

POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL STUDENTS'

ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Need for the Study	3
Purpose of Study	3
Research Objectives.	4
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.	5
Summary.	14
III. METHODOLOGY	17
Definition of Terms.	17
Assumptions.	18
Selection of Subjects.	18
Development of the Instrument.	18
Collection of Data	20
Analysis of Data	21
Limitations.	21
Summary.	22
IV. RESULTS	24
Selection of Subjects.	24
Return Results	24
Collection of Data	25
Analysis of the Data	25
V. SUMMARY, CONSLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	41
Findings and Conclusions	43
Sex -V- Attitudes Summary.	43
Residential Status -V- Attitudes Summary	44
Age -V- Attitudes Summary.	45
Marital Status -V- Attitude Summary.	46
Racial Distribution -V- Attitudes Summary.	47
Sponsorship -V- Attitudes Summary.	47
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY.	49

Chapter	Page
APPENDIX A - INSTRUMENT SUBMITTED TO EXPERT JUDGES.	51
APPENDIX B - PANEL OF EXPERTS	57
APPENDIX C - QUESTIONNAIRE.	59
APPENDIX D - CURRENT STUDENT PROFILE.	63
APPENDIX E - QUESTIONNAIRE CODING KEY	65

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Student Representativeness and Chi Square Test	26
II. Sex - v - Attitudes.	29
III. Residential Status - v - Attitudes	31
IV. Age - v - Attitudes.	32
V. Marital Status - v - Attitudes	33
VI. Racial Distribution - v - Attitudes.	35
VII. Sponsorship - v - Attitudes.	38
VIII. Rankings of Total Scores	40

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The industrial revolution decreased the agrarian portion of American society and created a greater need for people to sell their time on the labor market. We have since evolved into a more service-oriented society which is probably a direct result of technological growth and automation. Human beings are always trying to find ways to make work easier. Each time the energy base is improved, work, as it is traditionally defined, becomes less manual and more efficient. While this process creates many new jobs, others are eliminated. The new jobs, however, often require different types of skills, hence education for upgrading or retraining becomes essential. The new age has had profound effects on the American people. Values are changing with reference to the meaning of work and leisure.

Statement of the Problem

With changing values, conflicts can occur between individuals and organizations, wherein individuals demonstratively reflect reluctance toward total commitment to the employer. When a society undergoes rapid growth, people must engage in a continuous process of improving their skills for both social and employment reasons. Socialization in a work-centered society depends on acceptance of sustained performance, and advancement demands continuous learning. This learning process

lets people address not only organizational goals, but inter- and intrapersonal ones as well.

Today's employers seem to be complaining that employees do not exhibit the loyalty required for enhancement of the job. Employees seem to be complaining that organizations do not meet individual needs. Conflict, according to Miller and Form (1), seems to be growing because the virtues of hard work and profit are rooted in scarcity and have little relevance in an affluent society. They go on to say that changes in institutional functions and loyalties rarely transition smoothly or evenly throughout a society. Almost inevitably, the old and new values collide creating contradictions and conflicts which are not easily resolved.

Cultural contradictions in modern society, as truly as pressure groups, splinter the social structure and divide people's minds. They make it increasingly difficult for citizens to make up their minds what they should think, what they should want, and what they should do (p. 777).

Toffler (2) talks about the emergence of "the new man," or more specifically, "The Third Wave." The second wave occurred with the spread of the Protestant Work Ethic where there was emphasis on thrift, toil, and deferred gratification which channeled the energies of people into economic development tasks. Toffler goes on to say that as we move into this third wave, technology is revolutionizing the energy bases, family structures, and the very nature of work. In the process, people's attitudes and values are modified. As societal needs are transformed, so are educational needs. He predicts that more learning will occur outside the classroom, and that there is already a profound change in personality traits. If these assumptions are even partially correct, then

Individuals will vary more vividly tomorrow than they do today. They are more likely than their parents to question authority. They will want money and will work for it--but, except under conditions of extreme privation, they will resist working for money alone. They will crave balance in their lives--balance between work and play, between headwork and handwork, between the abstract and the concrete, between objectivity and subjectivity. And they will see and project themselves in far more complex terms than any previous people (p. 239).

There have been a substantial number of research studies done on work attitudes of various groups. However, there have not been many attitude inventories done on post-secondary technical students' attitudes toward work. The few studies that have been done seem to indicate that these students may have a slightly different bend toward work than other students in post-secondary institutions. The problem with which this study deals is the lack of information about post-secondary technical students' work attitudes.

Need for the Study

A study that is designed to develop an attitude inventory in order to describe post-secondary technical students' work attitudes is needed since there is a lack of information about these students with reference to their attitudes toward work.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to gather and examine data pertaining to post-secondary technical students' work attitudes.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this research study are to:

1. Develop and administer an attitude inventory.
2. Describe post-secondary technical students' work attitudes.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to gather and examine data pertaining to post-secondary technical students' work attitudes. The following review of literature is taken from writings on attitudes and their measurement. The review deals specifically with:

1. Definition of an attitude.
2. Attitudes and behavior.
3. Measurement complexity.
4. Value of attitude research.
5. Research design.
6. Recent studies on attitudes toward work.

The context of any definition of an attitude is essential for determining how a given writer is using the word. It's no surprise then to find about as many definitions as there are writers on the subject simply because of the differences in the individual purposes.

Deutscher (3), for instance, suggests that a definition of an attitude is simply a verbal response to a symbolic situation. Lapier (4), on the other hand, contends that

By definition a social attitude is a behavior pattern, anticipatory set or tendency, predisposition to specific adjustment to designated social situations, or, more simply, a conditioned response to social stimuli. They are acquired out of social experience and provide the individual organism with some degree of preparation to

adjust, in a well-defined way, to certain types of social situations if and when these situations arise. But by derivation social attitudes are seldom more than a verbal response to a symbolic situation (p. 231).

According to Thurstone (5), attitudes are

The sum total of man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or biases, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and convictions about any specific topic (p. 214).

Allen et al. (6), set forth the notion that

A person's attitude toward an object or issue can be viewed as favorableness or unfavorableness of his or her feelings toward the object or issue. Thurston (1928) and Likers (1932), both of whom pioneered the area of attitude measurement, support this definition (p. 259).

They also quote Thomas and Znaniecki who defined an attitude as a

process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activities of the individual consciousness which determines real or possible activities of the individual in the social world (p. 259).

Murphy (7) reported that the number of attitudes which any given person possesses is almost infinite.

Contemporary definitions cluster about two chief conceptions: first, that attitudes are dispositions toward overt actions; second, that they are verbal substitutes for overt actions (p. 8).

According to Goffman (8), we align our behavior to meet the requirements of a particular audience--never mind what our attitudes may be--we are managing our impressions or becoming dramaturgically competent. He suggests

that the performer must act, with expressive responsibility, since many minor, inadvertent acts happen to be well designed to convey impressions inappropriate at the time (p. 208).

To be dramaturgically incompetent, then, carries with it serious consequences. An individual could be faced with the prospect of isolation, alienation or institutionalization. In his writings, Goffman suggests

that if a person doesn't act the way he ought, he'll put someplace where he can say and do anything he wants--and it won't matter anymore.

It's no surprise then to find that attitudes and behavior do not necessarily and overtly mesh. Rubin (9) did an ethnographic study of working class people. She found in almost every area of their lives that there were vast differences in what they said and how they acted, what they said they believed and how they behaved when situations were such as to demonstrate congruence.

Deutscher (3) asserted that if we assume the textbook definition of attitudes as "tendencies of act," then we sometimes proceed to draw conclusions about behavior on the basis on what they tell us--assuming that verbal responses reflect behavioral tendencies. He went on to say, "An adequate theory of attitude must take into account the intervening situational variables which modify the relationship between attitudes and action" (p. 201). According to Lauer (10),

While social psychologists generally hold that both the affective and cognitive components are present in all attitudes, most would agree that the behavior component may be lacking. If one accepts, then, the multidimensional nature of attitudes, a behavioral manifestation of every attitude is not expected (p. 248).

He also went on to say that in any case

Attitudes have diverse functions for individuals. The primary attitudes--which have the crucial function of maintaining the self-concept--are not only the most difficult to measure, but are also the most significant for understanding behavior. For example, a reasonable inference for an experiment where behavior does not conform to paper and pencil projections is that we have tapped at least two attitudes: one that relates to desired behavior toward some group (the paper and pencil test) and one that is crucial to the identity of the individual within the context of basic societal values. Attitudes become factors in behavior in specific social contexts, interacting with other variables in the context. That is behavior is always a function of both attitudes and situations (p. 249).

The complexity involved in the concept of attitudes and the measurement thereof is obvious, and often renders a lack of correlation between the attitude and the behavior. There have been questions raised as to the value of this type of research because of this factor. We should not be blinded, however, to the worth of attitude research simply because certain designs yield little or no correlation. If researchers become preoccupied with correlation results, they most likely will allow themselves to become unaware of and miss the other values of this type of methodology. Lauer (10) suggests that the measurement of attitudes is perhaps one way of measuring social change, becoming an indicator of such change. Furthermore, he feels that the

emergence of the attitude serves to legitimate and, therefore, to perpetuate the new behavioral patterns. When attitudes and behavior are discordant, we may predict that one or the other will change (p. 252).

Lauer goes on to explain some of the other values of attitude research which may not be picked up if a myopic view is maintained, i.e. Attitudes influence and/or govern perception which creates congruence with the situation; an individual tries to maintain his self respect before a given audience, wherein his behavior will conform to what he perceives is expected of him by significant others; attitudes serve as mechanisms of selection with people choosing to be with others most like themselves; or attitudes may act as inhibition factors on behavior and therefore affect the behavior of those toward whom the attitude is directed.

The information that is gained from attitude research may go far beyond the statistical result attained. However, validity and reliability can be increased by thoughtfully and carefully developing the assumptions and constructing the design. A logically and simply stated

instrument may also help to insure against extreme bias being introduced into the study. Thurstone (11) cautioned that responses to questionnaires must never be interpreted as a frequency distribution of attitude. "They should be considered as bar diagrams in which are shown the frequency with which each of a number of statements is indorsed" (p. 542). He went on to say that he measured attitudes by means of opinions which is a refinement of Allport's ideas on rank ordering. Thurston advises,

In order that the scale be effective toward the extremes, it should be extended in both directions considerably beyond the attitudes which will ever be encountered as mean values for individuals (p. 553).

It is also important and necessary, according to Thurstone, to specify the standard deviation of the scores in order to determine the reliability coefficient. The standard error of a score can be calculated by a similar procedure. The central tendency of a group is also legitimate in comparing different groups.

Babbie (12) also contends that surveys, or opinions as Thurstone called them, are "excellent vehicles for measurement of attitudes" (p. 316). They are particularly useful in describing characteristics of a population. He went on to say that questionnaire format is just as important as the nature and wording of the questions. As a general rule, "the questionnaire should be spread out and uncluttered. You should maximize the white space in your instrument" (p. 316).

Keller (13) discusses how Thurstone used expert judges to rate and categorize items intended for inclusion in attitude scales. If the judges disagree widely on any one item, it is not used in the questionnaire. The average numerical value is the indicator of item importance and is ultimately attached to each one. These items are then used to give scores to respondents. He went on to say that the Likert scale was

probably the most popular attitude measurement technique. It is often understood as a five-point "strongly agree-strongly disagree scale" and is a nonmonotonic scale. The Likert scale can be used to measure attitudes toward almost anything.

This type of scale is premised on the belief that attitude is best represented as a positive or negative disposition with respect to some object, and further, the disposition can be represented by a universe of descriptive statements that denote the object when seen from a positive or negative point of view (13, p. 89).

The researcher develops a number of short statements of complete sentences that are in concordance with the subject and purpose of the research. These items are understood to be a sample from a population of all meaningful statements that can be made about the topic. Keller (13), emphasizes that the statements need to be connotative rather than factual so that a respondent can agree or disagree on a four- or five-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

During the last decade, many studies have indicated a change in attitudes toward work as it is traditionally defined. Yankelovich (14) reports that there is an increased willingness on the part of Americans to take more risks, and this personal risk taking may be helping people to adapt their lives and values to the new environment of the 1980's.

Perhaps more than anything else, this freedom to make one's own choices in living, whether they turn out well or badly, distinguishes us from our parents generation. Constrained by circumstances or strict social rules, our parents did not feel free to take the risks we routinely take today--an attitude that characterizes each parental generation (p. 4).

He also contends that most Americans today do not want to practice self-denial in the workplace or any other area of their lives.

Yankolovich (15) contends that America has come through a process of self-fulfillment searches brought on by pop psychology. Pop

psychology emphasizes inner growth, me-centeredness, and getting in touch with one's self. This outlook, he feels, grows out of a too-narrow notion of what the self is and how it should be fulfilled. Neither reflects enduring change nor what people are looking for in terms of self-fulfillment. People sometimes seem to operate under the assumption that certain amounts of self-denial and self-gratification are not good. They consequently translate desires into needs. Yankolovich asserts,

Even moderate forms of this assumption run risks of alienation, loneliness, meaningless and futility. We are not our own work of art . . . the self is not totally private and solitary (p. 239).

He goes on to say that when society engages in faulty thinking about the self, then there is faulty thinking about social rules which keep people from developing sound social ethics to replace the eroding ethic or self-denial.

According to Yankelovich, Americans are moving toward an ethic of commitment since there have been repeated disappointments in the me-first strategies. This new ethic can have profound effects on the way people think about work and organizational or community relationships. It involves the extension of self that includes deeper personal relationships where people share common bonds. The basis of the ethic lies in the idea that the meaning of life can be found in a commitment outside one's self. In the midst of this trend, the 1980's are forcing people to "live more practical lives and to pay more attention to gritty economic realities--jobs, homes, food bills, personal safety" (p. 261).

He goes on to say that people will work much like they have in the past, but they will probably try "to make industrial society a fit place for human life . . . we are obliged to find qualitative substitutes for the mindless pursuit of more of everything" (p. 262).

Most people believe that if they work hard enough and play by the rules they can earn the rewards of a new car, home and respectability. Yankelovick (15) has found a pattern in the American people that, "Questions not whether the old rules work, but whether they are worth the bother: they question both the kind of work that society demands and the 'payoffs' it provides" (p. 39). He went on to say that people seem to be

struggling to revise the giving/getting compact in the workplace: for them to give themselves unstintingly to the job, they demand in return important psychological incentives as well as economic ones. These demands make them troublesome to work with--as a condition of their commitment they are constantly demanding things for themselves. But there is increasing evidence that the workstyle they prefer may be far more productive in tomorrow's service/information/high technology economy than the work relations of the past (p. 44).

The commitment ethic includes preserving certain American values like political freedom to secure material well-being through one's own efforts, family life for comfort and consolation, a place of respectability in the community and pride in America--past, present, and future. The new values take on greater individual autonomy and freedom to choose one's own lifestyle as an adventure as well as an economic chore. These new rules will break up the rigidity of American life, according to Yankelovich, and American society can never return to the narrow choices of our parents day.

Nowak (16) did an attitude and value study of the Polish people. He found that people's values had remained fairly consistent throughout the years, but the recent events in Poland stemmed from a demand for social institutions more in accord with the values consistently held. There had been a drift in people's attitudes, however, from social issues in general to an increased interest in private and personal affairs. He went on to say that because of unionization and

organization, the Polish people have lost their feeling of powerlessness in the society. In the elimination of the feeling of powerlessness and in the perceived restoration of dignity, they felt it was, "Possible now for people to articulate in public and work for the entire agenda of values they would like to see realized in a 'good' and 'just' social system" (p. 53). Nowak contends that those who have been studying the attitudes and values in Poland have actually been studying social forces of great importance. He said,

These forces were at least partially shaped under the influence of the social system, but they have now imprinted themselves on the shape of the system itself and, at least to a certain degree, have caused its transformation (p. 53).

In a report of a special task force to the United States Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) (17), Yankelovich reported findings of his national attitude studies of American college students. He found that 75 percent of the people believe that a meaningful career was very import, 85 percent felt businesses were entitled to a profit, 75 percent felt that it was morally wrong to collect welfare when one could work, and 30 percent would welcome less emphasis on working hard. While students had generally high feelings toward work, Yankelovich found "that attitudes toward authority were rapidly changing" (p. 23). He also found that there had been a shift in student opinion toward the issue that hard work always pays off--69 percent affirmation in 1968 to 39 percent affirmation in 1971. He asserted that

Along with mass media, education and its credentials are raising expectations faster than the economic system can meet them . . . today's youth are expecting a great deal of intrinsic reward from work . . . it has also been found that a much higher percentage of younger than older workers feel that management emphasizes the quantity more than quality of their work (pp. 23-24).

In summary, the HEW report contends that

Young workers have lower commitment to work than do their elders. The problem lies in the interaction between work itself and the changing social character of today's generation and the failure of decision makers in business, labor and government to recognize this fact . . . The young worker is not in revolt against work but against the authoritarian system developed by those who felt the worker was both stupid and afraid of responsibility (p. 25).

Schab (18) reported findings of studies done on vocational-technical students. The attitude questionnaire dealt with their feelings regarding freedom or independence in their work, working conditions, sex differences, training and job success; and pay considerations. Out of 709 students, one-third of the men indicated indifference to the rewarding qualities of work itself. The groups rejected the idea of working less than a 40-hour week, but indicated a preference for a shorter work week. Less than half of the respondents felt that starting at the bottom was not the way to achieve a successful and meaningful career. There was a fairly large percentage of the students who felt that the job was more important than the pay and that company profits should be shared with employees in their paychecks. Higher pay could not compensate for bad hours, noise, dirt and boredom on the job. Schab asserted that these vocational-technical students are telling us that

On the positive side they value training, independence of action and hard work. They are opposed to sex discrimination, to idleness, to quitting just because they are bored, and to taking a job just because of the money (p. 68).

Summary

The literature on attitudes and the attitude research is extensive dating as far back as the early 1900's. Much of the 60 and 70 year old

work is as valid today as it was then. The literature contains almost as many definitions of attitude as it does studies on the subject. Some writers claim that attitudes may reflect influences of social factors, but also claim that they have no independent influence of social factors on behavior or conduct. Proponents of this view seem to accept the notion that attitudes are influenced by social structural factors, but go on to say that attitudes have little effect on social behavior. go on to say that attitudes have little effect on social behavior. Attitudes are sometimes considered to be a product of rights and obligations which characterize the social system. Other writers claim that where structural factors and attitudes are both pushing in the same direction then attitude knowledge would not likely lead to improved prediction of behavior. Still others claim that attitudes can be predicative of social change in the making. The most universal assumption about attitudes is that they are learned, which is contained in almost all of the definitions of the term. One writer mentioned that the measurement of attitudes has become a search for different components of attitudinal behavior as a process of measurement. Others claim that attitudes have motivational properties of their own. Most measurement techniques, however, attempt to give some sort of absolute measure of attitude strength hence contain an assumption that attitudes may provide the drive for people to act positively or negatively toward a social object. Many writers on attitudes feel that the gap between theory and measurement becomes most marked in the area of the motivational foundation of attitudes.

The work of Thurstone (5) and Likert is still used and seems to be as applicable today as it was in the early part of the century.

Thurstone used judges to rate his opinion items before administering them to the respondents. Many theorists feel that the Thurstone methods are appropriate vehicles for attitude measurement. Likewise, many believe that Likert's ideas of an attitude scale are extremely appropriate for measuring attitudes toward almost any object. Likert scales have been reported as being one of the most popular methods in social sciences research. Most of the Likert scales or Likert-like scales use a four- or five-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Since the decade of the 1960's, there have been several studies done on worker attitudes. Many studies reflect changes in attitudes toward institutions and the authority thereof in the work place. There seems to be a prevailing attitude that working is still good, but it does not carry with it the same connotations as with past generations of workers toward work as it is traditionally defined. One writer felt that he had discovered a pattern in the American people which questioned whether the old rules of the work place were worth the bother--never mind the feeling that the old rules work--or, as another writer put it, never mind that there is value in training, independence and hard work.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to gather and examine data pertaining to post-secondary technical students' work attitudes.

Definition of Terms

Traditional Definition of Work: When work happens, something gets done. Energy is expended. What has been done can usually be seen.

Service-Oriented Society: A society that is oriented toward serving people rather than producing goods.

Attitude: An internal mental set toward some social stimuli whether it be verbalized or not, covert or overt. Attitudes are products of one's life experiences and life cycles and do not necessarily predict behavior.

Dramaturgically Competent: A social construct defining an actor managing impressions conveyed to a given audience so as to appear competent during the performance.

Ethnographic Study: A type of research study where observation, participation and informal research designs are used.

Nonmonotonic Scale: A scale on which the items do not predict each other.

Expert Judges: Professionals in work related areas who rate the attitude scale items prior to respondents being administered the questionnaire.

Assumptions

This study is contingent on the assumptions that:

1. Questionnaire results can reflect work attitudes.
2. A satisfactory inventory can be developed.
3. Expert judge ratings of instrument items are reliable.
4. Respondent results reflect sincere beliefs.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects for this study were selected from post-secondary technical students at Oklahoma State University's School of Technical Training, Okmulgee, Oklahoma (OST). The primary mission of this institution is to prepare people for work. Students at OST are exposed to both general and occupational education which is designed to aid in psychomotor, cognitive and affective development needed in today's society and on the job.

Development of the Instrument

The questionnaire in this study was developed by devising short, easy-to-understand statements that are connotative rather than factual so that the respondents could simply check a four-point Likert like scale. The items were developed from the current writings about student work attitudes, specifically the work of Toffler (2), Yankelovich (15), and Shab (18). A four-point scale was chosen because much of the literature contains ambiguity as to what middle or undecided categories may reflect. Many researchers are unclear as to how to measure or describe the middle categories. Research indicates that most people do, in fact, have opinions or attitudes about most subjects, but will often

mark a middle ground response if given that choice. The questionnaire for this study included items regarding personal data about each respondent. The item responses do not predict each other, but reflect positive or negative dispositions toward work. Lemon (19) suggested the use of 20 to 25 items with one-half being favorable and one-half being unfavorable. He went on to say that unweighted methods used by Likert in 1932. The item responses were summed overall giving a total score for each respondent. Item analysis can be achieved by selecting those items which best differentiate between respondents on the basis of total scores. According to Lemon,

This can be done by dividing respondents into 25 percent with the highest scores and 25 percent with the lowest scores, and perform tests to ascertain which items differentiate best between the two groups (p. 180).

Approximately 50 items (see Appendix A for the item list) were submitted to six expert judges who rated them as to accuracy and appropriateness for the purpose of measuring work attitudes. (See Appendix B for the list of judges.) If an item received considerable disagreement in the rating process, it was not used in the questionnaire. The items used in the questionnaire were the ones that received high agreement ratings reflecting positive or negative attitudes toward work. The questionnaire was completed by selecting 12 positive and 12 negative descriptors of attitudes toward work as depicted by the expert judges. The items dealt with the work ethic, change, reward, and upgrade training. A copy of the questionnaire used in contained in Appendix C.

Collection of Data

According to Stephan (20), it is important to make a rough determination of subject group size in the early stages of a study and to state any requirements concerning the distribution of the subject characteristics. Since the subjects for this study were students at OST, an approximately representative group was selected from general education classes. The representativeness factors were determined prior to questionnaire administration and analysis of data. The representativeness parameters included residential status (living on/off campus), student status (in-state, out-of-state, or international), sex, age, home town size (farm, small town, mid-size town, big city), race, program of study, trimester at OST, marital status, educational background, and sponsorship. This information was available for the school as a whole in the current Student Profile (Fall Trimester, 1981). Based on the completed questionnaires, subjects for inclusion were selected so as to match as nearly as possible the Student Profile.

In order to reduce any effects that might grow out of the way the instrument was administered, it would have been better if the same person could have collected all the data using as nearly as possible identical methods of collection. The reasoning behind this was based on the notion that control is important in a research finding and that one person might be able to achieve this control better than several persons administering the questionnaire. It was not feasible, however, for one person to collect the data so six instructors at OST agreed to help. They were instructed identically on how to administer the questionnaire.

Analysis of Data

A coding key was developed for the Likert-like scale which ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" using weights one through four for the scoring of the responses. After the administering of the questionnaire to the students, the attitude items were scored for positive and negative work attitudes. The completed instruments were sorted and checked to insure that the subject group was representative of the Current Student Profile (Fall Trimester, 1981). The instrument scoring key is contained in Appendix D.

A total attitude score was computed for each respondent by summing the 24 item scores. Questionnaires that contained any unmarked items were excluded from the study. The group median was then computed using the attitude scores and the number of respondents.

The respondents were then sorted on the basis of their responses to each of the 11 student profile items producing a frequency distribution for each profile item. Within each profile subgroup (i.e. males, females, married, unmarried, etc.), the respondents were further sorted by total attitude score (above and below the group median). Respondents whose total attitude score was equal to the group median were excluded.

The Chi Square statistic was then employed to test the frequency distributions for significant differences. Differences were only considered significant if there was less than a 0.01 probability that the difference was due to chance.

Limitations

Since this study was directed at a selected group of respondents, it may not be completely generalizable to any other groups.

By virtue of the Likert-like design, respondents were forced to choose an answer which imposed limits upon them and restricted their freedom of choice. No provisions were made for other responses.

There is the possibility that some respondents simply circled answers that they considered to be socially acceptable rather than those best reflecting their true attitudes.

The questionnaires were administered by seven different instructors. While these people were instructed to collect the data in the same way, there may have been more control had it been possible for one person to collect the data.

The questionnaires were administered the week before the Christmas break, 1981. Consequently, attendance may have been down when compared to other weeks during the trimester; however, no comparative studies were done to confirm or deny particularly low attendance at this time. The students in attendance at the time seemed to be particularly anxious and excited about leaving campus for a two-week break; however, no comparative study was done to confirm or deny these factors.

The attitude inventory was not intended to be standardized. The reliability and validity is only as good as the refinement process produced. The expert judges were not professionals in attitude research; however, they are professionals in work related areas.

Summary

This chapter has described the methodology of the study. It also contains information about the definition of some terms, selection of subjects, procedures used to collect the data, and the development of

and instrument. This chapter concludes with an explanation of the analysis procedures and some of the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to gather and examine data pertaining to post-secondary technical students' work attitudes. The objective of this chapter is to describe the results of the gathered data and to explain the process involved in collecting the data.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects for inclusion in this study were students in Oklahoma State Tech (OST) general education classes. Seven instructors administered the instrument to classes in Human Relations, Business Principles, and Communications I. The students were told that their names need not be written on the questionnaire, that the instrument was not an examination for a grade, and that it was simply a survey of technical students. No mention of work attitudes was made in connection with the questionnaire.

Return Results

There were 327 questionnaires administered and 234 were subsequently used in the study. The instruments excluded from the study were those that contained one or more unmarked items and some randomly selected ones removed to make the study group more representative of the 1981 Fall Trimester OST Student Profile.

Collection of Data

Of the 11 profile parameters listed on the questionnaire, only six were used in the study: sex, residential status, age, marital status, racial distribution and sponsorship. After the completed questionnaires were examined, it was determined that ambiguity existed in the categories of student status, hometown size, and educational background. The program of study and trimester at OST was determined to be of little use in this study because of the large number of first and second trimester students. Also, these two parameters were not available in the OST Student Profile. Student status was excluded because there were some students who were not clear in their responses as to being an Oklahoma resident, out-of-state resident, or international. The choices for hometown size were not distinctive enough and a number of subjects expressed that they were unable to choose between small town and mid-size town. The education category was excluded because all of the students, by virtue of being in attendance at OST, could reasonably have circled the choice of "some college." The OST Student Profile includes three veterans' dependents. Some subjects responded by circling more than one so it was decided to combine all three into one category. The OST Student Profile also includes a category of "foreign" under racial distribution, but no subjects circled this choice so it was omitted from the study.

Analysis of the Data

After the completed questionnaires were scored and given a total attitude score, they were sorted into the six categories: sex, residential status, age, marital status, racial distribution and

TABLE I
STUDENT REPRESENTATIVENESS AND CHI SQUARE TEST
PROFILE -V- STUDY

	MALES	FEMALES	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	75.4% 74.0%	24.6% 26.0%	0.044	1	0.86
	ON CAMPUS	OFF CAMPUS	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	52.6% 54.0%	47.4% 46.0%	0.032	1	0.81
	AGE 18-25	AGE 26-UP	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	76.9% 80.0%	23.1% 20.0%	0.38	1	0.55
	MARRIED	SINGLE	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	18.4% 16.0%	81.6% 76.0%	0.51	1	0.48
	WHITE	NON WHITE	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	74.4% 75.0%	25.6% 25.0%	0.00005	1	0.98
	SELF SPONSORED	OTHERS	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
PROFILE STUDY	65.6% 62.0%	34.4% 38.0%	0.43	1	0.50

sponsorship. These categories were then compared to the OST Student Profile to check for representativeness. (See Table I.) Percentages were used in these comparisons and no significant differences between the profile and study group were expected. These comparisons were important in establishing that the study group was, in fact, representative of the OST student population. The results were as follows:

1. In the sex category there was no significant difference between the profile and the study group. The Chi Square value was 0.044 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significant differences was 0.86.

2. In the residential status category there was no significant difference between the profile and the study group with reference to living on campus or off campus. The Chi Square value was 0.032 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significant difference was 0.81.

3. There was no significant difference between the profile and study group with reference to age groups 18-25 and 26-up. The Chi Square value was 0.38 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significant difference was 0.55.

4. There was no significant difference between the profile and the study group with reference to being married and single. The Chi Square value was 0.51 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significance was 0.48.

5. There was no significant difference between the profile and the study group with reference to racial distribution. The Chi Square value was 0.00005 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significant difference was 0.98.

6. There was no significant difference between the profile and the study group with reference to sponsorship. The Chi Square value was 0.43 with one degree of freedom. The probability of no significant difference was 0.50.

Frequency counts were done on each of the six categories. (See Tables II through VII.) A ranking of total scores was also done. (See Table VIII.) The test statistic used was Chi Square which is designed to test for differences between proportions of scores or between expected and observed frequencies after they have been divided at a cutting point which may be the median. The probability associated with various values of the Chi Square Statistic ranges from zero to one with the maximum value being attained when there is perfect agreement between the frequencies or proportions. The "no difference" hypothesis for the six parameters was to be rejected if the Chi Square value was not significant at the 0.01 significance level. The significance levels were to be used simply as a means of explaining and understanding the results of the study. The score frequencies were converted to percentages as a means of aiding understanding of the data used in the Chi Square tests. Attitudes were not actually measured in this study; however, responses to positive and negative attitudinal statements about work were recorded. With this in mind, the following student results were realized using the percentages of scores distributed around the group median of 77 and the Chi Square statistic:

1. When sex -v- attitude percentages (Table II) were distributed around the median, a slightly greater percentage of the male scores fell below the cutting point than above. A slightly larger percentage of the of the female scores fell above the median than below. However,

TABLE II
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST
 SEX -V- ATTITUDES

MALES										
61	76	61	69	64	83	91	79	77	64	94
90	87	83	68	85	79	74	79	83	81	81
83	72	76	60	80	50	75	79	69	83	86
77	75	73	85	68	79	78	73	65	80	72
89	84	80	77	78	79	76	78	70	70	64
77	67	71	69	78	76	78	77	75	77	65
75	56	73	73	89	84	71	79	74	74	83
80	68	81	78	77	76	89	80	87	80	86
75	73	79	83	85	64	84	77	81	80	76
70	66	65	73	73	81	67	82	75	84	76
77	65	64	84	82	73	80	63	90	81	79
87	73	89	70	83	74	84	77	79	77	78
73	56	74	78	88	68	88	77	71	69	81
71	65	88	70	84	85	80	75	78	82	77
73	68	72	90	76	76	72	77	75	65	84
77	73	77	70	80	69	66	77	65		
FEMALES										
94	79	85	78	78	77	75	87	64	79	88
79	83	76	91	92	79	73	73	73	90	69
85	65	82	62	83	74	83	74	72	69	62
67	66	80	78	71	78	75	78	76	81	70
71	81	76	73	90	79	75	67	76	77	81
73	79	79	81	80						
CHI SQUARE TEST										
	MALE	FEMALE	CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY					
ABOVE MEDIAN	48.4%	53.4%								
BELOW MEDIAN	51.6%	46.6%	0.32	1	> 0.6					

when the Chi Square test was performed for the distributions, the value was 0.32 with one degree of freedom. The hypothesis of no difference between the male and female responses compared to the median was not rejected. There was greater than a 0.6 probability that the difference was due to chance and was, therefore, not statistically significant.

2. When residential status -v- attitude percentages (Table III) were distributed around the median, the on-campus percentages of scores were equal above and below the cutting point. A very slightly larger percentage of off-campus scores, however, fell below the median than above. But, when the Chi Square test was performed for the distribution, the value was 0.00 with one degree of freedom. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference between on-campus and off-campus proportions around the median was not rejected. There was greater than a 0.99 probability that the difference was due to chance alone and was, therefore, not statistically significant.

3. When age -v- attitude percentages (Table IV) were distributed around the median, a greater percentage of the scores in the age groups 18-25 fell below the median than above. A greater percentage of scores in the age groups 26-up fell above the median than below. When the Chi Square test was performed for the distribution, the value was 7.55 with one degree of freedom. The Chi Square value was greater than the table value at the 0.01 level of significance. The hypothesis of no difference between the age group proportions of 18-25 and 26-up was rejected. There was less than a 0.01 probability that the difference in the proportions was due to chance alone and was, therefore, statistically significant.

TABLE III
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST RESIDENTIAL
 STATUS -V- ATTITUDES

ON CAMPUS										
94	79	85	65	82	62	83	74	83	74	72
69	62	67	66	80	78	71	78	75	78	76
81	70	77	72	77	75	65	71	65	88	70
84	85	80	75	78	82	77	73	68	72	90
76	76	79	77	78	73	56	74	78	88	68
88	77	71	69	81	79	87	73	89	70	83
74	84	77	84	76	77	65	64	84	82	73
80	63	90	81	65	73	73	81	67	82	75
85	64	84	77	81	80	76	70	66	81	78
77	76	89	80	87	80	86	75	73	79	83
71	69	78	50	72	76	79	83	81	81	69
64	83	91	79	77						
OFF CAMPUS										
77	81	73	79	79	81	80	71	81	76	73
90	79	75	67	76	73	90	69	79	73	73
78	78	77	75	87	64	79	88	79	83	76
91	92	85	65	84	77	73	77	70	80	69
66	71	79	74	74	83	80	68	76	78	77
75	77	65	75	56	73	73	89	84	75	79
69	83	86	77	75	73	85	68	79	78	73
65	80	72	89	84	80	77	78	79	76	78
70	70	64	77	67	60	80	83	64	94	90
87	83	68	85	79	74	61	76	61		
CHI SQUARE TEST										
	ON	OFF	CHI	DF	PROBABILITY					
	CAMPUS	CAMPUS	SQUARE							
ABOVE MEDIAN	50%	49%								
BELOW MEDIAN	50%	51%	0.00	1	> 0.99					

TABLE IV
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST
 AGE -V- ATTITUDES

18-26										
84	80	77	78	79	76	78	70	70	64	77
67	79	69	83	86	77	75	73	85	68	79
78	73	65	80	72	89	73	89	84	75	84
77	73	77	70	80	69	66	71	79	74	74
83	80	68	76	78	77	75	77	65	75	56
73	65	87	73	89	70	83	74	84	77	84
76	77	65	64	84	82	73	80	63	90	81
65	73	73	81	67	82	75	85	64	84	77
81	80	76	70	66	81	78	77	76	89	80
87	80	86	75	73	79	83	71	69	78	79
77	78	73	56	74	78	88	68	88	77	71
69	77	72	77	75	65	71	65	88	70	84
85	80	75	78	82	77	73	68	72	90	76
76	79	73	73	73	90	69	73	79	79	81
80	71	81	76	73	90	79	75	67	76	65
82	62	83	74	83	74	72	69	62	67	66
80	78	71	78	75	78	76	81	70	77	81
85										
26 AND UP										
60	80	83	64	94	90	87	83	68	85	79
74	61	76	61	81	81	69	64	83	91	79
77	50	72	76	79	83	81	85	92	91	76
83	79	88	79	64	87	75	77	78	78	79
94	79									
CHI SQUARE TEST										
	AGE		AGE		CHI		DF		PROBABILITY	
	18-25		26-UP		SQUARE					
ABOVE MEDIAN	45.6%		65.9%							
BELOW MEDIAN	54.4%		34.1%		7.55		1		<0.01	

4. When the marital status -v- attitude percentages (Table V) were distributed around the median, a slightly larger percentage of the scores in the married category fell above the median than below. In the single category a slightly larger percentage of the scores fell below the median than above. However, when the Chi Square test was performed, the value was 4.12 with one degree of freedom. The hypothesis of no difference between the married and single proportions around the median was not rejected. There was greater than a 0.04 probability that the difference was due to chance alone and was, therefore, not statistically significant.

5. When racial distribution -v- attitude percentages (Table VI) were distributed around the median using white and non-white scores fell above the median than below. A somewhat greater percentage of the non-white scores fell below the median than above. But, when the Chi Square test was computed, the value was 5.6 with one degree of freedom. The hypothesis of no difference between the proportions of white and non-white scores around the median was not rejected. There was greater than a 0.02 probability that the difference was due to chance and was, therefore, not statistically significant.

The racial distribution -v- attitude percentages were also compared to the median using the individual categories of White, Indian, Black, Asian, and Hispanic. A larger percentage of white scores fell above the median than below. A larger percentage of Indian, Black, and Asian attitude scores fell below the median than above. The percentage of Hispanic attitude scores were equal above and below the median. The Chi Square test was performed using the five categories and the value was 33.1 with four degrees of freedom. The value was less than the table

TABLE V
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST
 MARITAL STATUS -V- ATTITUDES

MARRIED										
77	65	84	77	73	77	70	80	69	66	50
72	76	69	83	81	81	60	80	83	64	94
90	87	83	68	85	79	74	73	79	79	81
80	79	79	83	76	91	92				
SINGLE										
77	75	65	71	65	88	70	84	85	80	75
78	82	77	73	68	72	90	76	76	79	72
86	75	73	79	83	71	69	78	79	77	78
73	56	74	78	88	68	88	77	71	69	76
70	66	81	78	77	76	89	80	87	80	63
90	81	65	73	73	81	67	82	75	85	64
84	77	81	80	73	89	70	83	74	84	77
84	76	77	65	64	84	82	73	80	87	56
73	71	79	74	74	83	80	68	76	78	77
75	77	65	75	86	77	75	73	85	68	79
78	73	65	80	72	89	73	89	84	75	81
84	80	77	78	79	76	78	70	70	64	77
67	79	69	83	64	83	91	79	77	69	61
76	61	83	74	72	69	62	67	66	80	78
71	78	75	78	76	81	70	77	81	85	81
76	73	90	79	75	67	76	65	82	62	83
74	71	94	79	73	73	73	90	69	88	79
64	87	75	77	78	78	85				
CHI SQUARE TEST										
	MARRIED		SINGLE		CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY			
ABOVE MEDIAN	62.2%		46.9%							
BELOW MEDIAN	37.8%		53.1%		4.12	1	>0.04			

TABLE VI
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST RACIAL
 DISTRIBUTION -V- ATTITUDES

WHITE				INDIAN		BLACK		ASIAN		HISPANIC	
76	61	77	69	70	79	64	77	61	79	72	79
67	79	69	83	80	87	56	74	64	60		
64	83	91	78	78	77	78	88	72			
70	76	89	73	76	66	68	88				
89	84	75	81	73	71	76	76				
84	80	77	78	69	78	73	68				
65	80	75	77	50	64	72	80				
65	75	86	77	74	62	83	76				
75	73	85	68	76	77	77	69				
79	78	73	79	74	83	65	78				
74	74	83	80	79	80	71	78				
68	76	78	77			80	66				
77	65	64	84			67	62				
82	73	80	87			69	72				
56	73	71	70			92	79				
83	74	84	77								
84	76	80	63								
90	81	65	73								
73	81	67	82								
75	85	84	84								
77	81	80	73								
89	89	81	77								
71	69	76	70								
79	77	78	79								
72	86	75	73								
79	83	90	94								
90	87	83	68								
85	79	74	77								
75	65	71	65								
88	70	84	85								
80	75	78	82								
77	79	83	81								
81	65	84	77								
73	77	70	80								
69	66	77	85								
78	78	75	87								
79	88	90	73								
73	73	94	71								
83	82	67	75								
79	90	73	76								
81	85	81	70								
81	76	78	75								
91	76	83	79								
81	73	79									

TABLE VI (Continued)

	WHITE	INDIAN	BLACK	ASIAN	HISPANIC
ABOVE MEDIAN	54%	40%	35.7%	20%	50%
BELOW MEDIAN	46%	60%	64.3%	80%	50%
			CHI SQUARE	DF	PROBABILITY
			33.1	4	< 0.001
	WHITE	NON WHITE	CHI SQUARE	DF	ROBABILITY
ABOVE MEDIAN	54%	36.4%			
BELOW MEDIAN	46%	63.6%	5.6	1	> 0.02

value at the 0.001 significance level which indicates that the hypothesis of no difference between the proportions of racial distribution -v- attitudes could be rejected. The problem with this result was that at least three of the cells contained five or fewer attitude scores which may have rendered the Chi Square test invalid.

6. When the sponsorship -v- attitude percentages (Table VII) were distributed around the median using two categories, self-sponsored and others, the percentage of self-sponsored scores were distributed equally above and below the median, and the others were distributed such that only a slightly larger percentage of scores fell below the median than above. When the Chi Square test was performed, the value was 0.003 with one degree of freedom. The hypothesis of no difference between the sponsorship proportions around the median was not rejected. There was greater than a 0.95 probability that the difference was due to chance and was, therefore, not statistically significant.

The sponsorship -v- attitude percentages were also distributed around the group median using the individual categories of self-sponsored, veterans (VA), Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), Oklahoma Vocational Rehabilitation Agency (OK Rehab), Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA), and out-of-state vocational rehabilitation agencies (out-of-state rehab). A slightly larger percentage of BIA and OK Rehab scores fell below the median than above. A slightly greater percentage of VA and out-of-state rehab scores fell above the median than below. The percentage of self-sponsored and CETA scores were distributed equally above and below the median. The Chi Square test was performed using the six categories and the value was 42.0 with five degrees of freedom. The hypothesis of no difference between the proportions of

TABLE VII
 RAW SCORES AND CHI SQUARE TEST
 SPONSORSHIP -V- ATTITUDES

SELF-SPONSORED	VA	BIA	OKLAHOMA REHAB	CETA	OUT-OF STATE REHAB
60 64 79 61 72	83 80	50 78	72 76	78 75	81 90
88 68 88 76 76	64 70	69 71	74 56	76 84	67 91
72 73 68 73 87	77 73	77 76	77 77	72 72	77
80 69 66 77 70	84 81	66 78	75 65	80 83	
79 65 78 82 77	83 71	80 77	94 79		
79 65 88 70 84	75 85	83 74	73 65		
85 80 79 74 86	68 83	77 76	80 73		
75 73 79 83 76	87 90	74 64	82 64		
70 79 85 64 84	69 82		77 65		
77 81 80 73 89	80 80		84 89		
89 81 77 71 73	81 77		78 92		
81 80 63 90 81	61 76		65 77		
87 56 73 71 70	67 76		79 81		
83 74 84 77 84	91 78		75 67		
77 77 65 75 73			82 83		
85 68 79 78 73			87 75		
79 74 74 83 80					
68 76 78 75 77					
65 75 86 77 78					
73 89 84 75 78					
70 76 83 64 83					
69 79 69 79 79					
69 62 67 66 80					
78 71 78 69 79					
62 79 73 81 75					
78 76 81 70 85					
81 76 73 90 79					
71 94 73 73 73					
90 88 79 78 85					

sponsorship was rejected. There would be less than a 0.001 probability that the differences were due to chance alone and was, therefore, statistically significant. The problem with this result was that at least four of the cells contained five or fewer attitude scores which may have rendered the Chi Square test invalid.

Table VIII shows the total ranked scores as well as the group median, grand mean, standard deviation, variance, range, skew, and kurtosis.

TABLE VIII
RANKINGS OF TOTAL SCORES

SCORE	RANK	TALLEY
94	1.5	2
92	3.0	1
91	4.5	2
90	8.0	5
89	12.5	4
88	16.5	4
87	20.5	4
86	23.5	2
85	27.5	6
84	34.5	8
83	44	11
82	51.5	4
81	59	11
80	70.5	12
79	85	17
78	100.5	14
77	117	19
76	133	13
75	145	11
74	154	7
73	166	17
72	177	5
71	182.5	6
70	189	7
69	196	7
68	202	5
67	206.5	4
66	210	3
65	215.5	8
64	222.5	6
63	226	1
62	227.5	2
61	229.5	2
60	231	1
56	232.5	2
50	234	1

Group Median = 77
 Grand Median = 76.43
 Standard Deviation = 7.51
 Variance = 56.39
 Range = 44 (94 - 50)
 Skew = 0.293
 Kurtosis = 3.246

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As technology and automation grows, a society undergoes rapid change. This change affects the way people act, think and feel about the various social processes including work. In the work place, people are required to have more and more education in order to compete successfully for the available jobs. Work moves from production-oriented toward being more knowledge based and service oriented.

While attitudes toward work do not necessarily predict behavior, they can be an indicator of social change in the making. It is likely that if attitudes and behavior do not mesh, then one or the other will change. Several studies indicate that there is a trend of negativism toward work as it has been traditionally defined. This is not to say that people do not want to work, but that they may be expecting more from employment than just a job.

The problem with which this study deals is the lack of information about work attitudes of post-secondary technical students. Some recent studies reflect a slight trend toward non-compliance with some of the traditional ideas of the importance of work. They also reflect a reluctance on the part of young workers to abide within an authoritarian environment such as is often found in the work arena.

This study was specifically designed to achieve the following research objectives:

1. Develop and administer an attitude inventory.
2. Describe post-secondary technical students' work attitudes.

The attitude inventory was developed using factors found in the literature regarding current attitudes toward work. It was administered to students in general education classes at the Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training (OST). Six parameters from the OST Fall Trimester Student Profile, 1981, were used in conjunction with the work attitude items, i.e. sex, residential status, marital status, age, racial distribution, and sponsorship. Approximately 50 attitude items were submitted to six expert judges for judgements as to which items were the clearest positive and negative work attitude indicators. Twenty-four of the items were selected for the questionnaire using the 12 most clearly positive and 12 most clearly negative attitudinal statements. A four-point Likert-like scale was used by the subjects to respond to the items.

A total of 327 questionnaires were administered and 234 were subsequently included in the study. The instruments that were excluded were the ones with one or more missing responses and some randomly selected out so as to provide better representiveness of the whole student body.

The attitude responses were totaled producing for each subject a total attitude score. Frequency tables were developed using the total scores in each of the student profile categories, and the scores were converted to percentages to facilitate understanding. The Chi Square statistic was used to test the proportions of responses above and below the group median. The hypothesis of no difference could not be rejected

in three of the test cases; however, two of these contained one or more cells with five or less scores which may have rendered the Chi Square test invalid. The scores took on a slightly skewed distribution (Skew = -0.293) with a kurtosis value of 3.246. Overall, the scores were relatively high which indicates a more positive than negative bent toward the attitudinal descriptors.

Findings and Conclusions

Sex -V- Attitudes Summary

When male and female attitude percentages were proportioned around the group median, a slightly greater percentage of male scores fell below the median than above. A slightly greater percentage of female scores fell above the median than below. However, the differences between the proportions above and below the median were not statistically significant, and the hypothesis of no difference was not rejected.

Conclusions. Female attitude percentages reflected a slightly more positive disposition than did the male scores toward the attitudinal statements. The recent literature reflects a trend toward negative work attitudes when compared to past generations. It did not reflect that males and females might have different attitudes toward work with females being slightly more positive. It is possible that there may be some ambiguity in how people are defining "hard" work and other social processes that surround the concept of work. One study done on vocational-technical students indicated that a substantial number of the men reflected indifference to the rewarding qualities of work. The students as a whole, however, valued training, independence of action

and hard work, but were opposed to sex discrimination and idleness as well as taking a job just for the money. Another study indicated that there had been a shift in student opinion toward the issue that "hard" work always pays off.

Recommendations. The possibility arises that males and females define work variables differently. It would perhaps be beneficial to know how "hard" work, authoritarianism, etc. is defined by contemporary students. It has been established that males and females do view some social processes differently. It may be that the sexes actually differ little in this regard, but respond differently because of differences in the socialization processes for males and females. Further research is, therefore, recommended to include a more thorough examination of work attitudes with any ambiguity in definitions being resolved.

Residential Status -V- Attitudes Summary

When on campus and off campus percentages were distributed around the group median, the percentages of on-campus scores were equal above and below the median. Only a slightly larger percentage off-campus scores fell below the median than above. The hypothesis of no difference was not rejected. There was no apparent significant difference between the distribution of on-campus and off-campus attitude scores.

Conclusions. The percentages distributed themselves almost equally around the group median with the off-campus category being very slightly lower. While the scores were relatively high overall, it is concluded that this parameter has limited usefulness as an indicator of work attitudes when used in the manner of this study.

Recommendations. The residential category -v- attitudes might be useful if set against some other variables, i.e. age, marital status. It is felt, however, that this category was not as useful as some others and could, therefore, have been eliminated from the study. Future studies may wish to take advantage of this finding.

Age -V- Attitudes Summary

When these percentages were distributed around the group median, significant differences did occur between the age groups 18-25 and 26-up. The 18-25 age group reflected a greater percentage of negative responses to the attitudinal statements with more falling below the cutting point than above. The 26-up category contained a greater percentage of scores above the median.

Conclusions. It may be that the younger group has had less exposure to the work place than has the older group. This could possibly account for the differences. It could also be that the younger respondents are merely reflecting the Ethic of Commitment as described by Yankelovich whereby Americans are looking for more quality in their work rather than a set of rigid rules to follow. The students did not reflect that work was not good, but an Yankelovich noted, they may be reflecting new adaptations to the old work rules that will allow for better survival in a technologically, knowledge-based, service-oriented society.

Recommendations. It was no big surprise that the older group's scores were more positive since past generations have had a strong orientation toward the traditional work ethic. More research seems to be indicated for younger technical students' with possible emphasis

being placed on the Ethic of Commitment which might provide additional insight into how institutions can better meet the needs of younger workers.

Marital Status -V- Attitude Summary

When the percentages for married and single respondents were distributed around the median, the married percentages fell slightly more above the median than below. The single percentages fell slightly more below the median than above. This category was not, however, statistically significant and the hypothesis of no difference was not rejected.

Conclusions. The married group may have a greater tendency toward reality in the work place than their single counterparts. Being responsible for not only the welfare of one's self but also other people would seem to have some bearing on how one views working. The attitudes reflected in this study do not necessarily predict how a person would behave over time and in any given situation.

Recommendations. One way to determine the extent that attitudes reflect behavior would be to engage in an ethnographic study of the subjects in this study. However, a study of this magnitude may not be feasible because of time and logistic limitations. It will be several trimesters before most of the respondents will graduate and to to work, and then they will no doubt scatter throughout the country. It would be costly and difficult to follow them for the time required for a sound ethnographic study. It is, therefore, recommended that future studies dealing with work attitudes on married and single people control for marriage.

Racial Distribution -V- Attitudes Summary

These percentages were distributed around the median in two different ways. One, using the percentages of White and Non-White, and two, using the percentages of White, Indian, Black, Asian, and Hispanic. The first distribution proved not to be statistically significant while the second one was. In both cases a larger percentage of White scores fell above the median than below. In the second test, however, a greater percentage of Indian, Black and Asian attitude scores fell below the median. The percentage of Hispanic scores were equal both above and below the median. However, the small number of scores in some cells (less than five) renders this result questionable.

Conclusions. The instrument may have been too "white and middle class" to reflect true work attitude responses for this category.

Recommendations. Future attitude inventories should be screened so as to detect problems in describing work attitudes for post-secondary technical students by racial distribution. It is also recommended that future studies using the Chi Square statistic include sufficient numbers of respondents to establish the validity of the statistic.

Sponsorship -V- Attitudes Summary

This category was also divided into two separate tests, and the scores above and below the median were converted to percentages. One, self-sponsored and others, and two self-sponsored, VA, BIA, OK Rehab, CETA, and Out-of-State Rehab. The first was not statistically significant and the second one was. In the first test, the self-sponsored

percentages were distributed equally above and below the median. The other percentages were distributed with only slightly more below the median than above. When all of the sponsorship percentages were distributed around the median, the self-sponsored and CETA percentages were equal above and below the median. A slightly greater percentage of the BIA and OK Rehab scores fell below the median, and a slightly greater percentage of the VA and Out-of-State Rehab scores fell above the median than below.

Conclusions. While sponsorship was not indicative of work attitudes when the percentages were reduced to a two-by-two contingency table, and was indicative of work attitudes when the percentages were placed in a two-by-six table, it may be that the sponsoring agency is not the important variable in this category. It may be that there are intervening variables relating to the conditions under which people come to be classified a certain way and these variables could have come bearing on how work is perceived. There were too few scores in some cells to allow valid conclusions to be drawn about the effect of the sponsoring agency parameter.

Recommendations. Studies using the sponsorship category should control for intervening variables under which people come to be classified by a sponsoring agency. It is felt that this category was not as useful as some others and could, therefore, have been eliminated from the study. It is also recommended that future studies using the Chi Square statistic include enough respondents so as to not change rendering the calculations invalid.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT SUBMITTED TO EXPERT JUDGES

The following items were submitted to the expert judges. A plus (+) indicates a positive rating descriptor of attitudes toward work, a minus (-) indicates a negative rating descriptor of attitudes toward work, and an "N" indicates a neutral rating descriptor toward work.

	STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
I want a job that is not difficult. (1 N, 5 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Workers must keep trying to improve their skills. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
Fringe benefits are very important. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
Loyalty to an employer is not very important. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Hard work rarely pays off. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I have some authority. (2 +, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I have things pretty well laid out for me to do every day. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
Working for money alone is not good. (5 +, 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You don't need to start at the bottom to work up in a company. (1 -, 3 +, 2 N)	SA	A	D	SD

The pay is the most important part of a job. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I don't have to exercise authority over others. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
It would be good if you could change jobs every few months. (2 N, 4 -)	SA	A	D	SD
The trouble with most jobs is that just when you get used to doing things, they change them. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
It would take a lot of money to make most people change jobs. (1-, 5 N)	SA	A	D	SD
I wouldn't mind quitting a job without lining up another one first. (1 N, 1 +, 4 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I do not want to give up anything because of a job. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Hard work is OK, but I doubt it's worth the bother. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Nobody likes a job if the ways of doing things are always being changed. (2 N, 1 +, 3 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Most bosses just don't willingly give you what you want. (1 +, 5 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Work isn't as important as family and friends. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD

I want a job where I am mentally challenged. (4 +, 2 N)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I always follow a strict code of conduct. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I can keep clean and neat. (1 +, 1 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
I don't mind working, but I don't like being bossed all the time. (1 N, 1 +, 4 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I think there should be less emphasis on working hard. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
It's Ok to get dirty if it's needed to get the job done. (5 +, 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You shouldn't quit a job just because you're bored. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
Enough money might cause me to take a rotten job, but I wouldn't keep it very long. (1 N, 2 +, 3 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I would move about anywhere to work if the pay was high enough. (1 N, 2 +, 3 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Working overtime is not good. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
A 40-hour work week is OK, but a shorter one would be better. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
Businesses are entitled to a profit. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD

I want a job where I don't have to think too much. (4 -, 2 N)	SA	A	D	SD
My attitude should be of no concern to the boss. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I want a job where I don't have to follow a strict code of conduct. (1 +, 5 N)	SA	A	D	SD
Getting to work on time every day is important. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
These days nobody wants to be the sole breadwinner. (2 -, 4 N)	SA	A	D	SD
Saving money is not as important as it used to be. (3 -, 3 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You should not have to give up things you want just to satisfy the boss. (1 N, 5 -)	SA	A	D	SD
You really ought to like working all the time. (3 +, 3 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Working is the way to get the things that are important. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
There shouldn't be a fuss if you're a little late to work now and then. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
Good retirement and health benefits are as important as the paycheck. (3 N, 3 +)	SA	A	D	SD

It's only right to have to ask permission to leave when there are personal problems to be taken care of. (6 +)	SA	A	D	SD
I don't think companies should push staying busy so much. (1 N, 1+, 4 -)	SA	A	D	SD
It'll pay off for you if you work hard and be patient. (5 +, 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD
Businesses really do want people to have good lives and be happy. (5 + 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You earn that sick leave so take it even if you're not sick. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
It's OK for the boss to expect you to work overtime. (5 +, 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You should get your vacation when you want it, not when the company wants you to take it. (1 N, 5 -)	SA	A	D	SD
You don't owe your employer anything as long as you do the job. (6 -)	SA	A	D	SD
I would not be willing to risk losing my job before I had another one lined up. (1 +, 5 N)	SA	A	D	SD
You owe your boss some loyalty for hiring you. (5 +, 1 N)	SA	A	D	SD

APPENDIX B

PANEL OF EXPERTS

The following persons judged each of the potential questionnaire items and rated them as to whether they reflected positive, neutral, or negative attitudes toward work.

Dale Brannon, Communications Supervisor
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

Ed Darby, Assistant Director for Academic Affairs
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

Abe McIntosh, General Education Department Head
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

Ed. D. Miller, Social Sciences Supervisor
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

Jim Suiter, General Education Assistant Department Head
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

Dick Tinnell, Coordinator of Instructional Resources
Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please CIRCLE each of the following choices which fit you.

- | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. WHERE DO YOU LIVE? | 2. SEX: | 3. MARRIED: |
| on campus | Female | Yes |
| off campus | Male | No |
| 4. STUDENT STATUS: | 5. AGE: | 6. HOMETOWN SIZE: |
| Oklahoma resident | 18-25 | Rural/Farm |
| Out-of-state | 26 & up | Small Town |
| International | | Midsize town |
| | | Big City |
| 7. RACE: | 8. TRIMESTER IN PROGRAM: | |
| White | 1st | |
| Indian | 2nd | |
| Black | 3rd | |
| Middle Eastern | 4th | |
| Asian | 5th | |
| Hispanic | 6th | |
| 9. SPONSORSHIP: | 10. EDUCATION: | |
| Self-Sponsored | Non-H.S. Grad | |
| Veterans (VA) | H.S. Grad or GED | |
| Disabled Vet | Some College | |
| Vet Dependents | | |
| B.I.A. | | |
| Okla Rehab | | |
| CETA (Job Corp, etc) | | |
| Out-of-state Rehab | | |
| Other: | 11. YOUR PROGRAM OF STUDY: | |
| ----- | ----- | |
| | (fill in program name) | |

INSTRUCTIONS:

Read each item carefully and CIRCLE the choice at the right which best fits your feeling about the statement. Wherever possible let your own experience determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM. If in doubt, CIRCLE the choice which seems most nearly to express your present feeling about the statement. WORK RAPIDLY and be sure to respond to each item.

	STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Workers must keep trying to improve their skills.	SA	A	D	SD
2. Fringe benefits are very important.	SA	A	D	SD
3. Loyalty to an employer is not very important.	SA	A	D	SD
4. Hard work rarely pays off.	SA	A	D	SD
5. Working for money alone is not good.	SA	A	D	SD
6. The pay is the most important part of a job.	SA	A	D	SD
7. The trouble with most jobs is that just when you get used to doing things they change them.	SA	A	D	SD
8. I do not want to give up anything because of a job.	SA	A	D	SD
9. Hard work is OK, but I doubt it's worth the bother.	SA	A	D	SD
10. I think there should be less emphasis on working hard.	SA	A	D	SD
11. It's Ok to get dirty if it's needed to get the job done.	SA	A	D	SD

	STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
12. You shouldn't quit a job just because you're bored.	SA	A	D	SD
13. Working overtime is not good.	SA	A	D	SD
14. Businesses are entitled to a profit.	SA	A	D	SD
15. My attitude should be of no concern to the boss.	SA	A	D	SD
16. Getting to work on time every day is important.	SA	A	D	SD
17. Working is the way to get the things that are important.	SA	A	D	SD
18. There shouldn't be a fuss if you're a little late to work now and then.	SA	A	D	SD
19. It's only right having to ask permission to leave when there are personal things to take care of.	SA	A	D	SD
20. It pays off if you work hard and are patient.	SA	A	D	SD
21. Employers really do want people to have good lives and be happy.	SA	A	D	SD
22. You earn that sick leave so take it even if you are not sick.	SA	A	D	SD
23. You owe your boss some loyalty for hiring you.	SA	A	D	SD
24. You don't owe the boss anything as long as you do the job.	SA	A	D	SD

APPENDIX D

CURRENT STUDENT PROFILE

Fall Trimester, 1981
Oklahoma State Tech

ENROLLMENT

Total 3,112

SEX

Male 2,345 (75.4%)
Female 767 (24.6%)

RESIDENTIAL STATUS

Living on Campus (52.63%)
Living off Campus (47.37%)

RACIAL DISTRIBUTION

White 2,315 (74.4%)
Indian 334 (10.7%)
Black 323 (10.4%)
Foreign 58 (1.9%)
Asian 66 (2.1%)
Hispanic 16 (0.5%)

GEOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

76 Oklahoma Counties
2,718 (87.3%)
33 Out-of-State
336 (10.8%)
13 Foreign Countries
58 (1.9%)

AGENCY SPONSORED (Total-1,069)
(34.4%)

VA 187 (6.0%)
Dis. Vet 62 (2.0%)
Vet Dep. 53 (1.7%)
BIA 210 (6.8%)
OK Rehab 360 (11.6%)
CETA 118 (3.8%)
(Job Corp., etc.)
Out-of-State
Rehab 79 (2.5%)

AGE RANGE

18 thru 25 2,395 (76.9%)
26 and over 717 (23.1%)

MALE

60.0%
15.4%

FEMALE

16.9%
7.7%

EDUCATION BACKGROUND

Non-high school graduate 149 (4.8%)
High school graduate or GED 1,215 (39.0%)
Some college 1,727 (55.5%)

MARRIED 574 (18.4%)
SINGLE 2,538 (81.6%)

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE CODING KEY

INSTRUCTIONS:

Read each item carefully and CIRCLE the choice at the right which best fits your feeling about the statement. Wherever possible let your own experience determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM. If in doubt, CIRCLE the choice which seems most nearly to express your present feeling about the statement. WORK RAPIDLY and be sure to respond to each item.

	STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1. Workers must keep trying to improve their skills.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
2. Fringe benefits are very important.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
3. Loyalty to an employer is not very important.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
4. Hard work rarely pays off.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
5. Working for money alone is not good.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
6. The pay is the most important part of a job.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
7. The trouble with most jobs is that just when you get used to doing things they change them.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
8. I do not want to give up anything because of a job.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
9. Hard work is OK, but I doubt it's worth the bother.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
10. I think there should be less emphasis on working hard.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
11. It's Ok to get dirty if it's needed to get the job done.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}

	STRONGLY AGREE	MILDLY AGREE	MILDLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
12. You shouldn't quit a job just because you're bored.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
13. Working overtime is not good.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
14. Businesses are entitled to a profit.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
15. My attitude should be of no concern to the boss.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
16. Getting to work on time every day is important.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
17. Working is the way to get the things that are important.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
18. There shouldn't be a fuss if you're a little late to work now and then.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
19. It's only right having to ask permission to leave when there are personal things to take care of.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
20. It pays off if you work hard and are patient.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
21. Employers really do want people to have good lives and be happy.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
22. You earn that sick leave so take it even if you are not sick.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}
23. You owe your boss some loyalty for hiring you.	SA{4}	A{3}	D{2}	SD{1}
24. You don't owe the boss anything as long as you do the job.	SA{1}	A{2}	D{3}	SD{4}

VITA

Carolyn Sue Tinnell

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Prairie Grove, Arkansas, May 1, 1942, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Cecil Hawley.

Education: Graduated from Siloam Springs High School, Siloam Springs, Arkansas, in May, 1960. Graduated with Bachelor of Science in Arts and Sciences degree in Sociology from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in May, 1981; completed requirements for Master of Science degree in Occupational and Adult Education at Oklahoma State University in May, 1982.

Professional Experience: General Education Instructor, Oklahoma State University School of Technical Training, Okmulgee, Oklahoma, 1981-Present; Oklahoma Military Department, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, 1964-1977; Oklahoma Air National Guard, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, 1975-1978; Ryder Truck Rentals, Inc., Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1962-1964.

Professional Organizations: Higher Education Alumni Council of Oklahoma; Oklahoma Technical Society; Oklahoma Sociology Association.