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A COMPARISON OF VALUES HELD TOWARD WORK BY COMMUNITY COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS SEEKING DIFFERING EDUCATIONAL GOALS.

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GRADUATE COLLEGE

A COMPARISON OF VALUES HELD TOWARD WORK BY COMMUNITY COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS SEEKING DIFFERING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

A DISSERTATION

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degree of

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BY

WINONA JUNE GOSS

Norman, Oklahoma

1978

A COMPARISON OF VALUES HELD TOWARD WORK BY COMMUNITY COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS SEEKING DIFFERING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

APPROVED BY:

Loy E Prickett

Billie D Holcomb

Charlyce King

Eugene F. Cate

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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A COMPARISON OF VALUES HELD TOWARD WORK BY COMMUNITY COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS SEEKING DIFFERING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

A challenge confronting business educators involves this question: What do students want in their work? The contemporary scene is one of reported increasing job dissatisfaction among all ages of workers and one challenged by changes and proposed changes in the institutions of education and work. Popular literature (Herrick, 1972, Borow, 1973, Terkel, 1974) considers work generally without meaning to large segments of American society. While motivation to work may be studied through any one of the multidimensional approaches--economic consideration, social attitudes or occupational requirements--this study will be limited to those values students want from their work.

Strauss (1976) writes that during the 1940's and 1950's workers listed "steady work" as the most desirable thing they wanted from their jobs. In contrast, a 1969 survey listed "interesting work" first and "job security" seventh;

work aspects related to job content ranked in six of the eight top places. A shift in value ordering in which low-level needs of American workers are largely fulfilled is noted. Strauss suggests that some workers may demand satisfaction for self-actualization needs since money no longer motivates. The view expressed, however, is that dissatisfaction can be caused by extrinsic factors of the job as much as by intrinsic sterility on the job.

Yankelovich (1978) reports that Americans of the 70's hold a set of values "so different from the traditional outlook that they promise to transform the character of work in America in the 80's" (p. 46).

The new worker's quest is for self-fulfillment in which he is not subordinated to his work role, but instead demands (Renwick and Lawler, 1978) more psychological satisfactions "which Maslow called self-actualization" representing a whole hierarchy of needs (p. 53). As he sees the old values changing, Yankelovich (1978) identifies three work-related values for the "new breed": (1) increasing importance of leisure; (2) symbolic significance of the paid job; and (3) the insistence that jobs become less depersonalized.

Yankelovich and Clark (1974) review the values reported in their survey of college youth in 1967 and report that the age groups eighteen to twenty-five were critical of their education and that "prospects for a conventional career as mirrored in the life of their parents seemed irreconcilable" with their lifestyle (p. 45). A national sampling in 1973

revealed a change in college youth values. Dissatisfaction was replaced with satisfaction in general; they were heavily preoccupied with their own career-planning and self-fulfillment. Values and traditional careers that seemed impossible a few years earlier were actively and aggressively pursued. A comparison of college and non-college students showed their goals blended and that each had:

> taken up the quest for a new definition of success which stresses personal self-fulfillment and quality of working life as much as it does economic security. . . . As our society is now constituted, these young people want something they cannot have. And this they recognize, but it leaves them anxious and dissatisfied, vaguely yearning for a new kind of education--one that does not exist--that will help them to fulfill their new goals (p. 45).

Cohen and Associates (1971) write that value orientations of students are the actual ones toward which they strive, and that a study of institutional personality gives understanding of its educational function permitting an exact evaluation of institutional achievements and objectives. The decline in growth rate of higher education (Flaumenhaft, 1977) has coincided with a demand for practical business courses. The expressed view is that the current business college curriculum must reflect business students' desires to acquire marketable skills and that a need exists for direction in curriculum planning.

Super (1970) says there is a need for an assessment and understanding of the value structure of students in education relevant to their choices and performance. A study

of work values is important; for if we are to measure motivation in education, it will probably be by the means of value inventories (Super, 1957). "There is a lack of effort directed to blending values and careers into a congruent state which would be based on the premise that the job itself should be an extension of one's self of what one values . . . " (Stoddard, 1978, p. 11).

This study focused upon a comparison of values held toward work between Oscar Rose Junior College business students enrolled in the Associate of Arts degree program and in the Associate of Applied Science degree program. This question was asked: Are there differences in value motivations toward work by community college business students with differing degree goals? Specifically these questions were explored:

1. Are there differences in values held toward work by community college business students seeking the Associate of Applied Science degree?

2. Are there relationships among community college business students' choice of the Associate of Arts degree and the Associate of Applied Science degree and student demographic variables of age, gender, employment status, and classification?

3. Are there differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the Associate of Arts degree and those seeking the Associate of Applied Science degree in relation to the demographic characteristics of age, gender, and classification?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined:

Achievement--A work value which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well; a liking for work with visible, tangible results (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Altruism--A work value or goal which enables one to contribute to the welfare of others; assesses the social service value and interest (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Associate of Applied Science Degree--(AAS) A degree awarded students by major curricular content of occupational or nontransfer nature (Walls, 1977, p. 120).

Associate of Arts Degree--(AA) A degree awarded students by major curricular content of transfer or college parallel (Walls, 1977, p. 120).

Associates--A work value characterized by work which brings one in contact with fellow workers whom he likes; social life of the job (Super, 1970, p. 10).

Community College Business Student--Student who is enrolled in a two-year business curricular program of 62-64 credit hours at Oscar Rose Junior College, the selected community junior college for this study.

Creativity--A work value which permits one to invent new things, design new products, or develop new ideas (Super, 1970, p. 8).

Economic Return--A value or goal associated with work which pays well and enables one to have the things he wants; attaching of importance to tangibles and earnings (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Esthetics--Work value which permits one to make beautiful things and to contribute beauty to the world (Super, 1970, p. 8).

Independence--A work value permitting one to work in his own way--as slow or as fast as one desires (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Intellectual Stimulation--A work value which provides opportunity for independent thinking and for learning how and why things work (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Management--A work value which permits one to plan and lay out work for others to do (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Prestige--A work value which gives one standing in the eyes of others and evokes respect (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Security--A work value which provides one with the certainty of having a job even in hard times (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Surroundings--A work value associated with work carried out under pleasant conditions--not too hot or cold, noisy, dirty, etc.; the material environment (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Supervisory Relations--A work value which is carried out under a supervisor who is fair and with whom one can get along (Super, 1970, p. 10).

Way of Life--A work value permitting one to live the kind of life he chooses and to be the type of person one wishes to be (Super, 1970, p. 9).

Work--An activity that produces something of value for other people (Work in America, n.d., p. 3).

Work Values Inventory--(WVI) An instrument designed to measure a wide range of values which affect the motivation to work (Super, 1970, p. 4).

Values--Goals, ends, or means to an end that people seek in activities in which they engage and in situations in which they live, and in objects that they make or acquire (Super, 1970, p. 4).

Variety--A work value providing opportunity to do different types of jobs (Super, 1970, p. 10).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this investigation into student work values, as measured by the Work Values Inventory is threefold:

1. To assess, in an era of rapid change, community college student desired goals in their education and work and to present a profile of values for business students seeking the associate degree.

2. To identify relationships in differing value structures relative to student demographic variables to serve as a possible discussion base responding to current societal issues in education and work appropriate to the diverse community college population.

3. To determine differences in student motivations toward work between those students seeking the AA and the AAS degree and selected demographic variables and to make results available to academic advisement for counseling students regarding education and work.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were considered with respect to the study:

1. The students responded in accord with their true feelings.

2. The respondents properly followed directions in completing the inventory.

Limitations of the Study

This study had these limitations:

1. The students used in the sample were business students enrolled in required degree core subjects who had a declared goal of either an AA or AAS degree at Oscar Rose Junior College.

2. The Work Values Inventory measures fifteen value categories upon which there is substantial agreement. While this taxonomy may be taken as fundamental, other values in work value systems may be used.

Significance and Need for the Study

A study of the comparison of values held toward work by business students enrolled in the AA degree and in the AAS degree programs is needed. Zytowski (1973) states that "understanding the work values of students in educational and vocational counseling is an important aid in clarifying goals in determining the psychological appropriateness of a given type of education, training or employment" (p. 191). The strength and direction of vocational values may materially affect a student's education and vocational adjustment. This measure may be a focal point of understanding relevant to the classroom (Anastasi, 1972). Drive conditions are important factors in learning since goal-setting is important for the learner and his success and failures are determiners of how he sets future goals (Hilgard and Bower, 1968). Therefore, knowing the structure of values for community college business students may be beneficial in identifying curricular and occupational differences and in helping students respond positively to changing conditions of work.

An assessment of community college business student values held toward work relative to student variables typical of the diverse community is needed. Carr and Hunter (1978) set forth accountability as covering a broad spectrum of individuals--student, teacher, administrator, and employer. The educational institution, however, remains at the center; and the business faculty is charged with the primary responsibility for tasks of researching availability of jobs,

determining the character of jobs, and training for the achievement of students to fill the positions. Zytowski (1973) suggests three ways in which work values may be useful: (1) to serve as a framework to describe work for the known occupations into fewer categories; (2) to explain an individual's level of job satisfaction as the extent to which a job satisfies one's needs and to forecast occupational entry; (3) to make job transition easier when one has located himself on a spectrum of values and when occupations are understood in terms of his or her need satisfaction potential. Future occupations which do not presently exist are likely to appear, or persons may find themselves seeking new occupations because their present ones are obsolete. Wall (1977), in presenting criteria for developing both career and transfer business curriculum, states that "strong emphasis should be placed on affective behaviors. The curriculum should be designed to contribute to the development of appropriate attitudes necessary for job success" (p. 123).

A review of research selected because of its relevance to this study is given in the next chapter. The findings are arranged into areas of vocational motivation, life stages, and related research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH

Since education for business in a community college is primarily vocational in nature, understanding and knowing about student attitudes toward work is basic to the task of curriculum planning and educational and vocational advisement for the diverse student body planning for education and work.

The literature reviewed in this chapter was selected because of its relevance to this study. The discussion is arranged in categories of: research related to vocational motivation theory, research related to life stages theory, research related to present study, and a summary.

Vocational Motivation Theories

This discussion on vocational motivation will look at major explanations of some commonly held beliefs about why people work.

Researchers in vocational and organizational behavior are concerned with determinants of motivation within work settings. A survey of these fields reveals a lack of concensus as to which ones have merit. Crites (1969) suggests three explanations of motivation to work: the stimulus-response

explanation, an adaptation level explanation, and a cognitive explanation. Hamner, Ross and Staw (1978) propose a cognitive theory in goalsetting.

Stimulus-Response Explanation

The stimulus-response theory, or the reinforcement explanation, evolved out of the work of Thorndike (1911), John B. Watson (1924), and Skinner (1953). The idea that voluntary human behavior (e.g., task accomplishment) is environmentally determined is the basis for reinforcement theory. The likelihood that a particular behavior will be engaged in again is determined by the consequences of a given behavioral act (Thorndike, 1911). According to Skinner (1969), there are three things that determine task performance: (1) the work environment of stimulus setting, (2) the performance level or response, and (3) the consequences of reinforcement. The contingencies of reinforcement are the interrelationships among these three components.

Crites (1969) relates this concept to vocational behavior by citing the work of Viteles including various job-related factors "that may influence the individual's motivation to work, and, in turn, affect his job performance" (p. 358). Crites explains that "vocational adjustment . . . is a function of goal-related job incentives as mediated by the worker's motives and attitudes" (p. 360).

Incentives. "Incentives" that may function as stimuli for workers have been identified as: fair wages,

pension plan, compensation for sickness, death benefits, bonuses, profit sharing, good working conditions, pleasant relations with associates, participation, knowledge of results, development of skills, and recognition of efforts.

Motives. "Motives" which activate the worker are listed as: economic security, emotional or personal security, self-expression, self-respect, recognition, and status. These can be inferred to exist by observing changes in behavior and by measuring attitudes that express the way objects or situations satisfy one's wants, needs, and desires.

Performance. "Performance" affected by motivation may be described as efficiency behavior such as: higher production, fewer absences, decreased lateness, improved quality of work, and active participation in company programs (p. 359).

In this motivational scheme, job satisfaction is not necessarily a part of job performance, but in some situations the more productive workers are the workers with higher intrinsic job satisfaction. Attitudes, according to Crites (1969) take the role of intervening or linking variables from which the worker's motives can be inferred and his performance can be predicted. "Job satisfaction is not directly related to the worker's motives and attitudes; but is seen as a possible outcome of job performance" (Crites, p. 360).

Based upon the stimulus response model, Skinner (1969) asserts that one must be able to manipulate the consequences

of behavior. Theorists who advocate reinforcement techniques say they are constantly employed by everyone.

Hamner, Ross and Staw (1978), in their summary of research, show that there are concerns about ethical considerations in manipulating individuals; but in spite of this, managers are beginning to accept and apply these principles as a means of motivating higher task performance.

An examination of the stimulus-response model reveals that the work environment of stimulus is external to man and the cause of behavior initiates a response or task performance action, and in turn results in reinforcement, consequences or feedback.

Adaptation Level Theory

Katzell (1964) translates an adaptation-level model into vocational terms by equating the worker's job values to magnitudes of stimuli which evoke higher levels of job satisfaction than other magnitudes of the stimuli. Job value is operationally defined as that magnitude of a stimulus which produces the most pleasing response in the individual. To explain the situation, a material reward would be a job value if large amounts of it are more satisfying to the worker than lesser amounts of it. "The extent to which a stimulus evokes an effective response that is less than maximally pleasurable is postulated to be directly proportional to the absolute discrepancy between the magnitude of the stimulus and its corresponding value, and inversely proportional to the value" (p. 164).

Katzell conceives of job satisfaction as the outcome of interactions between job incumbents and their job environments: "incumbents possess values or needs, and jobs are more or less instrumental in providing fulfillments or reinforcements" (p. 341). To show that job satisfaction is a function of the extent to which job features match the values of the incumbent, Katzell (1964) gives these supportive propositions:

1. Job satisfaction is positively associated with the degree of congruence between job conditions and personal values.

2. The more important or intense the values involved, the greater is the effect on job satisfaction or their attainment or negation.

3. Satisfaction with a job or occupation will vary with the values of the incumbents.

4. Differences in job satisfaction among people having similar values will be associated with differences in their job or occupations.

5. The presence of certain job characteristics serves usually to evoke satisfaction whereas their absence results only in neutral feelings; other characteristics serve usually to evoke dissatisfaction, whereas their absence likewise results only in neutral feelings; still others tend to evoke satisfaction when present in moderate amounts, but dissatisfaction results when they exist in amounts that are either too large or too small (pp. 349-353).

Katzell, relating these assumptions about stimulus satiation and deprivation to Maslow's concept of the prepotency of motives, points out that as initially potent job

values are satisfied, the less potent ones in the hierarchy become the determiners of job behavior, until they too are satisfied. Among these higher-order job values, self-actualization is the most important one. An examination of this theory reveals that the cause of motivation is internal to man in which the stimulus initiates a response or task performance which activates reinforcement, consequences or feedback.

Cognitive Theory of Vocational Motivation

The "expectancy" theory is based on a formulation of motivation in which values and intentions are the two cognitive antecedents of behavior. According to the theory, two conditions must be present to motivate an individual: (1) the individual must value the incentive being offered; (2) the individual must perceive that through good performance he can achieve that incentive.

Vroom (1964) combined valences (perceived desirability of an outcome) and expectancies (perception that effort will lead to attainment of one's goals and objectives) which result in a dynamic called "force" which has both direction and magnitude and which is the instigator of the individual's behavior.

In a discussion of the expectancy theory as a motivational system, Huse and Bowditch (1977) make a distinction in classes of goals that intervene between action, effort, and final outcome. The first-class, intermediate goals

(first-level goals) and the final goals (second-level goals) each has valence attached to them. Another major class of outcomes relates to individual motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes. Intrinsic outcomes are internally derived (such as personal satisfaction); extrinsic outcomes are externally derived (such as wages).

Vroom explains vocational motivation as "predicting: which occupation one will enter, how much one will like it; and how well one will do in it" (p. 6). According to the theory: choice is made on the basis of the occupation which is most likely to satisfy a person's needs, use his or her abilities, and which one can reasonably expect to enter; job performance is a function of motivation and ability; and job satisfaction is a function of valences of all outcomes and strength of expectancy. "Expectancy" theory simply states that motivation is a combined function of the individual's perception that effort will lead to performance and of the perceived desirability of outcome that may result from performance. Research summaries show that the measures have generally been positively related to performance, satisfaction, and effort (Hamner, Ross & Staw, 1978; Huse and Bowditch, 1977).

There are criticisms of the complexity of the theory and the interactions between expectancies and valences which are not well understood (Huse and Bowditch, 1977; Hamner, Ross and Staw, 1978). An examination of the expectancy model reveals that the cause of behavior initiates in values (valences, instrumentality and expectancies) and interacts with the response

(or task performance) resulting in reinforcement, consequences, or feedback.

Goal-Setting Model of Motivation Theory

Another cognitive explanation of more recent origin comes from the applied setting and disagrees with expectancy theorists in the role of values and goals (intentions) (Hamner, Ross and Staw, 1978). First, this theory proposes that cognitions alone "are insufficient to determine a values system" and that "values alone are insufficient to determine a person's behavior" (p. 231). Second, while, like the expectancy theory, values and intentions are the two cognitive determinants of behavior, other variables, emotions and goals, are considered between the concepts of cause and reinforcement of behavior (pp. 231-234).

Huse and Bowditch (1977) summarize the goal-setting concept for leadership:

> The leader motivates subordinates by increasing the personal benefits of work-goal attainment (increasing the importance of the goal) while clarifying the path to the benefits by reducing ambiquities or negative aspects of the path.
>
> The leader reduces job-role ambiguity in the subordinate by clarifying the path-goal relationships, thus increasing motivation.
>
> When the conditions of the job are clear . . . leader-imposed structure or clarification will be regarded as redundant . . . and result in decreased satisfaction (pp. 243-244).

Hamner, Ross, and Staw observe that support for the linking of goalsetting and action is impressive even though it is

confined to a few investigations. The higher the goal level of achievement, the higher the level of performance. The setting of goals is found not only to affect performance levels, but also directly affects satisfaction. "External validity of goalsetting has been established as an important motivational tool" (pp. 232-233). While there is little disagreement in behavior literature that goals are important determinants of performance, there is disagreement as to why goals are important and to what extent they are important.

The goal-setting theory initiates with values (defined as that which one acts to gain or keep), interacts with emotions (value judgments) and goals (intentions), affects performance (or response), and results in consequences, reinforcement or feedback.

These explanations of motivation to work have covered four basic concepts: reinforcement, adaptation, cognitive, and goalsetting. Each theory discussed focuses on one major antecedent of motivation; however, few of the theories identify specific boundary conditions within which the theory is operative.

There are two general approaches advanced: (1) the reinforcement approach advocates that behavior is environmentally determined; (2) adaptation, cognitive and goal-setting approaches assert that behavior is determined by cognitive activity.

Life Stages Theory

As people go through different stages of life in different stages of their careers, there are changes in their motivations, needs, values and other important characteristics. A person's life cycle may be seen as a series of stages characterized by changing patterns of developmental tasks, career concerns, activities and values as he ages and passes through various age ranges (Hall, 1976; Hall and Naougaim, 1968; Kroll et. al., 1970). Therefore, both the career stages and life cycles patterns are critical characteristics which can explain differences in behavior, motivation, and values among the diverse community college population.

Leaders on the community college scene are calling for curtains on the segmented-life concept (Wilson, 1978; Gleazer, 1978) along linear patterns in which one goes from infancy to education, to work, and to retirement. Within a new setting, Wilson asserts that the concept of life-long learning and other activities must be integrated throughout an individual's life. Literature reveals a contemporary approach to values of community college adults based on the observation that people hold differing value patterns at varying levels within adult vocational life stages and that the person's stage in his or her work career is a factor strongly affecting behavior. The value pattern at the varying vocational levels may be closely tied to age (Hall, 1978; Super et. al., 1957; Bishof, 1969; Organ, 1978; Gleazer, 1978).

Sheey (1969) writes that:

> The mystics and the poets always get there first. Shakespeare tried to tell us that man lives through seven stages in the "All the world's a stage" speech in As You Like It. And many centuries before Shakespeare, the Hindu scriptures of India described four distinct life stages, each calling for its own fresh response: student; householder; retirement, when the individual was encouraged to become a pilgrim and begin his true education as an adult; and the final stage of "sannyasin," defined as "one who neither hates nor loves anything" (p. 18).

Sheey observes that the situation is:

> humbling to realize that the view of life as a series of passages in which former pleasures are outgrown and replaced by higher and more appropriate purposes was set down in the second century A.D. and it is interesting to compare this ancient Indian concept with ideas about adult development only now in the West (p. 515).

In some very predictable ways people do make changes over the course of their lives and careers. Four models relating change to ages and stages are examined here: Erickson's life stages; Super's vocational life stages; McCoy's developmental stages, and Miller and Form's occupational stages.

Erickson's Theory of Life Stages

The last four of the eight life-cycle stages developed by Erickson (1963) are applicable to the study of working careers since they cover the time of adult life.

"Adolescence," the first stage of youth, has the developmental task of achieving a sense of "ego identity." Erickson writes concerning this stage:

> Growing and developing youths, faced with this psychological revolution within them, and with tangible adult tasks ahead of them, are now primarily concerned with what they appear to be in the eyes of others as compared with what they feel they are, and with the question of how to connect the roles and skills cultivated earlier with the occupational prototypes of the day (p. 261).

According to Erickson, the main danger at this stage is one of role confusion but in most instances, "it is the inability to settle on an occupational identity which disturbs young people" (p. 261).

"Young adulthood," has the task of developing interpersonal intimacy and involvements with a cause, another person, group, or organization. Erickson explains this stage:

> The young adult, emerging from the search for the insistence on identity, is eager and willing to fuse his identity with that of others. He is ready for intimacy, that is, the capacity to commit himself to concrete affiliations and partnerships and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments, even though they may call for significant sacrifices and compromises (p. 263).

The danger at this stage is that the youth may shun involvements to avoid contacts of intimacy and develop a sense of isolation. This is a time when youth establish lifelong friendships, test out their occupational identities, and go to work involving themselves with institutions of work.

"Adulthood" has the developmental task concerned with the generation of that which is of lasting value to other people and to following generations. Erickson clarifies:

> "Generativity" is primarily the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation, although there are individuals who,

> through misfortune or because of special and genuine gifts in other directions, do not apply this drive to their own offspring. And, indeed, the concept of generativity is meant to include such more popular synonyms as "productivity" and "creativity," which, however, cannot replace it (p. 267).

In the work setting, generativity may be accomplished through building organizations, making discoveries or products that will endure (Hall, 1976). Once the previous stage of identity is accomplished and one is committed to a cause, person, or organization, the next stage is to produce something as a result of that commitment. The opposite of generativity Erickson calls "stagnation," simply meaning standing still, producing nothing; furthermore, it carries the connotation of decay, not only absence of growth.

"Maturity," the final stage, has the developmental task concerned with "ego integrity" (versus despair). The goal is satisfaction with one's actions, choices, and life so that these are meaningful and no changes are desired. Erickson expounds:

> It is the acceptance of one's one and only life cycle as something that had to be and that, by necessity, permitted of no substitutions. . . . In such final consolidations, death loses its sting.
>
> The lack or loss of this accrued ego integration is signified by fear of death: the one and only life cycle is not accepted as the ultimate of life. Despair expresses the feeling that the time is now short, too short for the attempt to start another life and to try out alternate roads to integrity (p. 268-269).

In setting forth these stages from childhood through late adulthood, the cycle is ended by showing the connection between the end and the beginning of life. Citing Webster in his explanation, Erickson says:

> Webster's Dictionary is kind enough to help us complete this outline in a circular fashion. Trust (the first of our ego values) is here defined as "the assured reliance on another's integrity." I suspect that Webster had business in mind rather than babies, credit rather than faith. But the formulation stands. And, it seems possible to further paraphrase the relation of adult integrity and infantile trust by saying that healthy children will not fear life if their elders have integrity enough not to fear death (p. 269).

To relate this theory to vocational behavior in education and work, attention focuses upon the fact that a person must satisfactorily resolve the issues at each stage level before he or she can competently deal with the next stage.

A person may become arrested at a stage of development; for instance, and may become "hung up" at the identity level and remain plagued with doubts about his or her career choice, shift from job to job and perhaps career to career while others may be advancing. Since, according to this theory, a person cannot achieve a full, deep commitment to a person or organization or cause until his or her identity is well defined, neither can one reach a higher stage experience such as creative production (generativity) or ego fulfillment (integrity).

Super's Theory of Vocational Development

Super (1957) describing vocational behavior proposed that "the nature of vocational behavior seems characteristic

of each life stage and it indicates the approximate age limits of the stages" (p. 39).

Super includes five stages: growth, birth-14; exploration, 15-24; establishment, 25-44; maintenance, 45-64; and decline, 65 on. Only the stages applicable to adult ages are presented here:

> Exploration Stage (Age 15-24)
>
> Self-examination, role tryouts, and occupational exploration takes place in school, leisure activities, and part-time work. Substages of the exploration stages are:
>
> > Tentative (15-17). Needs, interests, capacities, values, and opportunities are all considered. Tentative choices are made and tried out in fantasy, discussion, courses, work, etc.
> >
> > Transition (18-21). Reality considerations are given more weight as the youth enters labor market or professional training and attempts to implement a self-concept.
> >
> > Trial (22-24). A seemingly appropriate field having been located, a beginning job is found and is tried out as a life work (p. 40).

Super (1957) relates that vocational developmental tasks are the same for all individuals of society; and they "relate either directly or indirectly to the world of work" (p. 43).

> Establishment Stage (Age 25-44)
>
> Having found an appropriate field, effort is put forth to make a permanent place in it. There may be some trial early in this stage, with consequent shifting, but establishment may begin without trial, especially in the professions. Substages of the establishment stage are:

> Trial (25-30). The field of work, presumed to be suitable may prove unsatisfactory, resulting in one or two changes before the life work is found or before it becomes clear that the life work will be a succession of unrelated jobs.
>
> Stabilization (31-44). As the career pattern becomes clear, effort is put forth to stabilize, to make a secure place, in the world of work. For most persons these are the creative years (p. 41).

Super (1957) lists vocational tasks of the young adults as: choice of college work, curriculum and/or suitable job and the development of job skills.

> Maintanence Stage (Age 45-64)
>
> Having made a place in the world of work, the concern is now to hold it. Little new ground is broken, but there is continuation along established lines (p. 41).

Super presents vocational tasks for the mature adult as "stabilization" in an occupation, providing for future security, and finding appropriate avenues of advancement.

> Decline Stage (Age 65 on)
>
> As physical and mental powers decline, work activity changes and in due course ceases. New roles must be developed, first that of selective participant and then that of observer rather than participant (p. 41).

Super concludes the vocational tasks with the older person as "gradual retirement, finding suitable activities to occupy time, and maintaining self-sufficiency insofar as possible" (p. 44).

In relating this model to vocational behavior and work, one observes a resemblance to general biological growth

and decay curves. There is an early period of exploration and trial, then growth, followed by a stable period in the middle (maintenance), then a decline, and finally a withdrawal from the work environment.

Adult Life Cycle Tasks and Work Outcomes

McCoy (1977) described seven developmental stages for adults in which the stages were related to educational programing needs and outcomes. The three columns of data shown in Figure 1 were selected from the larger work and show only those aspects related to this study.

Gleazer (1978) described the tasks such as McCoy describes as being "interrelated throughout a lifetime" (p. 17) as one enters an occupation, progresses through a career, reexamines work, and disengages from paid work.

The implications for this study of values toward work are important since work adjustment is considered a continuous process and the developmental stages signal values toward work indicated by the life-vocational stage.

Miller and Form's Occupational Stages

Miller and Form (1951) use actual job behaviors, rather than the developmental processes, to describe their five work stages. The classification of work stages reveals career patterns based upon the way people go through, or fail to go through, each stage. The criteria emphasized is stability and security of the career. Childhood is the time designated for the preparatory work period. The late teens stage is

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES	TASKS	OUTCOMES SOUGHT
Leaving Home 18-22	Choose careers	Appropriate career decisions
	Enter work	Successful education/ career entry
Becoming Adult 23-28	Settle in work/ begin career ladder	Career satisfaction and advancement
Catch-30 29-34	Progress in career	Career satisfaction, Economic reward, Sense of competence and achievement
Midlife Reexamination 35-43	Reexamine Work	Appropriate career decision, Autonomous behavior
Restabilization 44-45	Adjust to realities of work	Job adjustment
Preparation for Retirement 56-64	Expand avocational interests	Wise retirement planning

Figure 1. Adult life cycle tasks related to work outcomes.

Note. Excerpted from Adult Life Cycle Change by V. R. McCoy. Lifelong Learning The Adult Years, 1977, 1, 14-18, 31.

labeled initial work period (consists of part-time and occasional jobs). The late twenties and early thirties (from first full-time job until stable work) is called the trial work period. From the thirties to the sixties is assessed as the stable work period; retirement follows.

From this scheme, these career patterns are identified:

1. Stable Career Pattern. The stable career pattern concerns people who have gone directly from their schooling into work; many professionals are classified here.

2. Conventional Career Pattern. The conventional career pattern catches those individuals who go through the stages in this sequence: initial job, trial job, and stable employment. This describes many midmanagement level workers.

3. Unstable Career Pattern. The unstable career pattern does not become established, but moves back and forth between a stable and trial job.

4. Multiple-trial Career Pattern. In the multiple-trial career pattern, the individual goes from one trail job to another; this pattern describes many semi-skilled workers.

This model shows that careers can be typed in the same manner as life stages.

A summary and comparison of these life-stage models is shown in Figure 2. Each of these models examined imply that development--whether by vocational stages, life stages, educational stages, or occupational stages--happens in stages in which an individual must achieve satisfactory resolution of the issues in one stage before he or she can experience

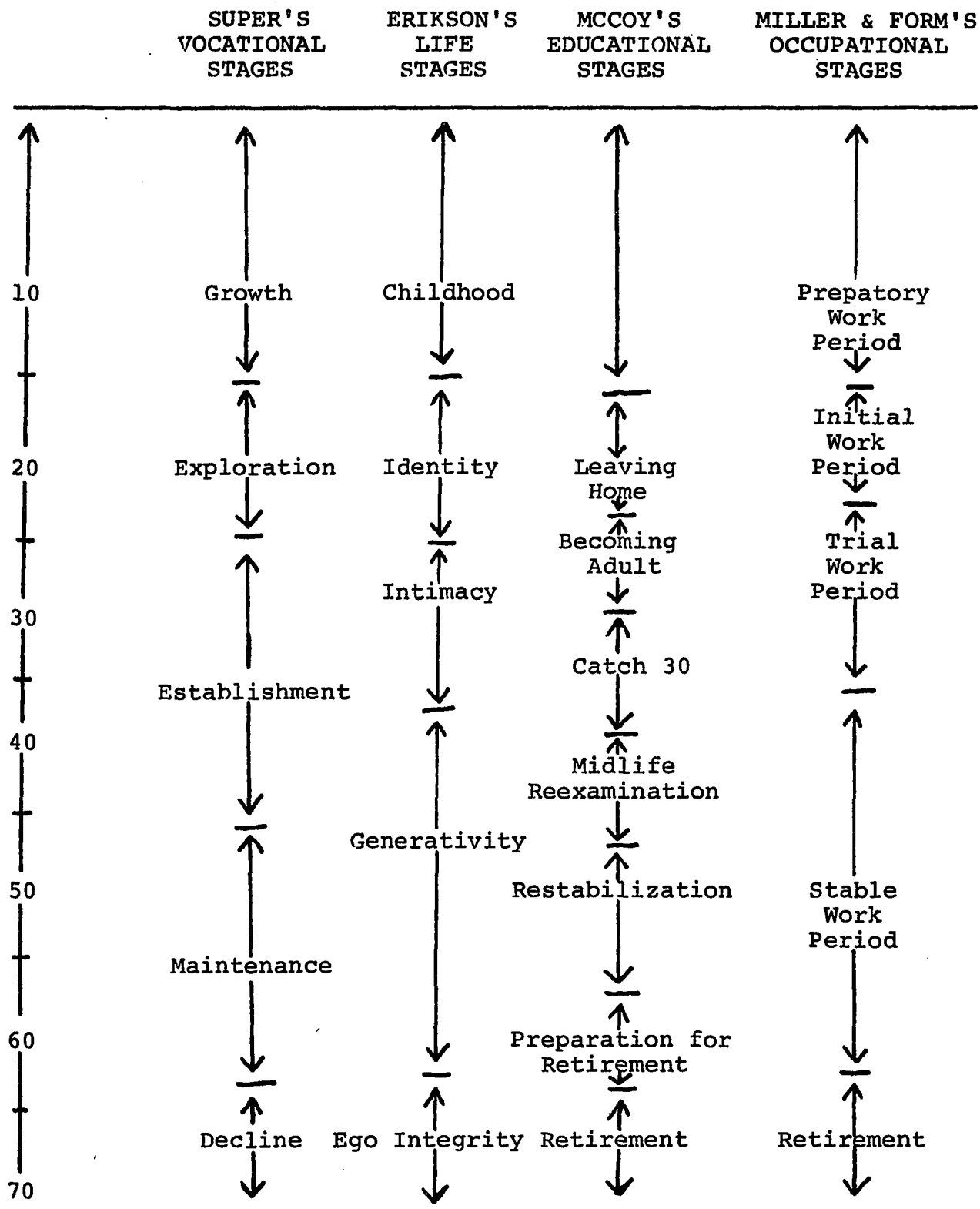

Figure 2. A summary of life stage models.

success at the next stage. These resolutions relate to value motivations appropriate to each stage.

Research Related to the Present Study

In vocational behavior, motivation may frequently be expressed in forms of liking or disliking an activity or object. A relatively new term, "work values," has gained popularity and use during the past decade in describing motivation. This section discusses the meaning of work values, meaningfulness of work, and research using work values.

Meaning of Work Values

A review of literature shows general agreement on the concept of values. Kerlinger (1973) says "values express preferences for modes of conduct and end-states of existence" (p. 499). Zytowski (1970) sees work values as a "set of concepts which mediate between the person's affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfactions" (p. 175). They are generally descriptive either of the internal state of the person or of the kind of reward or satisfaction available to that internal need. Super (1973) clarifies the motivational terms of interests and values: "Values are objectives one seeks to satisfy a need; interests are the specific activities and objects through which values can be . . . met" (p. 190).

Structure of Work Values

Zytowski (1970) identified Ginzberg as the first person to place work values into three types: (1) work values

related to work activity, (2) work values related to the returns of work (pay and the way of life a job permits), (3) work values related to the concomitants of work associated with the job (supervisors and co-workers).

Factors from Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1959), when subjected to analysis, yielded three similar components: (1) social environment, (2) task-centered opportunities for self-actualization, and (3) recognition through advancement. Hendrix and Super (1968) found dimensions in the Work Values Inventory similar to the intrinsic-extrinsic clustering, plus self-expression and autonomy factors for boys. For girls only the first three were found.

Zytowski (1970) concluded that a "concept of work values is a viable one in the description of vocational behavior" (p. 184). A taxonomy of work values emerged from a comparison of the three inventories of Super, Stefflire, and the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) and the values employed by Schaffer, Rosenberg, and Herzberg. As a result, agreement was found in 12 to 15 categories that "may be taken as fundamental" (p. 183). In the absence of a universal set of work values, Zytowski (1970) through his taxonomy advanced the concept of work valuing to link entry and performance aspects of vocational behavior.

Taxonomy of Work Values

Through a comparison of similarities in the scheme of satisfaction factors, job values, and desires, Zytowski

concludes that clustering the 12-15 identified factors gives a utilitarian set of dimensions for investigating vocational behavior. A review of extrinsic values revealed some variant of (1) security; (2) prestige; (3) economic return; (4) advancement; and (5) recognition, representing outcomes of work or of the job itself.

A second grouping of values involved relationships with people on the job, or concomitants of work. These factors included: (1) surroundings and working conditions, (2) associates and interpersonal relations with peers, (3) management and interpersonal relations with subordinates, and (4) supervisory interpersonal relations.

A third dimension was categorized as intrinsic values of work which are likely all a part of the job itself. There are several factors within this range of values: (1) independence and freedom from supervision; (2) altruism; (3) creativity; (4) way of life and moral values; (5) intellectual stimulation, personal growth and use of abilities; and (6) variety, adventure, and activity.

Meaningfulness of Work

Meaningful work has taken on different meanings to different people. Recent research demonstrates that work played a crucial and unparalleled psychological role in the formation of self-esteem, identity, and a sense of self-concept.

Best (1973) suggests that "as human beings, we have important needs that extend beyond the mere satisfaction of our

material wants, and . . . human work must integrate these needs in a way which gives our lives balance, completeness, and purpose. . . . It is the totality of our human needs which guide and shape the evolving goals and conditions of work in the future" (p. 16).

Mitchell (1967) viewed work goals as changing over time; and he, building upon the work of Maslow's theories, viewed society with needs embracing a hierarchy of five levels that describe a natural progression from youth to full psychological maturity. The first four need levels (survival, security, belongingness, and esteem) were seen as specific and satiable need patterns arising from internal or external lacks; the fifth level (self-actualization) is one of expression in which a person expresses himself to the fullest potential.

Jacobs (1957) concluded that "vocational preparation and skill and experience in social adjustment head the rewards which students crave from higher education" (p. 3). Super (1970) summarizes from research differing views of work for persons engaged in higher-level occupations as "a means of self-actualization," "as a way of life," "a way of finding of life role," and a means of implementing one's self-concept. For large numbers of semi-skilled and unskilled persons in both blue- and white-collar categories and for many women, work is seen as a "means to other ends" (p. 4).

There are some who disagree, however, with the ideas on self-concept and self-identity. Kline (1959) criticized

Super's view of the self-concept theory saying it said nothing and was trivial. Green (1973) observes that many jobs do not provide people with either an adequate sense of self-identity or any satisfactory central life interest. He draws a distinction between "work" and "job;" work is seen as having more significance than job. The view expressed is that the alienation some workers feel is from the institutions themselves, and the way jobs are structured, rather than the kind of work that fully engages their capacities.

Kahn and Wiener's (1973) characterization of various roles work may play in the future could offer an explanation for these criticisms:

1. The basic attitude toward work as an "interruption" will be held by persons of "normal" (i.e., not deprived) backgrounds seeking the value of short-run income.

2. The attitude toward work as a "job" will be held by those who are in the lower economically-depressed classes. The value fulfilled by work will be a long-term income and some work-oriented values (one works to live).

3. The attitude toward work as an "occupation" will be held by persons also of the lower income and economically-depressed backgrounds. The value for this group will be the exercise and mastery of gratifying skills and some satisfaction of achievement-oriented values.

4. The attitude toward work as a "career" will be held by persons who basic value of work is fulfilled by participating in an important activity or program. Much

satisfaction of work-oriented, achievement-oriented, advancement-oriented values prevail.

5. The attitude toward work as a "vocation" (calling) will be held by those who find their values in work fulfilled by self-identification and self-fulfillment. The attitude toward work as a "mission" for those with a missionary zeal for work will find their values fulfilled through a single-minded focus on achievement or advancement (pp. 152-153).

Research Using Work Values

Research using work values was found in the areas of college students' values, transfer and non-transfer students, and part-time community college students' work values.

College Students' Values

Jacob (1957) investigated the values of American college students to discover what happens to the values as a result of the general education in social sciences. Defining values as preferences, criteria, or choices of personal or group conduct, Jacob identified values as a standard for decision-making. He held that the value is identified when it is articulated in an expressed verbal statement or in overt conduct. The controversial findings of this report served as a stimulus to subsequent research on values. There were no discerned significant changes in student values attributed to the character of the curriculum or to basic courses which students took. "For the most part, the values and outlook of students do not vary greatly whether they have pursued a

conventional liberal arts program, an integrated general education curriculum, or one of the strictly professional-vocational options" (p. 5).

Brawer (1971) compared values of freshmen and faculty of junior colleges in California to develop guidelines for institutional assessment and program development. While findings showed that values do indicate a potentially fruitful way of examining people functioning in systems of education, the results revealed that the actual value of a student or teacher seems to affect a value system more than do other variables of sex, major, or age.

A 1978 national survey of the American people included students with a college background (Gallup). Seventy-seven percent of these students would like to see greater emphasis on hard work and 77 percent would like to see less emphasis on money. Of the American people from ages 18 to 29, 59 percent indicated a desire for more emphasis on hard work and 72 percent less emphasis on money. Among persons ages 30 to 49, 74 percent wanted more emphasis on hard work and 77 percent less emphasis on money. For those persons 50 years and older, 74 percent wanted more emphasis on hard work and 62 percent wanted less emphasis on money. Gallup suggested that this was a desire for a return to "normalcy" (p. 4).

Transfer and Non-Transfer Students

Cross (1970) in a study of four New York community college parallel and non-college parallel students found that

85 percent of the students in the college parallel and 44 percent of the non-college parallel students had aspirations for transfer. A major finding relevant to this study was that the college parallel student was more likely to be motivated by intrinsic reward while the non-college parallel was more likely to find greater satisfaction in extrinsic rewards. Cross (1976) advocates a major emphasis be placed upon the learning needs and characteristics of the new community college clientele. One major dimension mentioned was that of student motivation.

Alstyne (1974) summarizing data from the American Council on Education's Cooperative Institutional Research Program found information on the subgroups (transfers and non-transfers) useful. The class of 1967 with 186,000 freshmen entering 252 institutions were surveyed; and four years later, 1971, follow-up information was collected revealing that 25 percent of the class eventually transferred. There were no marked differences between the two groups with respect to demographic characteristics, socio-economic background, academic performance or attitudes. The greatest single difference noted was that transfer students take longer to complete their education and embark on their careers.

Johnson (1970) made a study to determine the values of 100 community college students in Business Administration, Engineering Technology, Secretarial and Liberal Arts to help students make career plans at the non-professional level. Results did differentiate among interests of students enrolled

in different career fields in the two-year programs; however, the study of values was relatively unsuccessful in making the same type of differentiation among these students. Johnson says that student's choice of a career field appears to be more closely related to what he likes than to what he believes to be important or valuable. The recommendation was made that each community college investigate interests of students in the different academic programs.

Grace and Lee (1974) also found that work values moderately differentiate among community college occupational programs in Liberal Arts, Allied Health, Secretarial, and Business Administration in their freshman year.

Moline (1974) examined the relationship between level of a student's educational-vocational involvement and work-value needs and found no significant relationships between students from a state university and a community college. All students were volunteers from career-oriented curricula in social-educational, business-management, and technical-semi-professional classifications.

Morrison (1975) studied student work values and personality traits in relation to curricular choices of community junior college students from six southwest states: Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah. There was, however, no significant difference found between AAS students and AA students for the grand mean scores on work values. The conclusion was that subjects do not differ

significantly on their perception of the meaning and value of work when measured on the grand mean score.

Work Values of Males and Females

Glogowski and Lanning (1976) studied values of 153 young and mature women in an urban community college enrolled in career programs, one of which was business and clerical. On economic value, business students ranked high and mature women (over 27) ranked higher than other groups (21 and under).

Differences were found between curricula and values of economic independence, mastery-achievement, and social. Significant differences were found in relation to age category and economic-independence, interesting activity-variety, mastery-achievement, and social values. The conclusion is that women who enter various curricula hold certain related work values.

Kuiper (1978) studying clerical workers, gives reasons why women work as accomplishment, mastery-achievement, self-actualization, and job extrinsic to improve economic situation of the family, and because they desire to do so. The conclusion is that the debate continues as to whether women's needs are best identified and classified as self-actualization or economic needs since findings indicated job extrinsics and self-actualization to be nearly equal in importance to clerical workers.

Blai (1970) found that the mastery-achievement values were the central needs women expressed as the reason they work.

Wolfe (1969) also found this true for women, and he found that values do vary among women according to demographic variables.

Grace and Lee (1974) found sex to be a determinant of values: females were strong on altruistic scale; males were strong in economic-return scale.

Searfoss (1975), investigating clerical workers and pre-vocational students in the metropolitan Toledo, Ohio area, found a difference for male and female pre-vocational business students and employed clerical workers in values of creativity, management, surroundings, supervisory relations and intellectual stimulation. Males and females were found to think alike on values of achievement, way of life, security, associates, esthetics, prestige variety, economic return, and altruistic values.

Moline (1974) found in students from a state university and a community college there were differences relating to sex. Females preferred values representing social service, activity, and co-workers; males preferred values relating to advancement, authority, and social status.

Super (1970) found that clerical office workers tend to rate relatively high in achievement and in surroundings; business students interested in contact occupations rate independence relatively high; most people rate prestige value as being important; white-collar workers attach high value to economic returns and associates; while most occupational groups rate supervisory relations high.

Part-Time Community College Students' Work Values

Jones and Tippett (1974) assessed part-time students from 56 community college institutions in North Carolina on their work values to determine if these values were related to selected demographic characteristics. The college system was both urban and rural in characteristics. No significant differences were found in work values of males and females. All respondents regardless of sex placed the greatest emphasis upon achievement. In the seven highest-ranked values, independence and surroundings were the values that differentiated men and women. Men valued independence while women were more concerned with working conditions. Job security tended to diminish as age increased; however, there was no significant association between level of educational attainment and economic return.

While these related studies were found, no studies of community college business degree students were found that explore relationships of work value and demographic variables in relation to educational degree goals. Furthermore, studies from the central area of the United States were noticeably few.

Summary

The review of research has covered explanations of motivation from three points of view. Vocational motivation theories were considered in relation to determinants of motivation to work. Life stages theories were reviewed in relation

to values appropriate to each stage of development. Studies on work values were reviewed to reflect the goals of related educational and work groups. The conclusion was that values vary for persons with different educational and work goals. Although many studies have been done relating educational goals with values, none were found that investigated the specific problem in this study.

The next chapter discusses the methodology used in this research project.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive study was to examine the work values of community college business students in relation to selected demographic characteristics and students' school goals. The dependent variables were the fifteen work values assessed by the Work Values Inventory, and the attribute variables were the demographic variables and educational degree goals. Specificially the hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 1--There are differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those seeking the AAs degree.

Hypothesis 2--There are differences in the work values of community college business students according to the demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification.

Hypothesis 3--There are differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those students seeking the AAS degree in relation to the demographic variables of age, gender, employment status, and classification.

To test the hypotheses, it was necessary to obtain data for the population from Oscar Rose Junior College business students who were seeking the AA and the AAS degrees. Additional data giving information relevant to this study was also used.

Nature and Sources of Data

Information on values toward work used in this study utilized these sources:

1. Books, journals, and doctoral studies relative to the study of values toward work.

2. Selected books and articles on educational statistics and research.

3. Test results from the administration of the Work Values Inventory to two selected samples of community college business students.

4. Demographic data from the community college business students seeking an associate degree.

Population and Sample Size

The community college used in this study had an enrollment of 6,895 students in 16-week classes for the Spring semester, 1978, when the research was done. In the Division of Business, there were 1,984 students enrolled in 16-week sessions; and 1,910 of these were declared business majors who were seeking either an AA or an AAS degree. The sample used in this study was taken from selected, required core classes for associate business degrees. All students in the

28 classes of Accounting, Business Communications, and Economics were tested. The tests were sorted based upon respondents' choices of the AA degree and the AAS degree. A random sample of 330 students was taken which was comprised of 165 students from each of the two associate degree groups. The sample size was computed according to the following formula (Yamane, 1964, p. 547).

$$n = \frac{N}{1} + N\, e_2$$

n = Sample

N = Population

e = Significance at .05 level

Instrument for Testing

Two instruments were utilized for data collection: Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory and a short biographical form developed and utilized by the investigator to collect information from respondents.

Super's Work Values Inventory was employed to measure the work value goals which motivated community college business students in work. The instrument measures motivation for work in fifteen work value factors all of which are socially approved. According to Super (1970) the instrument assesses work values which are both intrinsic to work as well as those values which are extrinsic and the concomitants or outcomes of work which both men and women seek in work satisfaction. The value factors measured by the instrument are achievement, altruism, associates,

creativity, economic return, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, management, prestige, security, supervisory relations, way of life, surroundings, and variety.

Gable and Pruzek (1971) subjected the Work Values Inventory to factoral analysis in independent studies for validation and found that Super's groupings of items within subscales were reasonable and sufficient for describing the relationships advanced by the author. They found in general the same factors reported by Hendrix and Super (1968). Super (1970) reported that the Work Values Inventory measuring goals that motivate people to work is reliable based on test-retest correlation with a median correlation of .83. The fifteen scales of the 45-item inventory are internally consistent and stable over a time interval of two weeks.

The instrument is available from Houghton Mifflin Company. Since it is copyrighted, a copy is not included.

Methodology

In this descriptive research project, these steps were taken:

1. A review of research was made on values toward work relevant to this study.

2. The population to be tested was selected from Oscar Rose Junior College, a large urban community college in the southwest.

3. Preparation for collecting data included writing a letter of request for permission together with a schedule

of classes by hour and subject (see Appendix B) to establish January 30-31, 1978 as dates for administration.

4. A student biographical form was developed to collect data on participants in the study (see Appendix B).

5. The Work Values Inventory was prepared for administration including the attaching of the biographical form to the front of the inventory; assigning a unique number to the lower left of each form; and packaging materials in clasp envelopes for distribution to each class.

6. An interoffice communication was prepared by the Chairperson of the Division of Business (see Appendix B) to instructors of each participating class giving instructions for administering the instruments. The memo was hand delivered by the investigator and the procedures were reviewed. The envelopes were delivered to the instructors prior to the scheduled class.

7. The surveys were collected from each class; all forms received were counted in terms of number distributed; inventories were hand scored and sorted into degree groups; and a random sample was selected from the AA and AAS degree groups using a table of random numbers (Minium, 1970, pp. 454-455).

8. The information was prepared for processing including the recording and verifying of data in cards for analysis. The data were processed at the University of Oklahoma Computing Center including descriptive statistics and factor analysis on student response, and a series of individual,

two-way analysis of variance on student response and demographic variables. Each of these procedures and results are discussed in Chapter IV.

The analysis of variance was used to ascertain differences and to identify interactions between values and specific demographic variables. The factor analysis was used to compare the test groups' responses with the norming group. Descriptive statistics were compiled to show characteristics of students used in the study.

9. A final report of the findings was written.

The next chapter gives an analysis of the data based on student rating of values on the Work Values Inventory and responses to the biographical survey form.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the work values of students in relation to various demographic factors and the students' school goals. The dependent variables were the fifteen work values assessed by the Work Values Inventory: achievement, altruism, associates, creativity, economic returns, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, management, prestige, security, supervisory relations, surroundings, variety, and way of life.

The attribute variables used were age, gender, employment status, student classification (day or evening), and degree program.

The following descriptive data were compiled. Percentages of students in each attribute category and for additional student characteristics collected on the biographical form. The information was subdivided by degree emphasis and means and standard deviations of students in each attribute category subdivided by degree emphasis for each value. Means and standard deviations were also shown for the tenth grade students used to develop test norms.

Statistical analyses were used to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 - There are differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those students seeking the AAS degree.

Hypothesis 2 - There are differences in the work values of community college business students according to the four demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification.

Hypothesis 3 - There are differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those students seeking the AAS degree in relation to the four demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification.

The hypotheses were tested by means of a series of individual, two-way analyses of variance, with degree program as an attribute variable in each. The other attribute variable was one of the four demographic variables and the dependent variable in each was one of the fifteen work values.

Because of the number of analyses, ANOVA tables are given for only those areas showing significance. Summary tables show the results of the other analyses.

Three factor analyses were used, one for each degree program and one for the total number of students, and the results were compared with those of the tenth grade students used to develop test norms.

Descriptive Data

Percentage of Students in Each Category

Tables 1 through 10 show the percentages of students in each demographic category.

Table 1

Percentages of Students by Age

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Age	N	%	N	%	N	%
18 - 24	74	45%	69	42%	143	43%
25 - 30	43	26%	39	24%	82	25%
31 - 35	17	10%	23	14%	40	12%
36 - 40	10	6%	6	3%	16	5%
41 - 45	13	8%	19	12%	32	10%
46 - 50	7	4%	8	5%	15	5%
> 50	1	.6%	1	.6%	2	.6%
Total	165	100%*	165	100%*	330	100%*

*Percentages do not total exactly 100% due to rounding.

Table 2

Percentages of Students by Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Gender	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	131	79%	91	55%	222	67%
Female	34	21%	74	45%	108	33%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 3

Percentages of Students by Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Employment Status	N	%	N	%	N	%
Employed	123	7%%	126	76%	249	75%
Unemployed	42	25%	39	24%	81	25%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 4

Percentage of Students by Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Classification	N	%	N	%	N	%
Day	76	46%	56	34%	132	40%
Evening	78	47%	97	59%	175	53%
Both	11	7%	12	7%	23	7%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 5

Percentages of Students by Marital Status

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Marital Status	N	%	N	%	N	%
Married	90	55%	88	53%	178	54%
Single	75	45%	77	47%	152	46%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 6

Percentages of Students by Number of Current Hours Enrolled

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Hours	N	%	N	%	N	%
0 - 6	35	21%	38	23%	73	22%
7 - 12	81	49%	99	60%	180	55%
13 - 18	49	30%	28	17%	77	23%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 7

Percentages of Students by Accumulated Hours

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Hours	N	%	N	%	N	%
0 - 5	12	7%	10	6%	22	8%
6 - 12	21	13%	24	15%	45	14%
13 - 20	22	13%	22	13%	44	14%
21 - 30	28	17%	32	19%	60	18%
31 - 40	27	16%	25	15%	52	16%
41 - 50	36	22%	28	17%	64	17%
51 - 60	13	8%	20	12%	33	10%
Other	6	4%	4	2%	10	3%
Total	165	100%	165	100%*	330	100%

*Percentages do not total exactly 100% due to rounding.

Table 8

Percentages of Students by Length of Employment

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Years Employed	N	%	N	%	N	%
0	22	13%	25	15%	47	15%
1 - 5	57	35%	53	32%	110	33%
6 - 10	38	23%	45	27%	83	25%
11 - 15	22	13%	12	7%	34	10%
16 - 20	6	4%	5	3%	11	3%
> 20	20	12%	25	15%	45	14%
Total	165	100%	165	100%*	330	100%

*Percentage does not total exactly 100% due to rounding.

Table 9

Percentages of Students by Current Class

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Class	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accounting	81	49%	65	40%	146	44%
Business Communications	54	33%	70	42%	124	38%
Economics	30	18%	30	18%	60	18%
Total	165	100%	165	100%	330	100%

Table 10

Percentages of Students by Major Emphasis

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		Total	
Major	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accounting	6	4%	40	24%	46	14%
Court Reporting	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
Logistics/ Mid-Mgmt.	0	0%	1	.6%	1	.3%
Sec. Adm.	2	1%	10	6%	12	4%
Med. Sec.	0	0%	2	1%	2	.6%
Banking/ Finance	1	.6%	1	.6%	2	.6%
Data Processing	1	.6%	18	11%	19	6%
Off. Adm.	0	0%	4	2%	4	1%
Leg. Sec. Adm.	1	.6%	1	.6%	2	.6%
Mid-Mgmt.	7	4%	34	21%	41	12%
Bus. Adm.	26	16%	47	28%	73	22%
Leg. Asst.	1	.6%	4	2%	5	2%
Real Estate/ Insurance	2	1%	1	.6%	3	.9%
Undeclared	118	72%	2	1%	120	36%
Total	165	100%*	165	100%*	330	100%*

*Percentages do not total exactly 100% due to rounding.

Means and Standard Deviations

Means and standard deviations were computed for students on each value scale according to degree program and the four demographic variables. Means and standard deviations for tenth grade students used in norming the instrument and the composite means for the subjects in this study are shown in Table 11.

Means and standard deviations for areas of significance are shown with the ANOVA tables. See Appendix A for means and standard deviations of no statistical significance in Tables 48-94.

ANOVAS

The hypotheses were tested by a series of two-way analyses of variance with the following results. Prestige was the only value in which no statistically significant difference was found in any area. Degree program made a difference on seven values, regardless of other attributes or interactions. Table 12 shows the significance of these seven values, achievement, altruism, associates, security, supervisory relations, surroundings, and way of life. Those students enrolled in the AAS program rated all seven of the significant values higher than students in the AA program.

Age

Age was of significant difference in only one value, variety. Tables 13 and 14 show the results of this analysis. For purposes of analysis, the over 50 age group with only one subject was included with the 46-50 age group.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for Norming Groups Associate of Arts Students and Associate of Applied Science Students

	Tenth Grade Norming Group		Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree	
Value	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Achievement	12.03	2.91	12.71	2.25	13.44	1.64
Altruism	11.37	3.34	11.56	2.40	12.38	2.12
Associates	11.51	3.08	10.44	2.14	10.92	1.88
Creativity	9.68	2.95	11.38	2.42	11.82	2.19
Economic Returns	12.25	3.03	13.18	1.89	13.30	1.92
Esthetics	7.66	2.82	9.12	2.39	9.28	2.69
Independence	10.24	2.82	11.79	2.11	12.01	2.11
Intellectual Stimulation	11.67	3.08	11.98	1.95	12.34	1.79
Management	9.64	2.94	9.96	2.38	10.39	2.32
Prestige	11.39	2.81	10.47	2.24	11.68	2.07
Security	10.53	3.26	12.29	2.65	13.04	2.02
Supervisory Relations	10.82	2.98	12.58	2.45	13.32	1.72
Surroundings	11.11	2.94	11.81	2.06	12.27	1.90
Variety	10.52	2.83	11.36	2.18	11.77	2.15
Way of Life	12.86	2.95	12.99	2.01	13.55	1.85

Table 12

Significance of Seven Values by Degree

	Associate of Arts Degree		Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Value	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	ρ
Achievement	12.71	2.25	13.44	1.64	.001
Altruism	11.56	2.40	12.38	2.12	.001
Associates	10.44	2.14	10.92	1.88	.030
Security	12.29	2.65	13.04	2.02	.004
Supervisory Relations	12.58	2.45	13.32	1.72	.002
Surroundings	11.81	2.06	12.27	1.90	.030
Way of Life	12.99	2.01	13.55	1.85	.008

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for

Variety by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.49	2.11	69	11.73	2.07
25 - 30	43	11.79	2.03	39	12.33	2.00
31 - 35	17	11.06	1.64	23	10.78	2.73
36 - 40	10	11.10	2.51	6	12.00	1.10
41 - 45	13	10.62	3.12	19	12.26	1.85
46 - 50	7	10.14	2.48	8	11.25	2.25
50	1	11.00	-	1	9.00	-

Table 14

ANOVA Table for Variety by Degree and Age

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1468.05	318	4.62		
Degree	13.20	1	13.20	2.86	0.09
Age	54.50	5	10.90	2.36	0.04*
Degree/Age	19.14	5	3.83	0.83	0.53

Variety. Table 13 shows the means and standard deviations for variety by degree and age. There was a significant difference in responses at the .05 level. Table 14 shows the analysis of variance results for variety. Disregarding the over 50 age group which had only one subject in each degree program, the only age at which those subjects in the AA program ranked variety higher than those in the other program was in the 31-35 age group. In the AA program the highest ratings were given to variety in the younger age groups, 18-24, 25-30, 31-35, and 36-40. In the AAS program the 31-35 and 46-50 age groups rated variety lower than did those students of other ages.

Summary. Highest ranking values varied by age, although not statistically significant, as well as by degree. In the 18-24 age group economic returns was the only high ranking value for both degree programs. Additionally, AAS students in the 18-24 age bracket ranked achievement, supervisory relations, security, and way of life higher than other values.

Among the 25-30 age group, economic returns and way of life ranked high in both degree programs, and security, supervisory relations, and achievement in the AAS program. Students in the 31-35 age group give the highest rating to economic returns in both degree programs. Way of life, supervisory relations, and achievement ranked high with the students in the AAS program.

Way of life was the most important value to the students in the 36-40 age group in the AA program. In this age group students in the AAS program also gave high ratings to achievement, security, intellectual stimulation, surroundings, altruism, supervisory relations, and way of life.

In the 41-45 age group the most important values for the AA program were economic returns, supervisory relations, achievement, and way of life. Achievement was the highest followed by supervisory relations, way of life, and intellectual stimulation for the AAS program.

Achievement and way of life ranked highest among the students in the 46-50 age group in both degree programs. Supervisory relations, way of life, and altruism were important to the AAS students in this age bracket.

The lowest-ranking value was esthetics in every group. Management received a low rating for students in the 18-24, 25-30, and 31-35 age groups in both degree programs, and the 41-45 and 46-50 age groups in the AA program. Associates received a low rating from students in the 36-40 and 41-45 age groups in the AA program.

Gender

Tables 15-32 show the means and standard deviations and the analysis of variance results for degree program and gender on eight values: achievement, creativity, economic returns, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, management, and surroundings. These eight values were statistically significant at the .05 level.

Achievement. Means and standard deviations for achievement by degree program and gender are shown in Table 15. Analysis of variance results are in Table 16. There was significant interaction between degree and gender with males in the AA program ranking higher than the females in that program, and females in the AAS program ranking higher than the males.

An analysis of variance for simple main effects showed the source of interaction to be the degree program for females. Table 17 shows the result of this analysis. The interaction is illustrated in Figure 3.

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for Achievement by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	12.86	2.26	91	13.30	1.48
Female	34	12.12	2.11	74	13.62	1.82

Table 16

ANOVA Table for Achievement by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1251.45	326	3.84		
Degree	44.37	1	44.37	11.56	0.001*
Gender	0.69	1	0.69	0.18	0.67
Degree/Gender	18.60	1	18.60	4.84	0.03

Table 17

Analysis of Variance Table Showing Tests of Simple Main Effects for Achievement by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Critical value, .05
Within Cells	1251.45	326	3.84		
Gender/ AA Degree	14.78	1	14.78	3.85	3.87
Gender/ AAS Degree	4.17	1	4.17	1.09	3.87
Degree/ Males	10.40	1	10.40	2.71	3.87
Degree/ Females	55.41	1	55.41	13.65*	3.87

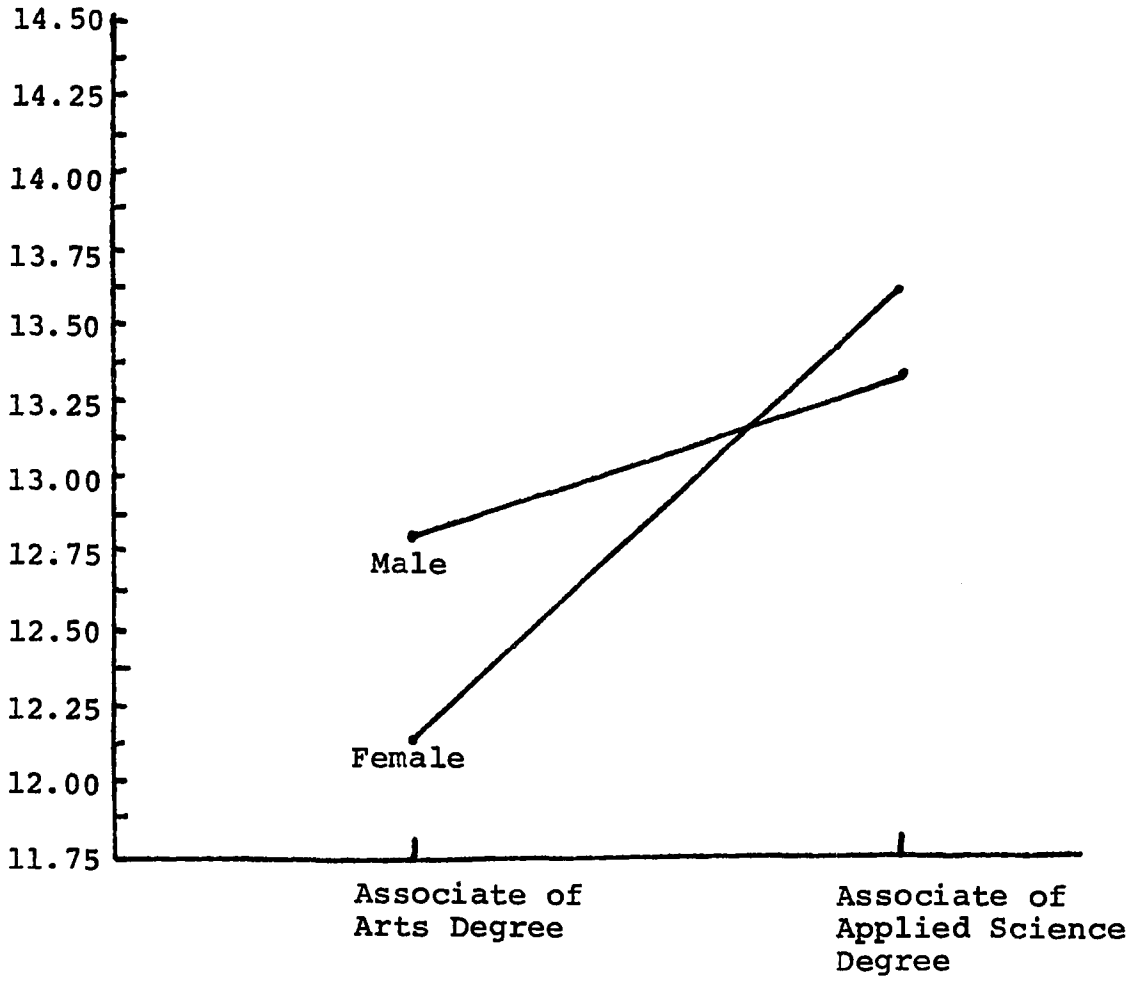

Figure 3. Illustration of interaction of degree and gender on achievement.

Creativity. Table 18 shows means and standard deviations for creativity by degree program and gender. Analysis of variance results are shown in Table 19. There was a significant difference in the importance of creativity between males and females, with males in both degree programs giving it a higher rating than the females.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for Creativity by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Males	131	11.56	2.42	91	12.17	1.75
Female	34	10.71	2.34	74	11.39	2.59

Table 19

ANOVA Table for Creativity by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	ρ
Within Cells	1701.54	326	5.22		
Degree	15.71	1	15.71	3.01	0.08
Gender	48.85	1	48.84	8.40	0.004*
Degree/Gender	0.10	1	0.10	0.02	0.89

Economic Returns. Means and standard deviations for economic returns by degree program and gender are shown in Table 20. There was a significant interaction between gender and degree program with males in the AA program and females in the AAS program ranking economic returns the highest (see Tables 21-22). Interaction is shown in Figure 4.

An analysis of variance for simple main effects showed the source of interaction to be gender in the AA program and degree program among females (see Table 22).

Table 20

Means and Standard Deviations for Economic Returns by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	13.41	1.57	91	13.26	1.82
Female	34	12.29	2.66	74	13.35	2.05

Table 21

ANOVA Table for Economic Returns by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1159.34	326	3.56		
Degree	1.21	1	1.21	0.34	0.56
Gender	10.44	1	10.44	2.94	0.09
Degree/Gender	23.62	1	23.62	6.64	0.01*

Table 22

Analysis of Variance Table Showing Tests of Simple Main Effects for Economic Returns by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Critical value, .05
Within Cells	1159.34	326	3.56		
Gender/ AA Degree	33.86	1	33.86	9.51*	3.87
Gender/ AAS Degree	.33	1	.33	.09	3.87
Degree/ Males	1.21	1	1.21	.34	3.87
Degree/ Females	26.18	1	26.18	7.35*	3.87

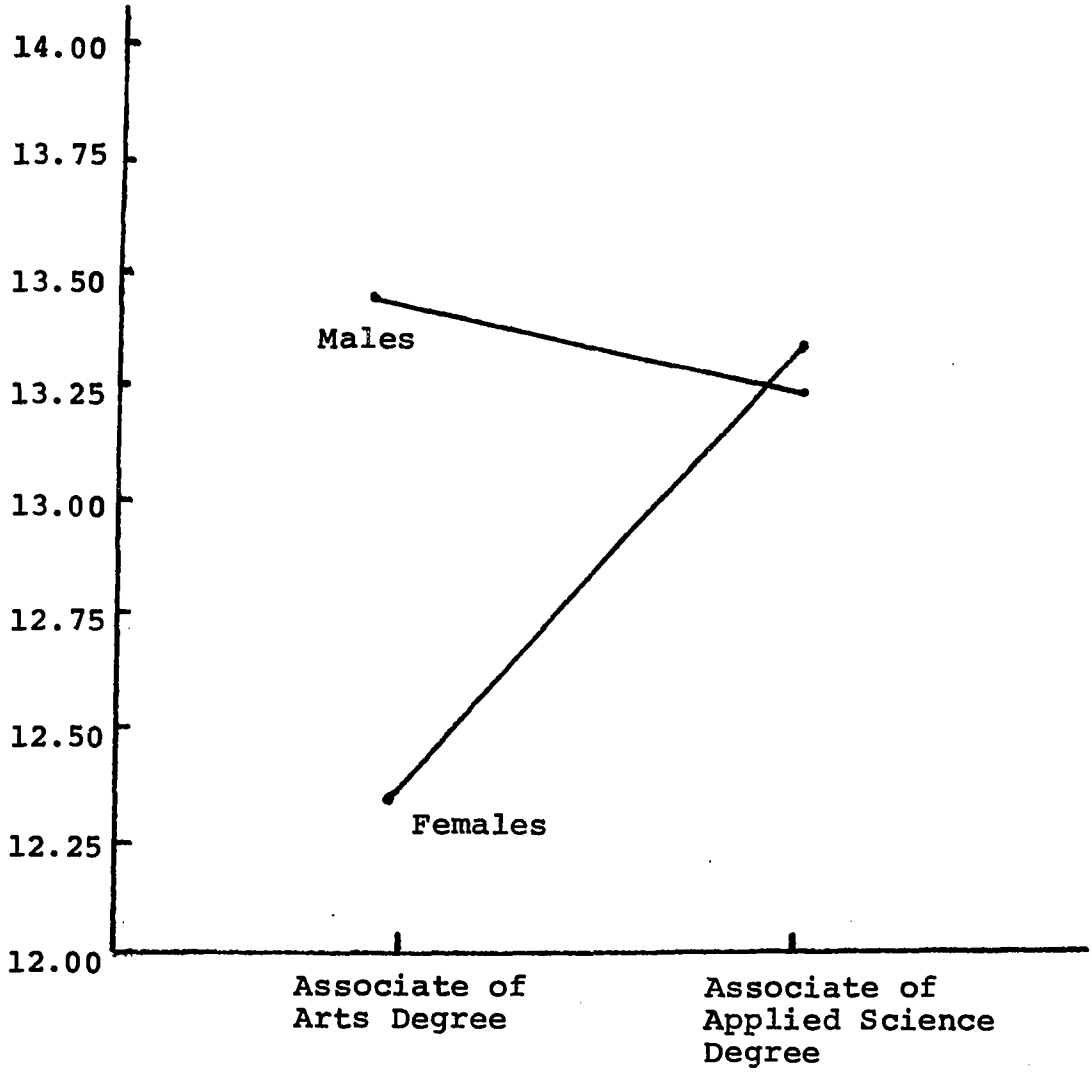

Figure 4. Illustration of interaction of degree and gender on economic returns.

Esthetics. Table 23 shows means and standard deviations for degree program and gender for esthetics. There was a significant difference in the responses of males and females on esthetics, with males ranking it significantly higher in importance than females in both degree programs, as shown in Table 24.

Table 23

Means and Standard Deviations for Esthetics by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	9.27	2.38	91	9.57	2.59
Female	34	8.56	2.44	74	8.93	2.81

Table 24

ANOVA Table for Esthetics by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	2106.98	326	6.46		
Degree	2.21	1	2.21	0.34	0.56
Gender	30.13	1	30.13	4.66	0.03*
Degree/Gender	0.09	1	0.08	0.01	0.91

Independence. Means and standard deviations for independence by degree program and gender are shown in Table 25. There was a statistically significant difference in independence, with males ranking it higher than females in both degree programs (see Table 26).

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for Independence by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	12.08	1.87	91	12.37	2.14
Female	34	10.68	2.60	74	11.58	2.01

Table 26

ANOVA Table for Independence by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	ρ
Within Cells	1386.83	326	4.25		
Degree	8.12	1	4.15	0.98	0.32
Gender	72.97	1	72.97	17.15	0.001*
Degree/Gender	6.14	1	6.14	1.44	0.23

Intellectual Stimulation. Table 27 shows means and standard deviations for intellectual stimulation by degree program and gender. There was a significant difference in the responses of males and females on intellectual stimulation, with males in both degree programs giving it more importance (see Table 28).

Table 27

Means and Standard Deviations for Intellectual Stimulation by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	12.08	1.94	91	12.62	1.77
Female	34	11.59	1.99	74	12.00	1.77

Table 28

ANOVA Table for Intellectual Stimulation by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1129.01	326	3.46		
Degree	10.91	1	10.91	3.15	0.08
Gender	21.62	1	21.62	6.24	0.01*
Degree/Gender	0.26	1	0.26	0.08	0.78

Management. The means and standard deviations for management by degree program and gender are shown in Table 29. There was a significant difference in management between males and females, with males ranking it higher in both degree programs, as shown in Table 30.

Table 29

Means and Standard Deviations for Management by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Males	131	10.14	2.51	91	10.63	2.33
Female	34	9.27	1.69	74	10.10	2.30

Table 30

ANOVA Table for Management by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	
Within Cells	1783.78	326	5.47		
Degree	15.28	1	15.28	2.79	0.10
Gender	30.21	1	30.21	5.52	0.02*
Degree/Gender	1.89	1	1.89	0.35	0.56

Surroundings. Table 31 shows means and standard deviations for surroundings by degree program and gender. Statistically, surroundings were rated significantly more important by those in the AAS program, and highest of all by females in that program, as shown in Table 32. Males in the AA program ranked surroundings slightly higher than did females, but not enough to cause any statisfically significant interaction.

Table 31

Means and Standard Deviations for Surroundings by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	11.82	2.04	91	11.90	1.92
Female	34	11.77	2.18	74	12.73	1.79

Table 32

ANOVA Table for Surroundings by Degree and Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1262.43	326	3.87		
Degree	17.97	1	17.97	4.64	0.03*
Gender	15.49	1	15.49	4.00	0.05*
Degree/Gender	12.60	1	12.60	3.25	0.07

Summary. Statistically significant interaction was present between degree program and gender in achievement and economic returns. Statistically significant differences were found between the attitudes of males and females towards creativity, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, management, and surroundings.

The most important values for males in both groups were way of life and economic returns. The females in the AAS program ranked achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, economic returns, and security high. Males in the AAS program also gave a high rating to achievement, supervisory relations, and security. Low ratings in both groups were given to esthetics and management.

Employment Status

Tables 33 - 37 show the means and standard deviations and the analysis of variance results for the only two values, variety and way of life, in which employment status made a difference. There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of employed and unemployed students on variety and statistically significant interaction between degree program and employment status for way of life. Both were significant at the .05 level.

Variety. In both degree programs, those students who were employed rated variety more important than did the unemployed students. Means and standard deviations are shown in Table 33 and analysis of variance results in Table 34.

Table 33

Means and Standard Deviations for Variety

by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	134	11.62	2.12	126	11.83	2.07
Unemployed	42	10.63	2.23	39	11.56	2.42

Table 34

ANOVA Table for Variety by Degree and Employment Status

Source	SS	df	MS	F	ρ
Within Cells	1059.77	326	4.63		
Degree	13.20	1	13.20	2.85	0.09
Employment Status	24.32	1	24.32	5.25	0.02*
Degree/ Employment Status	7.60	1	7.60	1.64	0.20

Way of Life. Means and standard deviations for way of life by degree and employment status are shown in Table 35. There was a statistically significant interaction between employment status and degree for way of life (see Table 36). Employed students in both degree programs rated way of life approximately the same. Unemployed students in the AA program gave way of life a lower rating, while unemployed students in the AAS program rated it higher.

An analysis of variance for simple main effects showed employment status for the AA program and degree program for the unemployed to be the sources of the interaction (see Table 37). An illustration of the interaction is shown in Figure 5.

Table 35

Means and Standard Deviations for Way of Life by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	13.29	1.81	126	13.47	1.99
Unemployed	42	12.12	2.31	39	13.82	1.32

Table 36

ANOVA Table for Way of Life by Degree and Employment Status

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Within Cells	1178.99	326	3.62		
Degree	25.65	1	25.65	7.09	0.008*
Employment Status	11.28	1	11.28	3.12	0.08
Degree/ Employment Status	35.54	1	35.54	9.83	0.002*

Table 37

Analysis of Variance Table Showing Tests of Simple Main Effects for Way of Life by Degree and Employment Status

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Critical value, .05
Within Cells	1178.99	326	3.62		
Employment Status/ AA Degree	42.85	1	42.85	11.83*	3.87
Employment Status/ AAS Degree	3.64	1	3.64	1.01	3.87
Degree/ Employed	2.01	1	2.01	.55	3.87
Degree/ Unemployed	59.23	1	59.23	16.36*	3.87

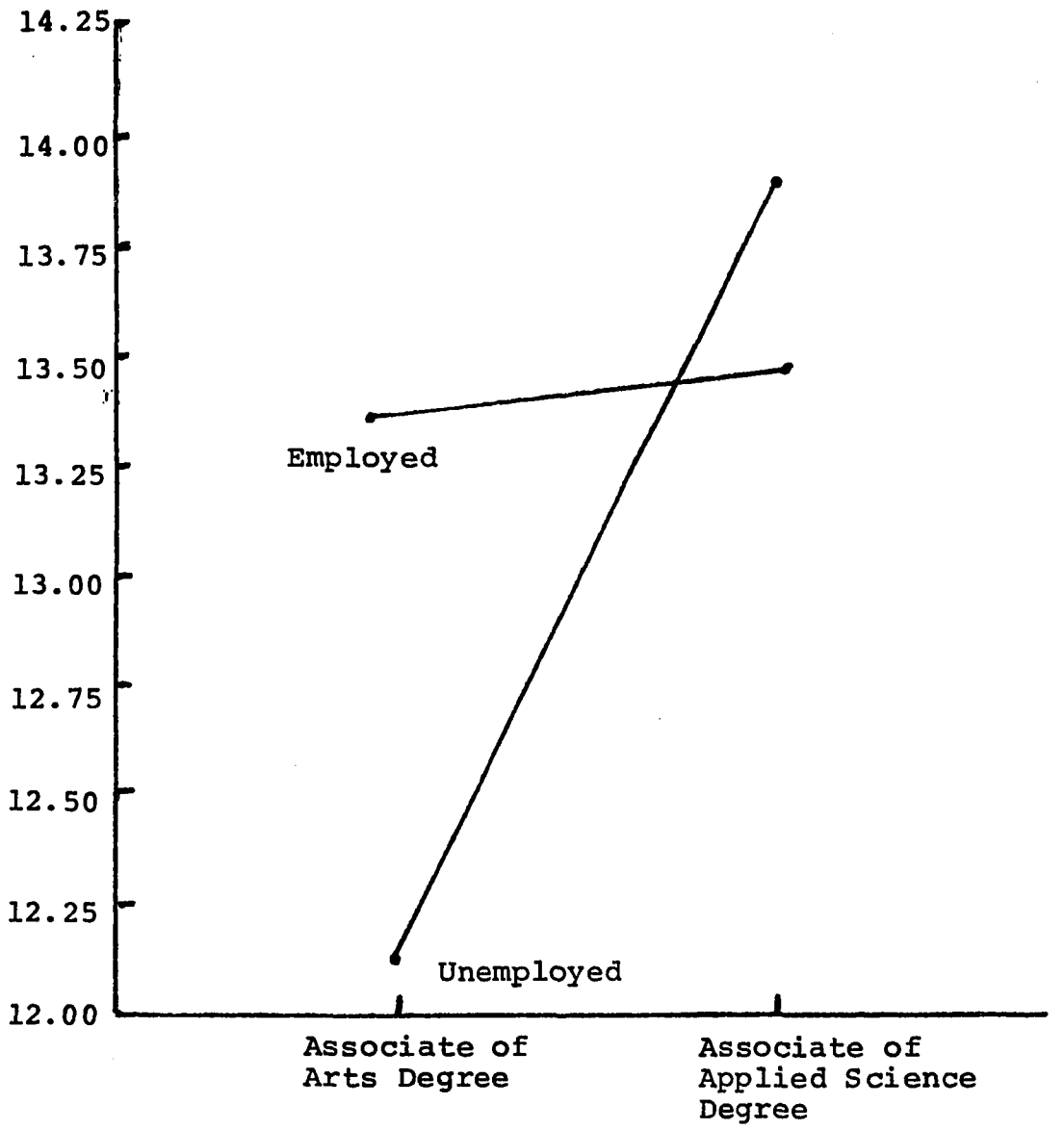

Figure 5. Illustration of interaction of degree and employment status for way of life.

Summary. There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of employed and unemployed students to variety and statistically significant interaction between degree program and employment status for way of life.

Economic returns was rated high by all groups. Employed students rated way of life high, as did unemployed students in the AAS program. AAS students also gave high ratings to achievement and supervisory relations. Employed students in the AAS program also gave a high rating to security. Both groups gave low ratings to esthetics, management and associates.

Classification

Tables 38-42 show the means and standard deviations and results of the analyses of variance for the two values in which classification made a difference, achievement and supervisory relations. Both were significant at the .05 level.

Achievement. Means and standard deviations for achievement by degree and classification are shown in Table 38. There was a statistically significant interaction between degree and student classification on achievement, as shown in Table 39. An analysis of variance for simple main effects showed classification for the AA degree and degree for day students and students enrolled in both day and evening classes to be the sources of interaction (see Table 40). Interactions is illustrated in Figure 6.

Table 38

Means and Standard Deviations for Achievement by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.46	2.49	56	13.45	1.54
Evening	78	13.21	1.67	97	13.38	1.74
Day/Evening	11	10.91	2.98	12	13.92	1.38

Table 39

ANOVA Table for Achievement by Degree and Classification

Source	SS	df	MS	F	ρ
Within Cells	1208.95	324	3.73		
Degree	44.37	1	44.37	11.90	0.001*
Classification	17.54	2	8.77	2.35	0.10
Degree/ Classification	45.05	2	22.53	6.04	0.003*

Table 40

Analysis of Variance Table Showing Tests for Simple Main Effects for Achievement by Degree and Classification

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Critical value/.05
Within Cells	1208.15	324	3.73		
Classification/ AA Degree	69.17	2	34.58	9.27*	3.04
Classification/ AAS Degree	3.12	2	1.56	.42	3.04
Degree/ Day	50.66	1	50.66	13.58*	3.89
Degree/ Evening	2.05	1	3.05	.55	3.89
Degree/ Day-Evening	52.00	1	52.00	14.09*	3.89

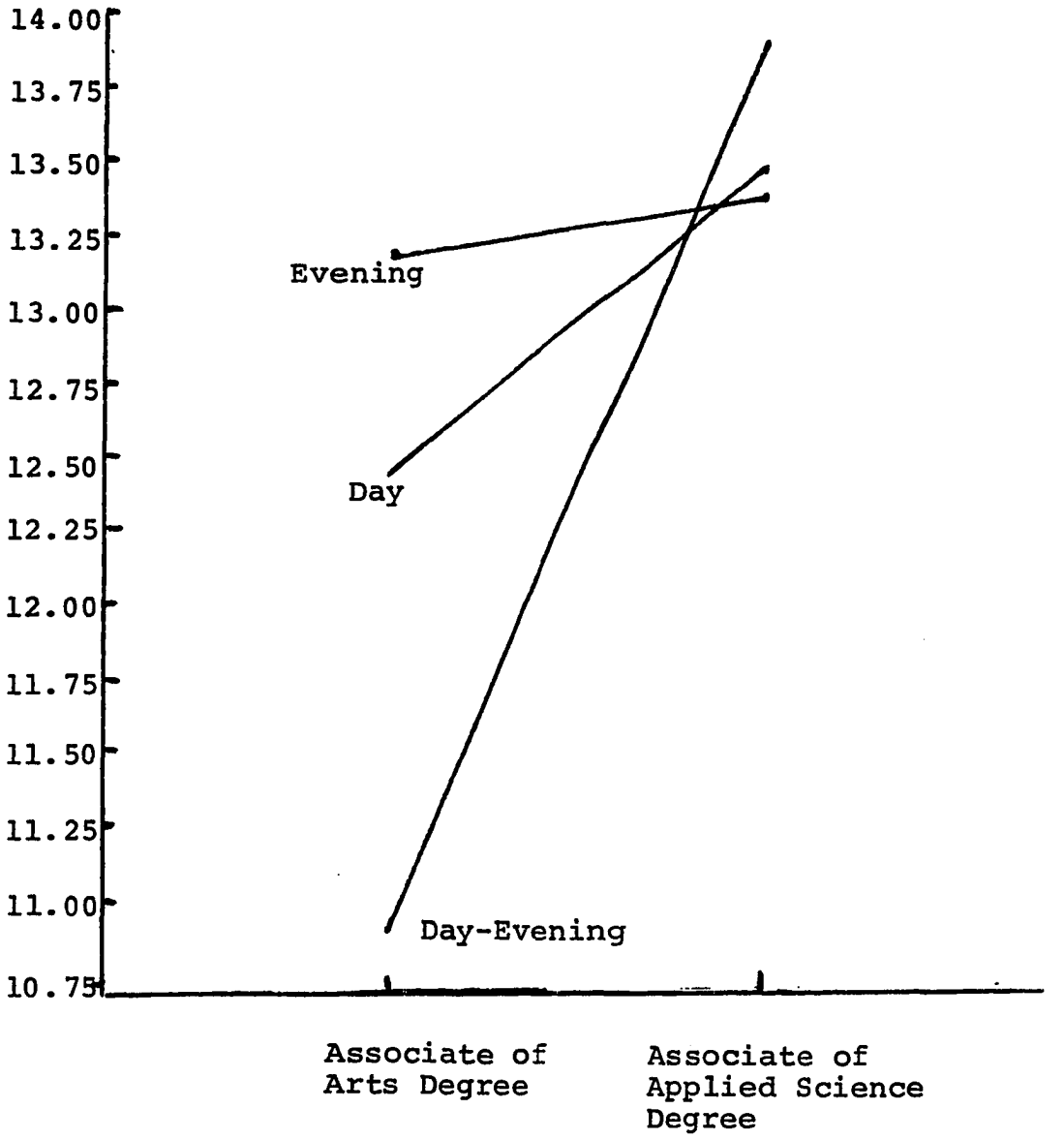

Figure 6. Illustration of interaction of degree program and student classification on achievement.

Supervisory Relations. Table 41 shows the means and standard deviations for supervisory relations by degree and classification. There was a statistically significant difference in the ranking of supervisory relations by students in different classifications and different degree programs, as shown in Table 42. AAS students rated supervisory relations higher than did AA students. Evening students considered it more important than day students, and students enrolled in both day and evening courses considered it less important than those enrolled in either day or evening classes separately.

Summary. Statistically significant interaction was found in the effects of degree and classification on achievement. Statistically significant differences were found in the effects of degree and classification on supervisory relations.

The most important values to day students were economic returns, way of life, achievement, and supervisory relations. The most important values to evening students were economic returns, achievement, way of life, supervisory relations, and associates. To students enrolled in both day and evening classes the most important values were way of life and economic returns. Students enrolled in both day and evening classes in the AAS program rated achievement, intellectual stimulation, and way of life high.

Table 41

Means and Standard Deviations for Supervisory Relations by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.43	2.60	56	13.21	1.64
Evening	78	12.91	2.23	97	13.53	1.64
Day/Evening	11	11.27	2.65	12	12.25	2.34

Table 42

ANOVA Table for Supervisory Relations by Degree and Classification

Source	SS	df	MS	F	ρ
Within Cells	1425.08	324	4.40		
Degree	45.85	1	45.85	10.42	0.001*
Classification	46.43	2	23.22	5.28	0.006*
Degree/ Classification	0.95	2	0.48	0.11	0.90

Management and esthetics were the least important values to all groups, and associates were of less importance to students enrolled in only the evening program.

Factor Analyses

Norming Group

In the reliability studies for the Work Values Inventory, separate factor analyses were done by gender (see Tables 43 and 44). Four factors were identified as follows.

Factor I. Factor I included those values related to Material or Situational factors (Super, 1970). These included economic returns, security, surroundings, and supervisory relations for both males and females. In addition, way of life was included on one testing of males and prestige and associates on one testing of both males and females.

Factor II. Factor II included values related to Goodness of Life (Super, 1970). This included altruism, associates, and surroundings, and on the test for females achievement was included. This area was not as stable as the others.

Factor III. Factor III, Self-Expression (Super, 1970), included creativity, variety, and intellectual stimulation for males and esthetics, creativity, independence, and variety for females.

Factor IV. Behavior Control is the title given to Factor IV by Super (1970). For males this included independence and management; for females, management and intellectual stimulation.

Table 43

Intercorrelations of WVI Scales*

12th Grade Boys, N-672

Scale	Es	Cr	IS	Ac	In	Pr	Ma	ER	Se	Su	SR	As	Wl	Va
Altruism	33	39	32	42	23	22	28	04	14	19	24	25	23	17
Esthetics		44	19	24	21	17	31	01	01	14	11	19	02	08
Creativity			56	44	33	23	36	07	02	14	18	09	26	29
Intellectual Stimulation				45	37	27	28	19	18	24	24	12	37	31
Achievement					43	47	36	35	42	39	44	31	49	31
Independence						38	38	29	23	24	29	14	47	37
Prestige							46	50	45	41	41	41	37	29
Management								30	24	38	26	23	16	18
Economic Returns									66	53	53	25	44	29
Security										49	55	35	42	17
Surroundings											53	27	35	26
Supervisory Relations												37	43	22
Associates													23	24
Way of Life														35
Variety														

*Decimal points omitted. $r = .08$, $p<.01$, two-tailed test.
(Super, 1970, p. 29).

Table 44

Intercorrelations of WVI Scales*

12th Grade Girls, N-724

Scale	Es	Cr	IS	Ac	In	Pr	Ma	ER	Se	Su	Sr	As	Wl	Va
Altruism	02	24	40	50	12	20	12	00	07	14	23	27	38	13
Esthetics		47	07	14	29	29	28	17	12	18	06	19	00	12
Creativity			45	40	38	31	38	09	07	18	08	15	18	30
Intellectual Stimulation				45	25	18	24	05	04	13	15	12	32	26
Achievement					27	32	18	26	32	39	45	35	53	21
Independence						27	35	25	14	21	17	18	31	36
Prestige							47	36	35	39	34	43	18	16
Management								21	17	21	08	17	01	16
Economic Returns									58	53	49	29	34	20
Security										44	48	31	27	05
Surroundings											51	40	38	22
Supervisory Relations												45	42	19
Associates													31	19
Way of Life														25
Variety														

*Decimal Points omitted. $r = .08$, $p < .01$, two-tailed test. (Super, 1970, p. 29).

Intercorrelations. For twelfth grade students there were 50 intercorrelations of over .30 and 6 greater than .50. Those greater than .50 were:

Economic Returns - Security	.66
Economic Returns - Surroundings	.53
Creativity - Supervisory Relations	.53
Security - Supervisory Relations	.55
Surroundings - Supervisory Relations	.53
Creativity - Intellectual Stimulation	.56

For seventh and tenth grade students there were no intercorrelations as high as .50.

Test Group - Total

In the total group of subjects there was three factors identified (see Table 45).

Factor I. Factor I was similar to Factor I of Super's (1970) study, Material or Situational. It included supervisory relations, way of life, security, and economic returns as strong components in the factor. Surroundings were strongly related to supervisory relations, but not to any of the other components. Achievement was also included, which was different from the norming group.

Factor II. Factor II was the other strong factor. While most were similar to Super's Factor III, Self-Expression, it was not identical. Creativity, achievement, and altruism were the main components of the factor, with esthetics and intellectual stimulation being weaker elements.

Table 45

Intercorrelations of WVI Scales*
Total Test Group, N-330

Scale	Es	Cr	IS	Ac	In	Pr	Ma	ER	Se	Su	SR	As	WL	Va
Altruism	36	41	25	47	23	22	21	10	25	30	31	38	31	23
Esthetics		46	22	26	34	26	34	02	19	27	18	33	14	28
Creativity			47	50	29	31	44	10	12	04	18	19	20	28
Intellectual Stimulation				36	35	28	30	21	17	21	21	10	28	36
Achievement					26	28	17	31	41	34	56	30	44	32
Independence						36	42	32	19	17	27	16	35	35
Prestige							55	23	28	22	20	32	32	27
Management								12	11	12	07	18	20	22
Economic Returns									43	25	44	15	44	16
Security										39	58	37	40	19
Surroundings											47	28	33	19
Supervisory Relations												34	37	22
Associates													34	15
Way of Life														30
Variety														

* Decimal points omitted.

Factor III. The final factor was weak, with no distinctive intercorrelations. It was composed of creativity, management, prestige, and independence, with management being the common element. This is similar to Super's Factor IV, Behavior Control, in the inclusion of management as the main component. However, related elements were different.

Intercorrelations. In the total group of subjects there were 47 intercorrelations higher than .30 and four over .50. Those over .50 were:

Creativity - Achievement	.50
Prestige - Management	.55
Surroundings - Achievement	.56
Security - Supervisory Relations	.58

Associate of Arts

In the AA program there were only three factors identified (see Table 46).

Factor I. Factor I, Material and Situational, was identical to Factor I in the total group of subjects, including achievement, supervisory relations, way of life, security, and economic returns.

Factor II. Factor II was similar to the total group in that it included creativity and altruism as strong elements. The positions of achievement and esthetics were reversed, with esthetics becoming a stronger element. Associates was also included as a strong factor by this group.

Factor III. Factor III was similar to Factor III in the total group, including creativity, management, and

Table 46

Intercorrelations of WVI Scales*
Associate of Arts, N-165

Scale	Es	Cr	IS	Ac	In	Pr	Ma	ER	Se	Su	SR	As	WL	Va
Altruism	47	45	22	46	22	16	14	01	27	30	38	42	24	25
Esthetics		42	23	38	37	24	23	06	29	36	32	41	18	23
Creativity			44	55	34	29	41	18	17	00	24	23	22	29
Intellectual Stimulation				30	44	29	37	24	13	14	16	13	32	32
Achievement					35	26	14	31	46	34	62	30	44	40
Independence						34	39	39	24	14	28	16	43	32
Prestige							57	25	29	17	16	28	32	29
Management								24	19	09	07	14	27	20
Economic Returns									44	24	49	10	37	22
Security										41	65	41	38	22
Surroundings											47	24	37	23
Supervisory Relations												33	35	29
Associates													23	16
Way of Life														39
Variety														

* Decimal points not included.

prestige as components. Independence was not included by this group.

Intercorrelations. In the AA group there were 48 intercorrelations over .30 and 4 over .50. Those over .50 were:

Creativity - Achievement	.55
Prestige - Management	.57
Supervisory Relations - Achievement	.62
Supervisory Relations - Way of Life	.65

Associate of Applied Science

There were three strong factors identified in the AAS group (see Table 47).

Factor I. Factor I, Material or Situational, was identical to Factor I in the other test groups, including achievement, supervisory relations, surroundings, way of life, security, and economic returns as factors.

Factor II. Factor II, Self-Expression, was similar to the Factor II of the AA students in its inclusion of creativity and esthetics as strong components. A stronger place was given to achievement while associates was not included at all. This group was not unique in its inclusion of intellectual stimulation as a strong element and variety as a weaker one.

Factor III. Factor III was also different for this group. While it included creativity, management, and prestige,

Table 47

Intercorrelations of WVI Scales*

Associate of Applied Science, N-165

Scale	Es	Cr	IS	Ac	In	Pr	Ma	ER	Se	Su	SR	As	WL	Va
Altruism	26	34	28	45	23	28	27	23	16	27	14	29	35	17
Esthetics		50	21	14	32	29	45	03	08	19	00	25	10	32
Creativity			48	41	23	32	46	00	03	07	06	13	15	26
Intellectual Stimulation				43	24	26	20	17	20	27	26	05	21	40
Achievement					14	31	19	32	28	31	40	27	42	20
Independence						37	45	25	12	18	25	16	26	38
Prestige							52	21	27	26	26	36	32	24
Management								00	03	13	04	22	10	24
Economic Returns									42	25	40	20	52	10
Security										34	43	28	40	11
Surroundings											45	31	26	12
Supervisory Relations												32	36	10
Associates													22	12
Way of Life														18
Variety														

*Decimal points not included.

it also included esthetics and independence. Creativity, management, and esthetics were the main components.

Intercorrelations. In the AAS group there were 34 intercorrelations of .30 or higher and 3 over .50. Those correlations over .50 were:

Esthetics - Creativity	.50
Prestige - Management	.52
Economic Returns - Way of Life	.52

Summary

Factor I, Material and Situational, was identical among the test groups. All test groups differed from the norming groups in the inclusion of achievement in this factor.

Factor II, Self-Expression, varied somewhat among the test groups. In the total group creativity, achievement, and altruism were the main components with esthetics and intellectual stimulation being weaker elements. In the AA program creativity and altruism were combined with associates to form the core of the factor, with achievement and esthetics being included in reversed positions from the total group. In the AAS groups associates was not included at all. Creativity and esthetics remained as strong elements with the addition of intellectual stimulation and variety included as a weaker component.

Factor III was the same in all groups in the inclusion of management as the central component. This factor

was most similar to Super's Behavior Control. In the total group creativity, prestige, and independence were included as components with management being the common element in the factor. In the AA group independence was not included. In the AAS group both independence and esthetics were included, with creativity, management, and esthetics forming the core of the factor.

Security and Supervisory Relations were the only values with high intercorrelations in the norming group and in any test group. The intercorrelation between these two values was .55 for the norming group and .58 for the total group of test subjects.

Creativity and Achievement and Prestige and Management were the only intercorrelations that were the same in any of the test groups. Creativity - Achievement had an intercorrelation of .50 for the total group and .55 for the Associate of Arts group. Prestige - Management had an intercorrelation of .55 for the total group and .57 for the Associate of Arts group. In addition the total group showed an intercorrelation of .56 for Surroundings and Achievement. In the AA group Achievement was related to Creativity and Supervisory Relations and Supervisory Relations to Way of Life. The AAS group was totally different with the high correlations being between Esthetics and Creativity, Prestige and Management, and Economic Returns and Way of Life.

The use of rotations for a more precise factor analysis was outside the scope of this study.

Summary

A series of two-way analyses of variance were used to test three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1--There are statistically significant differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those students seeking the AAS degree.

The degree program in which a student was enrolled made a statistically significant difference at the .05 level on seven values, achievement, altruism, associates, security, supervisory relations, surroundings, and way of life. AAS students ranked all seven of these values higher than did students in the AA program.

Hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 2--There are statistically significant differences in the work values of community college business students according to the four demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification (day or evening).

Age made a statistically significant difference at the .05 level on one value, variety.

Gender made a statistically significant difference at the .05 level on creativity, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, management, and surroundings. Males ranked all seven values higher than did females.

Employment status was statistically significant at the .05 level for variety. Variety was more important to employed students than to the unemployed.

Student classification, whether a day student, evening student, or both, made a statistically significant difference at the .05 level for supervisory relations, with greatest importance being given it by students enrolled in evening classes only.

Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3--There are statistically significant differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those seeking the AAS degree in relation to the four demographic variables.

No interaction occurred between degree program and age.

Statistically significant interaction at the .05 level was found between degree program and gender for achievement and economic returns.

There was statistically significant interaction at the .05 level between degree and employment status on way of life.

There was statistically significant interaction at the .05 level between degree program and student classification on achievement.

Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

The next chapter discusses the summary, the concluding implications, and the recommendations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study examined the work values of three hundred thirty community college business students in relation to various demographic factors and the student's school goals. Specifically the problems investigated were:

1. Are there differences in values held toward work by community college business students seeking the AA degree and those students seeking the AAS degree?

2. Are there relationships among community college business students' choice of the AA degree and the AAS degree and student demographic variables of age, gender, employment status, and classification?

3. Are there differences in the work values of community college business students seeking the AA degree and those seeking the AAS degree in relation to the demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification?

The first step was to review research on value motivations toward work in relation to the diverse community college population with a declared educational goal.

The second step was to determine the population from required core classes for associate business degrees at the large, urban community college used in this study. The enrollment was 6,895 for the Spring, 1978 semester with 1,910 students seeking associate business degrees.

The third step was to request permission to survey the Spring semester, sixteen-week classes in Accounting, Business Communications and Economics.

The fourth step was to develop a biographical form to be administered with the Work Values Inventory. These two instruments were used to collect data for the study.

The fifth step was to assign a number to each form and package materials for each of the 28 degree core classes.

The sixth step was to deliver to and discuss with instructors an interoffice communication containing written procedures to follow in the administration of the instrument. To standardize testing procedures, written instructions were given by memo to all instructors and were printed on the Work Values Inventory for all students.

The seventh step was to collect, score, code, and sort completed instruments and select a random sample of 165 from each AA and AAS degree group.

The eighth step was to record, verify, and process the data. The processing was done at the University of Oklahoma Computing Center using descriptive statistics and factor analysis on students responses and a series of

individual, two-way analysis of variance on student responses and demographic variables.

The ninth step was to prepare a written report of the findings.

Discussion of Findings

Analysis of the data yielded findings in three categories: (1) the descriptive data on student characteristics; (2) the nature of work value relationships between students seeking the AA and the AAS degree and student demographic variables; and (3) the factoral value structures of test groups.

Descriptive Data Results

Additional biographical data were used with the attribute variables of age, gender, employment status and classification to develop student profiles based upon the highest percentage in each category. The profile for the community college business student seeking an associate degree shows the students to be between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four; male; married; enrolled in from seven to twelve hours; has from twenty-one to thirty accumulated college hours; has been employed from one to five years; is employed; enrolled in accounting; attends evening classes; and has an undeclared major area.

The profile for the AA degree student in this study shows the following characteristics: between the ages of eighteen to twenty-four; male; married; enrolled in seven to

twelve hours; has from forty-one to fifty accumulated hours; has been employed from one to five years; is employed; enrolled in accounting; attends evening classes; and has an undeclared major area of specialization.

The profile for the AAS student in this study shows these characteristics: between the ages of eighteen to twenty-four; male; married; enrolled in from seven to twelve hours; has from twenty-one to thirty hours accumulated; has been employed from one to five years; is currently employed; is enrolled in business communications; attends evening classes; and is a Business Administration major.

There are a few differences in the profile of the business student and the two degree groups. The business degree student has accumulated less hours than the AA student and has an undeclared major area while the AAS student has a Business Administration major area.

Degree Program and Work Values

The degree program in which a student was enrolled did make a difference in seven of the fifteen values measured. Three of these values, associates, altruism, and surroundings, have non-job orientated implications that are primarily social in nature. Motivation for security is a job extrinsic value and describes a goal in which the job is certain; another job extrinsic value, supervisor relations, expresses motivation for a supervisor with whom one can get along and one who is fair. Achievement is a work value having to do

with knowing and seeing the results of one's efforts in having done a days work. Degree choice made a difference on the way of life value, an intrinsic dimension with a goal to be the kind of person one wants away from the job.

These value differences may be explained by research (Huse and Bowditch, 1977) showing goalsetting to be an important tool of motivation. The AAS group rated values generally higher than did the AA group. The lower ratings may be simply that the Associate of Arts student takes longer to embark upon a career (Alystyne, 1974). Differences in the values of associates, altruism, and surroundings may be due to personality differences (Super, 1970).

Work Values and Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of age, gender, employment status, and classification made a difference in values toward work.

Age. Age made a statistically significant difference in the value of variety. Only groups from ages 31-35 and over 50 in the AA degree scored higher than did the AAS degree students. The rationale for this may be found in "the crisis in the creative work" (Sheey, 1977, p. 369) that is used to describe changes that occur in the middle years. Variety is a value of self-expression reflecting a goal of doing different and varied tasks in a job.

Gender. Gender made a statistically significant difference in the values of achievement, esthetics,

independence, intellectual stimulation, management, economic returns, creativity, and surroundings. The AAS males gave more importance to creativity, esthetics, independence, intellectual stimulation, and management. The AA males gave most importance to economic returns. The AAS female gave most importance to achievement and supervisory relations. The AA female gave these the least important rating of all groups. While research results have shown conflicting results, Blai (1970) found that values vary according to demographic variables among women; and sex has been found to be a determinant of values (Grace and Lee, 1974). Searfoss (1975) found males and females to vary on values of creativity, management, independence, and intellectual stimulation. The values of creativity and intellectual stimulation reflect the need for self expression in occupationally related activities such as males may experience in the professions. Esthetic and surrounding values indicate goals in occupationally related activities that permit one to add beauty through artistic ability.

Employment Status. That employment status made a statistically significant difference for the value of variety was predictable. Work experiences of employed persons who find repetition in their work may be the rationale for the higher value need of variety. Lack of work experience may account for the low rating toward variety.

Classification. Student classification as to day, evening, and day-evening made a statistically significant

difference in the values of achievement and supervisory relations. Students in the AAS degree in each of the three categories placed the most importance on these values.

Degree Program, Values and Demographic Variables

There were statistically significant interactions in degree program and gender on the values of achievement and economic returns; classification as to day or evening classes on achievement; and employment status on way of life.

Achievement and Economic Returns. The moderately high rating of the Associate of Arts group on achievement was the lowest of all groups studied and had a high variation. On economic returns value, the moderately high rating of the Associate of Arts group with high variation contrasted with the high Associate of Applied Science rating with less variation. Both statistically significant interactions are recommended for further study; however, with 68 percent of the students studied under 30 years of age, Erickson's (1963) discussion regarding the young adult's search for identity may be appropriate. Furthermore, students may be attending college endeavoring to learn to transend a lack of development at an earlier stage due to life situations.

Way of Life. The AA unemployed group rated way of life lowest with greater variance than all groups. The AAS group rated this value higher and with less variance than all groups. Vroom's (1964) principle that people lack motivation to do the inaccessible may be applicable in the

economic state of high unemployment. This principle implies that motivation is influenced by an assessment of one's chances of employment.

Classification and Achievement. The interaction between the day, day-evening, and degree on achievement may be viewed as Yankelovich (1978) suggested in that changing values revealed a seeking after self-fulfillment in which the job becomes less depersonalized.

Group Value Patterns

Three value structures developed in each of the test groups had similarities to those of the norming group.

Total Group Patterns. A Material or Situational dimension of job extrinsics included supervisory relations, way of life, security and economic returns. A Self-Expression dimension in non-material aspects that are occupationally-related intrinsics included altruism, creativity, and achievement. A Behavior Control dimension developed involving relationships with others and direction of work identified through creativity, management, and prestige factors.

AA Value Patterns. A Material-Situational pattern developed that was identical to the previous two groups: supervisory relations, way of life, security and economic returns. A similar Self-Expression dimension of occupationally intrinsic-extrinsic factors expressed in strong factors of creativity and altruism and weaker elements of esthetics,

achievement and associates. The Behavior Control dimension included management, prestige and creativity.

AAS Value Patterns. The same Material-Situational pattern emerged for this group as did the other two groups. The values of supervisory relations, way of life, security and economic returns were included. The Self-Expression dimension included creativity, esthetics and achievement as strong factors along with intellectual stimulation and a weaker factor, variety. A different dimension emerged instead of the Behavior Control of the norming group. It included creativity, management and esthetics as strong factors along with prestige and independence.

Summary of Findings

1. Accumulated hours and declared major area differentiated among the AA, AAS, and total group student profiles.

2. Way of life, achievement, supervisory relations, security, and surroundings in the eight highest-ranked values, and altruism and associates in the seven lowest-ranked values statistically differentiated between the AA and AAS degree groups.

3. Variety, a lower-ranked value, statistically differentiated between age groups in the AA and AAS degrees.

4. Economic returns, achievement, intellectual stimulation, surroundings, esthetics, and independence of the eight highest-ranked values and creativity and management of

the seven lowest-ranked values statistically differentiated between male and females.

5. Variety, a low-ranked value and way of life, a high-ranked value, statistically differentiated between the employed and unemployed groups.

6. Achievement and supervisory relations of the four highest-ranked values statistically differentiated among day, evening and day-evening groups.

7. Statistically significant interaction resulted on high-ranked values of achievement and economic returns between degree program and gender.

8. Statistically significant interaction resulted on the high-ranked value of way of life between degree program and employment status.

9. Statistically significant interaction resulted on the high-ranked value of achievement between degree program and student classification.

10. Three value structure patterns were identified for the total group and both the AA and the AAS degree groups. Only one pattern was identical for all groups. There were, however, similar value patterns with different value factors for both degree groups.

All hypotheses were accepted.

Implications

The general implication from this study is that information based on the broad range Work Values Inventory

provides a beneficial way to assess community college business student goals in education and work. Business educators and counselors, through value assessments, can provide more effective educational-vocational advisement for community college business degree-seeking students.

There were three specific implications from this study. First, this investigation identified both differences and similarities in student values that help in understanding the two groups of business students. This may have implications as a focal point for more meaningful classroom activities and for curriculum change.

Second, since values are considered important elements in vocational-educational decision-making, community college business students may be assisted in the examination and exploration of his or her values toward work with a broader focus upon identifying and understanding motivations crucial to satisfaction in education and work leading to a satisfying career. This implication may be of consequence in addressing student holding power.

Third, since motives and needs influence the nature of one's approach to life and the nature of one's approach to his or her career, business educators may initiate curriculum with discussion-based activities assisting business students in maintaining perspective in the process of self actualization that is congruent with goals within the organizational climate in institutions of work. This could have implications

for helping students respond positively to changing conditions of work in relation to job entry, advancement, and job change.

Recommendations

It is recommended that a study be made of students' work values in relation to their short-term and long-term goals.

It is recommended that further study be made of the female students in relation to educational goal and the values of achievement and economic returns.

It is recommended that business faculty investigate the relationship of classroom discussion-based activities on students' attitude toward the management work value.

It is recommended that a rotation be done for a more precise factor analysis identification of the value structure patterns for each of the test groups.

It is recommended that a replication of this study be made to substantiate these findings.

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APPENDIX A

Table 48

Means and Standard Deviations for

Achievement by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	12.55	2.17	69	13.39	1.60
25 - 30	43	12.70	2.24	39	13.33	1.40
31 - 35	17	12.65	2.87	23	13.17	1.61
36 - 40	10	12.60	2.55	6	14.33	.82
41 - 45	13	13.23	2.24	19	14.05	1.03
46 - 50	7	13.71	1.38	8	14.25	.89
> 50	1	13.00		1	4.00	

Table 49

Means and Standard Deviations for

Altruism by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.42	2.42	69	12.29	2.06
35 - 30	43	12.00	2.06	39	12.13	2.23
31 - 35	17	11.12	2.89	23	12.48	2.41
36 - 40	10	12.10	2.42	6	13.17	1.84
41 - 45	13	11.23	2.83	19	12.90	1.41
46 - 50	7	11.42	2.64	8	13.13	1.89
> 50	1	11.00		1	6.00	

Table 50

Means and Standard Deviations for

Associates by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	10.81	1.91	69	11.28	1.93
25 - 30	43	10.33	2.14	39	10.67	1.78
31 - 35	17	10.24	2.68	23	11.09	1.59
36 - 40	10	9.90	2.47	6	11.33	1.03
41 - 45	13	9.46	2.50	19	10.58	1.84
46 - 50	7	10.29	2.06	8	10.00	2.39
> 50	1	11.00		1	6.00	

Table 51

Means and Standard Deviations for

Creativity by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.39	2.43	69	11.45	2.20
25 - 30	43	11.54	2.55	39	11.92	2.13
31 - 35	17	10.71	2.23	23	11.70	2.23
36 - 40	10	12.20	2.35	6	12.67	1.21
41 - 45	13	11.23	2.55	19	12.90	1.94
46 - 50	7	11.00	2.24	8	12.38	2.00
> 50	1	12.00		1	6.00	

Table 52

Means and Standard Deviations for Economic Returns by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	13.32	1.67	69	13.41	1.93
25 - 30	43	13.02	2.10	39	13.72	1.28
31 - 35	17	13.00	1.70	23	13.52	1.73
36 - 40	10	13.30	3.43	6	12.50	1.64
41 - 45	13	13.31	1.60	19	12.90	1.66
46 - 50	7	12.86	1.35	8	12.63	2.26
> 50	1	12.00		1	3.00	

Table 53

Means and Standard Deviations for

Esthetics by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	9.12	2.18	69	8.93	2.62
35 - 30	43	9.26	2.69	39	9.41	2.74
31 - 35	17	9.41	2.58	23	9.87	2.70
36 - 40	10	9.30	2.67	6	8.50	3.27
41 - 45	13	8.08	2.02	19	10.05	2.82
46 - 50	7	9.43	3.05	8	8.75	2.66
> 50	1	8.00		1	10.00	

Table 54

Means and Standard Deviations for

Independence by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.70	2.02	69	11.94	1.96
25 - 30	43	11.84	2.43	39	12.05	2.47
31 - 35	17	12.41	1.94	23	11.96	1.97
36 - 40	10	12.50	2.51	6	11.17	2.23
41 - 45	13	11.31	1.80	19	12.47	1.84
46 - 50	7	10.86	1.35	8	12.75	2.38
> 50	1	12.00		1	8.00	

Table 55

Means and Standard Deviations for Intellectual Stimulation by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	12.10	1.99	69	12.17	1.55
35 - 30	43	12.09	2.08	39	12.67	1.69
31 - 35	17	11.77	1.09	23	11.57	1.90
36 - 40	10	12.20	2.39	6	13.33	1.21
41 - 45	13	11.00	2.24	19	13.11	1.60
46 - 50	7	11.86	1.22	8	12.75	1.98
> 50	1	13.00		1	5.00	

Table 56

Means and Standard Deviations for

Management by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	9.65	2.67	69	10.16	2.21
25 - 30	43	10.19	2.27	39	10.05	2.70
31 - 35	17	10.00	2.67	23	10.52	2.23
36 - 40	10	11.90	2.13	6	10.50	2.17
41 - 45	13	9.46	3.07	19	11.58	1.95
46 - 50	7	9.86	1.86	8	10.63	2.33
> 50	1	10.00		1	11.00	

Table 57

Means and Standard Deviations for

Prestige by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.57	2.04	69	11.73	2.10
25 - 30	43	11.51	2.45	39	11.33	2.14
31 - 35	17	11.59	1.50	23	11.48	2.04
36 - 40	10	12.20	2.20	6	12.00	1.67
41 - 45	13	10.85	3.13	19	12.63	1.77
46 - 50	7	10.29	2.81	8	11.75	1.83
> 50	1	11.00		1	7.00	

Table 58

Means and Standard Deviations for

Security by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	12.50	2.35	69	13.03	2.00
25 - 30	43	11.93	3.05	39	13.51	1.70
31 - 35	17	11.77	3.03	23	12.96	1.61
36 - 40	10	12.20	3.55	6	13.50	1.52
41 - 45	13	12.77	2.17	19	12.95	1.81
46 - 50	7	12.71	1.80	8	11.88	3.23
> 50	1	13.00		1	5.00	

Table 59

Means and Standard Deviations for Supervisory Relations by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	12.50	2.34	69	13.12	1.86
25 - 30	43	12.63	2.19	39	13.44	1.33
31 - 35	17	11.94	3.53	23	13.44	1.67
36 - 40	10	12.90	3.32	6	13.17	1.72
41 - 45	13	13.31	2.29	19	13.79	1.27
46 - 50	7	12.86	1.35	8	14.25	1.04
> 50	1	13.00		1	6.00	

Table 60

Means and Standard Deviations for

Surroundings by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	11.74	2.33	69	12.48	2.00
25 - 30	11.72		1.97	39	12.00	1.59
31 - 35	17	11.82	1.13	23	11.65	1.99
36 - 40	10	11.50	2.12	6	13.17	.98
41 - 45	13	12.31	2.02	19	12.63	2.06
46 - 50	7	12.71	1.60	8	12.50	1.77
> 50	1	10.00		1	9.00	

Table 61

Means and Standard Deviations for Way of Life by Degree and Age

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Age	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
18 - 24	74	12.97	2.13	69	13.70	1.55
25 - 30	43	13.09	2.13	39	13.62	1.39
31 - 35	17	12.71	1.40	23	13.52	2.73
36 - 40	13	13.10	2.33	6	13.00	1.10
41 - 45	10	13.15	1.91	19	13.66	1.20
46 - 50	7	13.00	1.63	8	13.50	1.51
> 50	1	12.00		1	3.00	

Table 62

Means and Standard Deviations for Altruism

by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	11.59	2.38	91	12.42	2.07
Female	34	11.47	2.54	74	12.34	2.20

Table 63

Means and Standard Deviations for Associates

by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	10.45	2.13	91	10.98	1.91
Female	34	10.41	2.24	74	10.88	1.87

Table 64

Means and Standard Deviations for Security by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	12.32	2.73	91	13.06	2.12
Female	34	12.18	2.32	74	13.01	1.91

Table 65

Means and Standard Deviations for Supervisory Relations by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	12.67	2.41	91	13.11	1.78
Female	34	12.24	2.62	74	13.60	1.61

Table 66

Means and Standard Deviations for Prestige

by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	11.60	2.26	91	11.86	2.04
Female	34	11.03	2.14	74	11.47	2.12

Table 67

Means and Standard Deviations for Variety

by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	11.50	2.21	91	11.63	2.08
Female	34	10.85	2.03	74	11.95	2.25

Table 68

Means and Standard Deviations for Way of Life by Degree and Gender

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Male	131	13.18	1.87	91	13.56	1.80
Female	34	12.27	2.37	74	13.54	1.93

Table 69

Means and Standard Deviations for Achievement

by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	12.84	2.10	126	13.42	1.68
Unemployed	42	12.31	2.63	39	13.51	1.54

Table 70

Means and Standard Deviations for Altruism

by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	11.58	2.47	126	12.26	2.17
Unemployed	42	11.52	2.23	39	12.77	1.93

Table 71

Means and Standard Deviations for Associates by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	10.55	2.26	126	10.96	1.84
Unemployed	42	10.12	1.76	39	10.85	2.06

Table 72

Means and Standard Deviations for Creativity by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	11.48	2.44	126	11.83	2.28
Unemployed	42	11.10	2.36	39	11.77	1.90

Table 73

Means and Standard Deviations for Economic Returns by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	13.24	1.82	126	13.28	2.00
Unemployed	42	13.02	2.11	39	13.39	1.68

Table 74

Means and Standard Deviations for Esthetics by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	9.25	2.38	162	9.32	2.61
Unemployed	42	8.74	2.45	39	9.18	2.99

Table 75

Means and Standard Deviations for Independence by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	11.96	2.06	126	12.02	2.19
Unemployed	42	11.31	2.21	39	12.03	1.86

Table 76

Means and Standard Deviations for Intellectual Stimulation by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	12.11	2.01	126	12.40	1.73
Unemployed	42	11.57	1.73	39	12.15	1.98

Table 77

Means and Standard Deviations for Management

by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	10.03	2.45	126	10.52	2.37
Unemployed	42	9.74	2.19	39	9.95	2.15

Table 78

Means and Standard Deviations for Prestige

by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	11.55	2.31	126	11.81	2.13
Unemployed	42	11.29	2.05	39	11.28	1.86

Table 79

Means and Standard Deviations for Security by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	12.36	2.66	126	13.21	2.01
Unemployed	42	12.10	2.62	39	12.49	1.97

Table 80

Means and Standard Deviations for Supervisory Relations by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	12.65	2.49	126	13.39	1.63
Unemployed	42	12.38	2.36	39	13.13	1.98

Table 81

Means and Standard Deviations for Surroundings by Degree and Employment Status

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Employment Status	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Employed	123	11.85	2.0o	126	12.12	1.93
Unemployed	42	11.69	2.24	39	12.77	1.74

Table 82

Means and Standard Deviations for Altruism

by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	11.34	2.60	56	12.66	1.98
Evening	78	11.85	2.25	97	12.16	2.21
Day/Evening	11	11.09	2.07	12	12.92	1.88

Table 83

Means and Standard Deviations for Security

by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.15	2.88	56	12.61	1.99
Evening	78	12.46	2.50	97	13.33	1.99
Day/Evebubg	11	12.09	1.97	12	12.67	2.10

Table 84

Means and Standard Deviations for Associates by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	10.28	2.33	56	11.11	1.78
Evening	78	10.46	2.05	97	10.83	1.97
Day/Evening	11	11.46	1.04	12	11.00	1.71

Table 85

Means and Standard Deviations for Creativity by Degree and Classification

Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	11.42	2.48	56	11.70	2.03
Evening	78	11.56	2.31	97	11.81	2.37
Day/Evening	11	9.82	2.44	12	12.42	1.16

Table 86

Means and Standard Deviations for Economic Returns by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	13.25	1.83	56	13.34	1.97
Evening	78	13.18	1.93	97	13.30	1.94
Day/Evening	11	12.73	2.15	12	13.17	1.64

Table 87

Means and Standard Deviations for Esthetics by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	9.37	2.49	56	9.52	2.75
Evening	78	8.96	2.34	97	9.06	2.65

Table 88

Means and Standard Deviations for Independence by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.11	2.11	56	11.91	1.93
Evening	78	11.68	2.04	97	12.02	2.23
Day/Evening	11	10.46	2.25	12	12.50	2.07

Table 89

Means and Standard Deviations for Intellectual Stimulation by Degree and Classification

Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.05	1.72	56	11.93	1.81
Evening	78	11.99	1.96	97	12.47	1.82
Day/Evening	11	11.36	3.20	12	13.17	.94

Table 90

Means and Standard Deviations for Management by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	10.18	2.37	56	10.39	2.27
Evening	78	9.89	2.44	97	10.35	2.40
Day/Evening	11	8.91	1.87	12	10.67	2.10

Table 91

Means and Standard Deviations for Prestige by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	11.55	2.22	56	11.45	2.06
Evening	78	11.42	2.35	97	11.72	2.08
Day/Evening	11	11.36	1.69	12	12.50	2.07

Table 92

Means and Standard Deviations for Surroundings by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	11.92	2.73	56	12.46	1.88
Evening	78	11.72	1.89	97	12.19	1.88
Day/Evening	11	11.64	1.80	12	12.08	2.28

Table 93

Means and Standard Deviations for Variety by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	11.03	2.25	56	11.71	2.53
Evening	78	11.76	2.01	97	11.74	1.99
Day/Evening	11	11.00	2.61	12	12.25	1.60

Table 94

Means and Standard Deviations for Way of Life by Degree and Classification

	Associate of Arts Degree			Associate of Applied Science Degree		
Classification	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Day	76	12.84	2.18	56	13.54	1.90
Evening	78	13.23	1.82	97	13.52	1.87
Day/Evening	11	12.36	2.01	12	13.92	1.62

APPENDIX B

104 S.W. 13 Street
Moore, OK 73160
November 28, 1977

Mrs. Joy Rupp, Chairperson
Division of Business
Oscar Rose Junior College
6420 S.E. 15 Street
Midwest City, OK 73110

Dear Mrs. Rupp

As discussed with you earlier, to collect data for my research, I request permission to test Oscar Rose Junior College students enrolled in the business "core" classes required for the AAS and the AA degrees: Business Communications 2503, Accounting 2103, and Economics 2301. A schedule of classes is attached. This study should be of interest to the Division of Business since the focus is to assess and compare goals or outcomes desired from training and work by business students who are seeking degrees.

There are two activities involved in this student procedure. First, the student is asked to complete a short 14-item form of biographical data providing categories from which to assess student goals. This replaces the first page of the WVI test (see "Omit" on that part of the attached WVI Test form). Second, the student is asked to complete the Work Values Inventory by Donald Super, which has a 45-item list.

Recognizing the value of a student's time needed in class, the minimum amount of time, according to the manual, is 10 minutes and the maximum is 20 minutes. While I suggest the first part of the class period of the sessions, the latter part may be used if you find this more suitable.

The procedure for administration is simple. Administrators will be ready at the appointed time to: (1) distribute the inventories; (2) read directions with students; (3) pause for questions from students; (4) advise students to begin; and (5) collect completed inventories.

If these dates meet with your approval, I suggest one of the following: (1) Monday, December 5 and Tuesday, December 6; (2) Wednesday, December 7 and Thursday, December 8; or (3) Monday, December 12 and Tuesday, December 13. If this is unsatisfactory for this current semester, I suggest that the Monday-Tuesday or the Wednesday-Thursday pattern of classes during the second or third week of the Spring semester be used.

Since this information will be beneficial to all of our business faculty and students, I shall appreciate your assistance. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely

June Goss

June Goss

SCHEDULE OF CLASSES REQUESTED TO BE SURVEYED

CLASS TIME	ECON 2303	ACCT 2103	BUS COM 2503	NO. OF CLASSES IN THE HR
MON-WED DAY				
8:40-9:40		0262 (23)	0261 (22)	2
9:50-10:50				
11:00-12:00	0315 (31)	0218 (36)	0263 (21)	3
12:10-1:10		0219 (32)		1
1:20-2:20		0221 (35)	0265 (21)	2
TU-TH DAY				
8:40-9:40	0314 (31)	0217 (39)		2
9:50-10:50				
11:00-12:00				
12:10-1:10	0316 (27)	0220 (24)	0264 (21)	3
MON-WED PM				
4:15-5:30	0880 (31)	0786 (32)	0841 (20)	3
5:40-6:50	0881 (35)		0842 (24)	2
7:05-8:20		0788 (40)	0846 (21)	2
8:30-9:45		0817 (29)	0844 (23)	2
			0845 (25)	1
TU-TH PM				
4:15-5:30		0787 (37)		1
5:40-6:50		0789 (48)		1
7:05-8:20		1198 (35)	0843 (22)	2
8:30-9:45		0790 (35)		1
TOTALS:	5 Sessions	13 Sessions	10 Sessions	28

11/77

OSCAR ROSE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Interoffice Communication

TO: Instructors of: Econ 2303, Acct 2103, BA 2503 DATE: January 25, 1978

FROM: Joy Rupp SUBJECT: Student Survey

We are constantly looking and searching for ways to improve academic advisement for students. The attached student survey is an important effort toward that goal. I will appreciate your cooperation in administering this survey in your classes on Monday, January 30, and on Tuesday, January 31, as indicated below:

June Goss is in charge of this survey and will pick them up from your classroom on the date of the test. The packet of surveys will be delivered to you prior to your class period.

We ask you to read and share the purpose and the following suggestions with your class prior to their taking the survey.

1. The purpose of the survey is to help determine what the student seeks in training and in work based upon answers.

2. Students must feel that the inventory is worthwhile to complete in terms of:

   a. helping them make wise choices of occupations
   b. understanding themselves
   c. assisting advisors be more effective in academic advisement and job placement of students

3. Point out to the students that the inventory has no right or wrong answers; and that there is no time limit. However, most people complete the survey in 10-15 minutes or 20 minutes at the most.

4. Call attention to the telephone number so that students may call after three weeks time has passed and find out their survey results.

5. Encourage students to fill in all information.

If you can suggest improvements or if you have any questions about the attached survey, please contact June Goss at Ext. 222 or at home, 794-6290.

STUDENT SURVEY

This survey is designed to assist in assessing goals that ORJC business students want from their training and work. Complete the information as indicated in each item. For survey results you may call 794-6290.

NAME: Last _____ / First _____

BIRTH DATE: ___ / ___ / ___
Month Day Year

SEX: M ☐ MARITAL STATUS: Married ☐ Single ☐ WORK STATUS: Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ BUSINESS MAJOR Yes ☐ No ☐

NO. OF YEARS IN WORK FORCE: ☐ 1-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ Over 20 years

List KIND OF WORK in which you have primarily been employed. _____

TIME OF YOUR CLASS SESSIONS: Day ☐ Evening ☐ Both ☐

NO. OF COLLEGE HOURS you are now taking: 0-6 ☐ 7-12 ☐ 13-18 ☐

NO. OF COLLEGE HOURS previously completed: 0-5 ☐ 6-12 ☐ 13-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51-60 ☐ Other _____

CLASS in which you are taking this survey: ☐ Bus. Com ☐ Accounting ☐ Economics

CHECK YOUR GOAL for training (Select only one).

☐ Selected COURSES only (not seeking a degree).

☐ Non-business major. Write in area of major: _____

☐ Associate in Arts Degree in Business (college parallel).

☐ Associate in Applied Science Degree in Business (with emphasis in an area to be checked below).

If your goal is to get an Associate in Applied Science, check the emphasis below:

☐ Accounting ☐ Banking and Finance ☐ Business Adm.

☐ Court Reporting ☐ Data Processing ☐ Legal Assistant

☐ Logistics Midmanagement ☐ Office Adm. ☐ Real Estate/Insurance

☐ Secretarial Administration ☐ Legal Secretarial Administration

☐ Medical Secretarial ☐ Mid-Management

PLEASE SIGN YOUR NAME BELOW IF YOU WANT YOUR DATA, NOT YOUR NAME, INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY OF OSCAR ROSE JUNIOR COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS.

_____
Student Signature

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