding_____, useful_____, necessary_____, of help to others in doing their job_____, a needed part of Tinker's work force_____.
18. My job this summer was boring_____, busy-work_____, useless_____, caused me to feel like I really wasn't needed_____.
19. I can see myself in a four-year college program with a professional major field of study.

Definitely not		Absolutely
----------------	--	------------

20. I would attend college or any further educational school if it required my working at nights, sacrificing personal hobbies and interests, and living on a tight budget.

Definitely not		Absolutely
----------------	--	------------

An Education Scale

Number _____

Directions: READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY AND ANSWER IT QUICKLY WITH A RESPONSE WHICH BEST EXPRESSES YOUR FEELING ABOUT THE STATEMENT.

The statements can be answered by placing a mark (/) across the provided line. In all items, the extreme ends of the line represent your most certain or definite feelings on the statements and a mark toward the center of the line indicates little or no conclusion toward the statement.

Whenever possible, let your own personal experience determine your answer. Do not spend much time on any item. If in doubt, place a mark on the line at a point which seems most nearly to express your present feeling about the statement.

WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

1. A man can learn more by working four years than by going to high school.
- | | | |
|-------------------|-------|----------------------|
| Strongly
Agree | ----- | Strongly
Disagree |
|-------------------|-------|----------------------|
2. The more education a person has the better he is able to enjoy life.
 3. Education helps a person to use his leisure time to better advantage.
 4. A good education is a great comfort to a man out of work.
 5. Only subjects like reading, writing, and arithmetic should be taught at public expense.
 6. Education is no help in getting a job today.
 7. Most young people are getting too much education.
 8. A high school education is worth all the time and effort it requires.
 9. Our schools encourage an individual to think for himself.
 10. There are too many fads and frills in modern education.
 11. Education only makes a person discontented.

12. School training is of little help in meeting the problems of real life.
13. Education tends to make an individual less conceited.
14. Solution of the world's problems will come through education.
15. High school courses are too impractical.
16. A man is foolish to keep going to school if he can get a job.
17. Savings spent on education are wisely invested.
18. An educated man can advance more rapidly in business and industry.
19. Parents should not be compelled to send their children to school.
20. Education is more valuable than most people think.
21. A high school education makes a man a better citizen.
22. Public money spent on education during the past few years could have been used more wisely for other purposes.

ATTITUDE TOWARD EARNING A LIVING

Number _____

This is a study of attitudes toward earning a living. On this page you will find fourteen statements expressing different attitudes toward the subjects.

Put a check mark (✓) if you agree with the statement.
Put a cross (X) if you disagree with the statement.

If you cannot decide about a statement, you may mark it with a question mark.

This is not an examination. People differ in their opinions about what is right and wrong in this issue.

Please indicate your own attitude by a check mark when you agree and a cross when you disagree.

1. The highest responsibility a man has is towards his job - his earning a living.
2. The responsibility of making a living should not weigh on a person's shoulders so much that he has no time for anything else.
3. The world owes me a living.
4. My dream is for a job combining a minimum amount of labor with a maximum amount of wage.
5. It pays to do nothing and depend on the community for a living.
6. I want to work to keep the family out of debt.
7. My inability during the last few years to earn a living has made me firmly resolve that I will never waste any time trying to earn a living.
8. I have resigned myself to earning a living.
9. Since I have a family to support, I am never lazy.
10. I have lost faith with the creed that makes me personally responsible for my own living.
11. I never worry about material things such as food and clothing.
12. We owe it to the very principles of democracy on which our country is founded to earn a living.
13. I don't mind supporting myself.

14. I claim the right to work and share in the economic benefits of that work.

ATTITUDE TOWARD EARNING A LIVING

Number _____

This is a study of attitudes toward earning a living. On this page you will find thirteen statements expressing attitudes toward the subjects.

Put a check mark (✓) if you agree with the statement.
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Please indicate your own attitude by a check mark when you agree and a cross when you disagree.

1. When I am trying to get a job, I think more about my rights as an individual than my duty to earn a living.
2. There is not enough work to go around; therefore I'll let the government feed me.
3. I am trying to hold my job.
4. The right thing to do is to work hard, earn your own living and not expect to have what you can't pay for.
5. A man should do all in his power to earn his own living.
6. I'd never let earning a living greatly warp my life.
7. I always have made my own living, but my responsibility in that matter is weakening.
8. The first and most important duty of every man is to earn a living.
9. Work is something to be avoided if possible.
10. Sometimes I think I want to earn my own living and sometimes I doubt it.
11. You should earn your living by honest toil.
12. The man who helps himself need never worry.
13. Being idle has made me want to keep on being idle.

VITA

Melvin B. Gambrell, Jr.

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PRESIDENT'S YOUTH OPPORTUNITY
CAMPAIGN IN RELATION TO ATTITUDE CHANGE TOWARD
EDUCATION AND EARNING A LIVING

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