DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 105 272 CE 003 580

TITLE	NABTE [National Association for Business Teacher Education] Review.
INSTITUTION	National Association for Business Teacher Education, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	74
NOTE	101p.
AVAILABLE FROM	National Association for Business Teacher Education, Dulles International Airport, P. O. Box 17402, Washington, D. C. 20041 ($2.50)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$5.70 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	Accountability; *Business Education; *Business Education Teachers; *Career Education; *Conference Reports; Distributive Education; *Educational Improvement; Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; Formative Evaluation; Occupational Choice; Office Occupations Education; Performance Based Teacher Education; Post Secondary Education; Teacher Education; Vocational Development; Work Experience Programs

ABSTRACT

The special 1-year anniversary issue deals with problems and issues relating to career education, accountability, and changes and improvement in education. Articles in section 1 on career education focus on the following topics: the psychological and sociological factors in career decision theories; developmental perspectives and the issues and concepts in career education; discussed are the objectives and programs for career education on the elementary and junior high levels; objectives and goals for career education in office education; general business subjects; and distributive occupations programs. The four articles in section 2 discuss the future of educational technology; an analysis of a school-supervised work education program; the role of national professional associations in shaping education programs (NBEA); and the problem and methodology of teacher evaluation and teacher effectiveness. Section 3's NABTE (National Association for Business Teacher Education) convention reports discuss: the concept of accountability; clinical experiences in business teacher education; an evaluation of education programs in Virginia; a competency-based teacher education program; the strengthening of business education programs; and the preparation of teachers for post-secondary institutions. (JB)

NABTE Review

Section **CAREER EDUCATION**

Section **IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE**

Section **1973 NABTE CONVENTION REPORTS**

A Journal of the National Association for Business Teacher Education

A Journal of the
National Association for
Business Teacher Education

Published annually by the
National Association for
Business Teacher Education,
Washington, D. C

Printing arranged for and
other special aid given to NABTE
by South-Western Publishing Co.

NABTE Review

NABTE OFFICERS

NABTE Review

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The *NABTE Review* is designed to promote the strengthening of business education in colleges and universities, community colleges, and secondary schools through improved business teacher education at the collegiate level.

The *NABTE Review* is an annual publication and is published by the National Association for Business Teacher Education, Dulles International Airport, P.O. Box 17402, Washington, D. C. 20041.
Single copies, $2.50.

All correspondence regarding this issue should be sent to Lawrence W. Erickson, UCLA Graduate School of Education, 405 Hilgard Avenue, Los Angeles, CA 90024.

With this issue, the *NABTE Review* celebrates its first birthday. Like any one-year old, the first year has not been without its growing pains, frustrations, and problems. As was noted in the *Preview* to the first issue, the *NABTE Review* is "intended to meet the need for a scholarly journal for the business education profession, a journal that can deal effectively with issues and problems and serve as a forum for reporting significant research and its implications for curriculum modification and/or instructional improvement."

It is obvious to the editors of this issue, that we still have a way to go if we are to meet this generalized goal. Nevertheless, the reactions to the first issue were overwhelmingly favorable: only one dissonant note was raised by one of our members. This person said that the first issue had failed to deal with important issues and problems in business education. The editors of the first issue took some solace in a comment by Peter Drucker, "There is not one occupation, trade or profession in this country that is not misunderstood, neglected, underrated, unloved, and rejected."

As our readers will recognize, it is not possible to deal with all possible issues and problems, nor even with what some might term the most important issues and problems, in a single issue. In this second issue, we have attempted to highlight problems and issues relating to career education, accountability, and change and improvement in education—all of which, it is believed, are relevant concerns of business educators.

The concern for dealing with crucial problems and issues in the field is not so simple as it would appear at first glance. Problems and issues change as new knowledge emerges, and the sheer quantity of problems with which we are confronted creates a condition of overload. Some problems and issues are resolved without any effort on our part; with other

problems and issues in our field we have created a kind of overkill. We have concerned ourselves with them *ad nauseam*, and it is time to move on.

NABTE members are invited to help us make the *NABTE Review* a vital and worthwhile magazine in our field. You can do this by submitting articles and research papers for consideration by the editorial board. In this way, we can make the *NABTE Review* truly representative of our membership, enhance the professional reputations of our contributors, and perhaps, concern ourselves with the problems and issues that are crucial.

One problem in business education that seems to be a continuing one is the need to strengthen and improve our professional associations. We do not have now an organization comparable to the American Medical Association or the American Bar Association, which are concerned with persuading their memberships to live up to a public image rather than with the creation of a public image. NABTE, however, has taken steps in this direction: (1) It is publishing the *NABTE Review*, which has already gained recognition as a scholarly journal in our field; and, (2) NABTE President Z. S. Dickerson will soon appoint a National Task Force charged with the responsibility of helping to improve the professional aspects of business education.

What other items need our consideration? Only a few such items can be suggested here.

1. *National Business Education Study Committee.* One important function our National Business Education Association could perform would be to sponsor and underwrite the work of a National Business Education Study Committee whose function would be to identify issues and problems that warrant our attention. In this way, we could be doing the needed research and other activities that would help advance our profession. Such a Study Committee, too, could help us establish needed priorities.

2. *Improved Information and Learning Systems.* Because all business educators have to deal with increasing quantities of information, we need data banks and abstracting services that will identify content that is relevant and important to us. In our field, too, the concept of the "learning man" will need to replace that of the "educated man," for anyone who ceases learning will soon be uneducated and obsolete, if he is not already so.

3. *Education for All Age Groups.* In the future, the learning needs of all age groups will have to be considered and educational opportunities provided for them. Business education has a contribution to make here. Business education of the future cannot be confined to the four walls of the classroom. New forms and new ways for providing education are needed.

4. *Research and Resource Planning.* The *laissez-faire* system of knowledge production that has served us in the past may have to give way to a concern for priorities in research and in instructional programs. Because of the increasing costs of education, we shall have to plan for the wise and effective use of our resources.

5. *Educational Productivity.* New ways to provide for educational needs are required if we are to increase our educational productivity and reduce educational costs. All this will need to be done without doing violence to one of our most important democratic principles, that of deep concern for the individual.

In closing, the editors of this issue wish to express their thanks to the various authors of the papers presented in this issue, and their deep appreciation to the South-Western Publishing Company for the time, money, and energy they expended in helping us produce this second issue of the *NABTE Review*. Again, it is our hope that you will find this issue of value to you, and that you will contribute to the *NABTE Review* in some way in the future.

—Lawrence W. Erickson;
Robert A. Schultheis;
Dean R. Malsbary

SECTION ONE

CAREER EDUCATION

A major factor which I believe will dominate the field of business education in the decades to come is increased control of education, particularly secondary education for business, by federal and state departments of education. One immediate result of this increased control which is receiving enormous publicity is the career education "movement." The words "career education" are sweeping through educational systems throughout the nation with alacrity, much like a flat rock skipping over a lake, which may prove to be an accurate parallel. The term career education has permeated our literature, especially literature coming from state and federal education agencies. We are finding the term career education used in federal documents, state proposals, new secondary texts, and even elementary teacher lounges. Throughout this wealth of words, it is clear that career education means different things to different people.

To some, career education is simply a new word for vocational guidance. To others, career education is a new word for occupational education, which of course, was a new word for vocational education. In fact, educators are being hammered with the term career education at a time when they have become very weary of federal and state educational bureaucracies littering our literature with new words for old concepts or new words for empty concepts. Many educators have the persistent vision of a vast cellar located somewhere in Washington or a state capitol in which large numbers of green eyeshaded clerks pour over documents meticulously finding the words vocational education, striking them out, and substituting occupational education in their place. These same clerks a few years later are crossing out, in true Orwellian doublethink style, the words occupational education and substituting career education in their stead. All these changes, of course, are made with the utmost seriousness and with the smallest effect on the curriculums, students, and teachers involved in our schools. But, of course, that is only a vision.

Some educators are also annoyed when they perceive government officials peppering documents, conversations, and speeches with the term career education used in seemingly superficial ways. To these educators, such officials appear more interested in spending the tax dollars budgeted to them than in making substantive changes in school programs. Some officials appear to believe that accountability includes spending all the money allotted to them to avoid "losing" federal dollars, or completing "X" number of career education "projects," as proof of their productivity. They have indeed tarnished the image of the career education movement.

To some educators, career education is a term used much like a coupon to be traded in at your nearest federal or state education office for money. It is not a concept nor a philosophy. It is merely a device to feather one's bed.

To others, career education is a perverse strategy used by the Nixon administration to help return the people of the United States to the good old days. These educators perceive it as a means by which the education establishment can inculcate the old Protestant work ethic in an age when there are not enough jobs to go around.

To most educators, however, career education has become a rallying point, a central focus around which the entire curriculum, K-14, should be organized to

provide direction to both teachers and students alike. After all, the concept of career education—structuring much of education around the study and preparation for future careers—makes very good sense. And the basic fields of vocational guidance and vocational education underlying the implementation of the concept are adequately developed for the task.

However, the need for vocational guidance was recognized well before Sidney Marland, and the need for vocational information to become a part of elementary and secondary education programs has always been recognized by competent educators. In fact, many of the "new" efforts of schools, in terms of career education, are not much different from those we have seen in decades past: career days, vocational counselors, exploratory courses, field trips, "what I'd like to become" projects, visits from personnel directors, job interviews, and the like. So far, the effect of the career education movement has been to revive efforts and programs which have fallen to disrepair.

The effects of the career education movement, however, are likely to be felt by the educational establishment for many more years, at least as long as funding is provided for promoting career education. Given a change of the guard at the federal level, there is likely to be a change in the liturgy, and a new set of words will be handed down to the green eyeshaded men in the cellars. Then, too, the educational establishment will feel the need for a new topic at cocktail parties. The residue of the era with which classroom teachers must deal will most likely be a few courses offered to elementary teachers about teaching careers in elementary school, a few units of instruction scattered about the elementary grades on careers, an occupational orientation course offered in the junior high school, a variety of units on careers offered in senior high schools, more concern from guidance counselors and teachers about providing career information, and more career education information included in textbooks used at all levels of education for business.

The effects of the career education movement will be much stronger and longer lasting than most other educational "innovations" because most teachers, administrators, parents, and students have believed in the concept for some time, because the concept makes good pedagogical and economic sense, and because we as classroom teachers do not fear the concept.

The articles in this section of the *Review* are written by educators who possess a sincere belief in the plain good sense of career education and have a broad and deep understanding of the theory, history, and development behind the two magic words. The articles are arranged to move the reader from basic theories, issues, and concepts to the application of career education principles to the school curriculum.

—Robert A. Schultheis

CAREER DECISION THEORIES

Edwin L. Herr

Chairman, Department of Counselor Education and University Director of Vocational-Technical Education
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

"Career" and "decision" are terms which have appeared in the literature of education and of counseling often in the past decade. In one sense, consciousness of these terms reflects America's status as a developed or a post-industrial society: a society in which individuals have such a range of alternatives available that they can deliberately plan not only their immediate goal but also their intermediate and distant goals. This in no way implies that their attainment of such goals will be linear or smooth or successful. Rather, it suggests that in the current American society, most individuals are sufficiently beyond the tenuousness of a physical survival level that they need not seek access to work in a random or sporadic way, only being reactive to whatever is available at the moment. Theoretically, at least, they have the personal power to determine how much of themselves or their resources they want to commit to work, and they express this in their approach to decision-making.

It is obvious that a society which "permits" its citizens to choose freely relative to other societies reinforces a sense of individual competency to define the future. This does not suggest a society without any constraints upon individual decision-making. Some of these will be discussed later. Instead, it suggests a society which, in a relative sense, does not predetermine choices on the basis of state-defined manpower requirements. To the degree that such a condition obtains, the responsibility for what one ultimately becomes is an individual matter and, as such, places a psychological burden on each person.

Career decision theories are essentially the speculative and research approaches which focus upon describing how persons come to choose what they do and what factors shape individual approaches to choice. These approaches are typically subsumed under the term "career development." The literature of career development essentially describes the conditions—psychological, sociological, developmental—which antedate or attend decision-making processes. Much of this literature has been formulated since the early 1950's as a result both of pertinent longitudinal studies and of an expanded multidisciplinary concern with choice behavior.

The approaches which describe career development or some aspect of it have been variously classified. Crites (1969) has discussed the nonpsychological theories (e.g., accident, economic, cultural and sociological) and the psychological theories (e.g., trait-and-factor, psychodynamic, developmental and decision). Osipow (1968) has described them as trait-factor approaches, sociology and career choice, self-concept and vocational choice and personality theories. More recently, Herr and Cramer (1972) have classified them as trait-and-factor, or actuarial approaches, decision theory, sociological emphases, psychological emphases, and developmental emphases. None of these classifications is more right than another but together they do highlight the factors or emphases which distinguish one theory or research effort from another and the amount of precision one can use for a particular purpose. For purposes of this discussion rather than attempt to treat all possible career decision theories, the discussion will be confined to developmental, psychological, and sociological and decision perspectives.

Developmental Perspectives

A major point of emphasis in current views of career development is that vocational behavior is a continuing and fluid process of growth and learning. Thus, decision-making is a longitudinally shaped expression of personality. It is a nonrandom and purposeful act by which the individual constantly defines himself and his current view of life either consciously or preconsciously. Decision-making, then, is seen as a process through which one implements personal images of capabilities, values, interests and goals. In such a view, considerable importance is attached to the individual's self-concept(s), his developmental experiences, and his interaction with the situational circumstances in which he finds himself—e.g., family, values, school climate, community reward systems.

The knowledge bases or theoretical streams which underlie developmental perspectives on career decision-making have many roots. There are psychoanalytic, psychodyamic, phenomenological, need-reductive emphases scattered throughout. In one way or another, the various positions suggest that the individual directs his career development on the bases of some self-classification system. As a result of it, he views himself as compatible with certain occupational roles or he "searches" for careers which permit him satisfaction for his needs and outlets for his perceived capabilities, interests, etc. His gravitation toward specific careers may be quite unconscious as suggested in those approaches which have a large component of the psychoanalytic or Freudian persuasion. Other approaches suggest that this gravitation toward specific goals may be a relatively rational, cognitive and conscious process by which one learns through experience and maturation what kind of person he is, that of which he is capable, what he values, how he

needs to find satisfaction, and the kinds of outlets which will be compatible with this picture he carries of himself. Such a position emphasizes the importance of progressive synthesis in role clarification and choice options.

One can blanket under such a broad definition of the developmental perspective as has been drawn here many different theorists. A sampling of some of the prominent ones and a glimpse of their emphases may be useful.

Anne Roe (1956), for example, has applied Maslow's (1954) theory of prepotent needs to a field and level classification of occupations. She suggests that the level of work which one seeks or in which one is found is related to the degree to which basic levels of needs are gratified and the degree to which one is freed from using work as a hunt for substitute gratifications for unmet needs at rather primitive levels. She has speculated about the relationship between early home environments, particularly childrearing practices (rejecting, overprotecting, democratic), personality manifestations, and adult occupational choices in relation to or away from people.

More strongly embedded in the classic psychoanalytic tradition than Roe is the so-called Michigan group comprised of Bordin, Nachman and Segal (1963). They have proposed a series of dimensions traceable to infantile physiological functions by which the gratifications available in different types of work can be classified. Through occupational analyses, studies were made to identify what needs might be gratified through what modes of expression in different work contexts, e.g., plumbers vis-a-vis accountants vis-a-vis professors. In this approach there is an attempt to relate the personality characteristics of persons defined in such terms as identification, type of defense mechanism, sublimation, and the more specific residuals of infantile fixation, e.g., oral aggression, anal, etc., to occupational differences and to the focus of vocational choice.

Another position which is complementary in some respects to the work of Roe and Bordin, Nachman and Segal is that of John Holland (1966). Here it is assumed that from the interaction of heredity and environment, the individual develops a hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods for dealing with necessary social and environmental tasks; this is his behavioral style. In addition, it is assumed that the most typical way in which an individual responds to his environment is his modal personal orientation which can be described in terms of one or more of six categories: realistic, intellectual (investigative), social, conventional, enterprising, and artistic. Further, different occupational groups can be described using the same typologies as can individuals because they are populated by persons sharing similar modal personal orientations. In essence, then, the individual's pattern of personal orientations causes him to search for occupations or other settings which can satisfy his hierarchy of characteristics. Holland's theory emphasizes that individual behavior is a function of the interaction between one's personality and environment and that choice behavior is an expression of personality. Changing career patterns, occupational or educational maladjustments, and other similar dynamics would be explained by suggesting that because of the interaction or compatibility of person and work environment, "persons with particular patterns achieve in some environments but not in others."

While each of the positions cited so far speak to individual development of career decision-making, they do not emphasize developmental sequencing nor are they as comprehensive as is the work of Ginzberg *et al.*, Super and his colleagues, or Tiedeman and O'Hara. Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma (1951) were early leaders in speculating about career development as a process which finds its genesis in the early life of the child and develops over time. They identified four sets of factors, the interplay of which influences vocational choice; individual values, emotional factors, the amount and kind of education and the impact of reality through environmental pressures. They gave impetus to a view of the choice process as delimited by life stages in which certain tasks are faced by preadolescents and adolescents. Within the interaction that occurs as these tasks are confronted, compromises between wishes and possibilities continue to refine the choice field as the career development process unfolds.

Closely related conceptually to some of the early work of Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) and partially the stimulus for the work of Tiedeman and O'Hara which follows, is the continuing longitudinal research of Donald Super and his associates (Super, 1957; Super, Starishevsky, Marlin and Jordaan, 1963). Super has extrapolated from theory generated in the 1930's by Charlotte Buehler and, more recently, by Ginzberg to focus developmental principles on the staging and the determinism of career patterns. Using the concept of stages labeled fantasy, tentative, and realistic (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951), he speaks of the individual's movement from gross and unrealistic to more specific and increasingly realistic choice-making within life periods in a sequence labeled growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. Each of these is composed of subaspects and metadimensions which are descriptive of behaviors expected in the period. He gives prominence to the effects of individual mastery or inability to master increasingly complex vocational developmental tasks appropriate to different life periods. The key construct which weaves throughout his research and theory is the importance of the development and implementation of the self-concept. The assumption is that the individual chooses occupations the characteristics of which will allow him to function in a way that is consistent with his self-picture. Super speaks to the chronological evolution of the self-concept as being composed of the following phases: formation, translation, and implementation. Specific description of

them is as follows

1. The formation process includes exploration of the self and of the environment, the differentiation of the self from others, identification with others who can serve as models and the playing of these selected roles with more or less conscious evaluation of the result (reality-testing).
2. The translation of self-concepts into occupational terms may take place through identification with an adult role model ('I am like him' or 'I want to be like him'), experience in a role in which one has been cast, or learning that some of one's attributes should make one fit well into a certain occupation.
3. The implementation process involves action as in obtaining the specialized education or training needed for the preferred occupation or finding employment in it (Super, 1969)

The research base supporting the significance of the self-concept in career development is expanding rapidly. There is not an opportunity here to review that literature but it makes clear that Super's speculations are not without substantive foundation.

Before leaving developmental perspectives, it is useful to recognize the work of Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963). These theorists view career development as part of a continuing process of ego identity differentiation. They suggest that how a person's vocational identity evolves is dependent upon his early experiences with the family unit, the psychosocial crises encountered at various developmental stages, the congruence between society's meaning system and that of the individual as well as the emotional characteristics of each. They, too, view career development as a sequence of developmental life stages or events. For example, in their terms the aspect of anticipation of or preoccupation with career goals includes substages of exploration, crystallization, choice and clarification. Further, in the aspect of implementation or adjustment, there are subsumed such steps as social induction, reformation, and integration. Finally, Tiedeman and O'Hara suggest that individual personality is shaped by career choices and to some degree by the individual's conformance to the norms and values of those persons already established within vocational settings. Thus, there is a stress upon the intimacy of self-concept and career concept as they develop gradually through many small decisions.

On balance, it is accurate to suggest that developmental perspectives on career decision-making are the most comprehensive of the current viewpoints (Herr, 1972). Because of the spatial limitations here the following major points will be used to summarize the position

1. There is an emphasis on the interdependence of personality and of career development
2. Occupational choice is a developmental process; it is not a single decision but a series of decisions made over an extended period of years. Each decision has a relationship to those which precede or follow it
3. The choice process can be defined in terms of life stages which place different demands upon the individual (e.g., growth, exploration establishment, maintenance, decline (Super, 1957). The degree to which an individual is successful with an earlier set of developmental tasks is predictive of his ability to cope with later and more complex tasks
4. The exploratory process which occurs first in early and middle adolescence and then recycles throughout life is composed of fantasy, tentative and realistic components
5. The primary construct in career development is the formulation and implementation of the self-concept which is a unique function of the individual's personal history. The roots of the self-concept are in early childhood and continue to modify throughout one's life. The individual's career is descriptive of his attempt to implement the self-concept through personal, occupational, and educational choice.
6. Factors internal and external to the individual influence the choices made. These factors continue to narrow the options the individual will consider. Thus, career development describes a process of convergence, synthesis, and increasing specificity.
7. One can speak of vocational maturity as an evolving concept throughout life.
8. Individual personality is shaped by career choices and to some degree by the individual's conformance to the norms and values of those persons already established within educational or vocational settings.
9. Girls and young women have careers just as do boys and young men.
   processing exist in different persons (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma, 1951; Super, 1957; Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, and Jordaan, 1963; Tiedeman and O'Hara, 1963; Gribbons and Lohnes, 1968)
10. Different patterns of choice behavior or career processing exist in different persons (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma, 1951; Super 1957; Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, and Jordaan, 1963; Tiedeman and O'Hara, 1963; Gribbons and Lohnes, 1968).

Psychological Determinants and the Social Milieu

Implicit in the developmental perspectives is the notion that when one attempts to understand decision-making styles, one needs to use two reference points: psychological determinants and the social context. Psychological determinants can be conceived in terms of different individual traits—e.g., aptitudes, interests, values, status of commitment, energy level—which the individual, if he understands or is aware of, can order in priority and attempt to exploit in decision-making. In trait and factor approaches to decision-making, for example, requirements are identified in different environmental options for "quantities" or types of psychological determinants. The assumption in this view is that if one can identify what traits and the "quantity" of each of these an individual possesses as well as what is required by different types of environmental options—social, educational, occupational—a matching process can be implemented by which degrees of fit can be established between the individual and those choice alternatives he is considering. Such a process of fitting man and choice alternative represents the essence of Parsons' (1909) early conception of decision-making and has provided considerable impetus to psychometrics and to

various counseling approaches. An inherent limitation in using psychological determinants as the major explanation for choice-behavior is an assumption that either personal traits or environmental requirements are constants, unchanging, immutable. In other words, one may conclude that an assessment of these factors at a specific point in the individual's life is predictive of all future observations; however, such a position underestimates the dynamic quality of both individual and environmental characteristics.

Pursuing the latter point further, it is also possible to suggest that emphasizing psychological determinants as the major variables in decision-making frequently underestimates the degree to which such determinants are learned or the degree to which they are latent unless triggered through dimensions of the social context. For example, aptitudes, abilities, achievements are psychological traits by which individuals can be described and compared. They can also be used to describe the requirements of different educational, occupational, or career options. However, it is rather generally accepted in theory that such psychological traits are not simply fixed nor intrinsic characteristics of the individual. Rather such psychological determinants represent a continuum of the degree to which each is influenced by interactions with one's environment. Helmstadter, for example, in support of such a continuum states that: "Thus, aptitude tests can be thought of as those which measure functions that improve little with practice; ability tests as those which show some relationship to general environmental enrichment; and achievement tests as those designed specifically to measure the degree of accomplishment in some particular educational or training experience" (Helmstadter, 1964, p. 11).

One could make the same analysis of effects of environment on such other psychological determinants as needs (except for the physiological), interests, and values. While each of these is a way of describing the motivational direction in which a given individual is likely to apply his effort or a frame of reference by which he evaluates the efficacy for him of different choice possibilities, these psychological determinants do not arise in isolation from the social contexts which an individual occupies.

Sociological Perspectives

In the sense that psychological determinants are part of one's career development and of individual differences in such development, this process is seen increasingly as modifiable. In other words, career development is not seen as unfolding with predestined focus from some chromosomal or genetic mechanism but is primarily a transactional or learned process, whether the specific results or character of it are positive or negative.

Obviously, if one is to understand the function of any given individual's psychological characteristics, it is important to consider the characteristics of the social contexts to which he has been exposed. This is the heart of the sociological perspectives on decision-making. On balance, it may mean in any individual case understanding the attitudes and behaviors which one's family, or schools, or home community have rewarded or held up to him as goals. Included here are the elements of one's time orientations as related to goal directed behavior: for example, the importance with which one views the past and preserving its traditions, or the present and its potential for immediate gratification, or the future as that which one can exploit for personal benefit if one can identify and orient one's behavior to its probable trends.

The social context which influences one's self images and those of the alternatives available to him is not confined to home, school, and community, however. These perspectives are also filtered by one's peer group and by the mass media. Whether the translations which result are objective approximations of reality for a given individual is hard to know but that is less important than the fact that the individual accepts them as reality and uses them to guide his behavior.

Embedded in sociological perspectives on decision-making is concern that the social structure of which one is a part has a great deal to do with the viability of the choices which are made. Nowhere is this more vivid than when viewed through the lenses focused on what has been identified as the culture of poverty. The conditions associated with such circumstances produces a distinctive milieu that conditions the social responses, the educational attainment, the vocational ambition, and the general level of intellectual competence of the overwhelming majority of those raised within its purview. While such a population has variability within it, it is nevertheless important to emphasize the limitations placed upon career development by restrictive social class horizons. Much floundering in decision-making is a result of limited avenues of choice or limitations upon the knowledge of opportunities available or how to gain access to them. The individual in such a situation may blunder in or find himself in jobs without any purposeful selection on his part because the only guideline for action that he has is immediate gratification. Given these conditions, it is unlikely that one will prepare in the present for the future if he believes that what happens is purely chance, that life is a big crap game. In sum, the narrowness or the breadth of the individual's cultural or social class horizons have much to do with the choices one is likely to know about, consider, or implement.

In a more global sociological sense, the American society has come to be viewed in the last two decades in a variety of ways which have important implications for decision-making. Riesman's *The Lonely Crowd* (1950), Whyte's conception of *The Organization Man* (1956), Kimball and McClellan's *Education and the New America* (1962), among many other works, addressed the effects upon individual commitment and a sense of self which accompanied the rise of institutional superstructures, corporate and bureau-

cratic organization, technology, urbanism, and the inevitability of change.

More recently, such works as Reich's *The Greening of America* (1970), Drucker's *The Age of Discontinuity* (1969) and Toffler's *Future Shock* (1970) have expanded these earlier concerns for the individual in mass and rapidly changing social contexts.

They collectively examine the individual quests for quality in life, work which is nonalienating, and opportunities for dedication and excellence. In some contradiction to Reich's rather gloomy perspectives on contemporary American society, Drucker maintains that its current society of organizations "forces the individual to ask of himself: 'Who am I?' 'What do I want to be?' 'What do I want to put into life and what do I want to get out of it?'" (Drucker, 1969, p. 248). Toffler partially extends Drucker's point as he considers the transient and impermanent features of the industrialized society which escalates the pace of change and the lack of reference points to which individuals must adapt. He contends that embedded in "future shock" is a phenomenon called "overchoice." In his terms:

> Ironically, the people of the future may suffer not from an absence of choice, but from a paralyzing surfeit of it. They may turn out to be victims of that peculiarly super-industrial dilemma—overchoice (Toffler, 1970, p. 264).

These perspectives on the social context tend to suggest that (1) whatever the future holds for each individual will largely reside in the way he approaches decision-making and the choices he makes; and (2) effective decision-making has to do with understanding oneself and, equally important, understanding the dynamics of society and its emerging future trends.

Decision Theory

The foregoing clearly indicates that regardless of the theoretical nuance one embraces, career decision-making is both complex and individualistic. Indeed, the magnitude of the information or the factors which need to be considered may be so overwhelming that the individual prematurely closes off his options. He chooses without adequate consideration to the process or the implications of the choice and then supports his choice by rationalization or by what Festinger (1957) has labeled as cognitive dissonance. Although the chooser knows there are other options which he might consider and profit more from selecting, it is comforting to make a selection and suppress the costs of its unrealism by a variety of self-deceptive devices.

The phenomenon called cognitive dissonance is but one example of the view that decision-making is frequently psychologically rather than logically based (Hansen, 1964-65). To the degree that this is true in each individual case, it means that decision-making is predicated on subjective grounds, on what the individual's perceptions of events and alternatives are, rather than on what some form of "objective" data or observer might contend is reality. Even so, however, it has become an accepted principle that the kind of information one has and the way he uses it will affect decision outcomes.

Bross (1953) contends that information is the required "fuel" for the decision-maker. He suggests that the process of deciding requires a "predictive system" (determining possible alternative actions, outcomes and probabilities), a "value system" (determining the desirability associated with outcomes) and a "decision criterion" (to integrate and select an appropriate action). Clarke, Gelatt, and Levine (1965) contend that the two requirements of "good" decision-making are "adequate information" and an effective strategy for analyzing, organizing, and synthesizing that information in order to arrive at a choice. They further assert that operationalizing these two requirements means that the individual needs adequate information concerning (1) possible alternative actions, (2) possible outcomes of the various actions, (3) the relationships between actions and outcomes, and (4) his relative preference for the various outcomes.

Katz (1966) has recommended, in view of formal decision theory applied to career decision-making, that an index of investment be developed as a way of summarizing what an individual risks or loses in preparing for or selecting different career alternatives. The assumption is that the person can be helped to determine the odds of various events occurring in each of the alternatives under deliberation. But as Katz (1963) points out, choosing on the bases of the "odds,"—e.g., chances of success or failure, more or less prestige, income, security—must place one's deliberations in the realm of personal values. The force of this position is captured in Katz's observations that:

> Awareness of values can start with the first consideration of actuarial data. In analyzing 'chances of success' in various educational or vocational alternatives, the student can quickly be helped to sense that the same 'odds' may have different meanings for different individuals or for the same individual under different circumstances. He can recognize that merely knowing the odds is sufficient for decision-making. He must also assess the importance—to himself—of success in each option and the seriousness of failure. The odds are based on data for groups; but this crucial assessment is unique for each individual (Katz, 1963, p. 17).

Thus, decision-making viewed through such a prism returns full circle to the original premises discussed; that current theoretical perceptions are that decision-making involves translations of how one has come to view himself and his attempt at self-definition implemented within an evolving occupational possibility structure.

Implications

Some of the implications which flow from career decision theories are as follows:

1. Measurement and interpretation of psychological aspects of the individual is increasingly being embedded in a more comprehensive concern with the totality of

personality and the self-concept

2. The concepts that man is basically an economic animal and that work is what one does simply to earn a livelihood are being modified to reflect the potential of work as a means of meeting needs for social interaction, dignity, identification and other forms of psychological gratification.
3. There is increasing recognition of the importance of value systems, both individual and cultural, in shaping career development.
4. There is a growing consensus that vocational, educational, and personal maturation is comprised of a complex of learning processes; that choice occurs not as a point in time but in relation to antecedent experiences and future alternatives, and that decision-making is continuous, tentative, and often more psychological than logical.
5. Because of the importance to adult behavior of early childhood experiences in the family, the school, the community, intervention to facilitate positive career development needs to begin during the first decade of life.
6. In order to progress developmentally, certain learning tasks, frequently culturally defined, are important at each stage of development.
7. Career information to be effective needs to include not only objective factors such as earning possibilities, training requirements, and numbers of positions available, but also the social and psychological aspects of careers as well. If we wish to provide informational input to the decision process of the individual, we must provide the contexts, actual or simulated—e.g., gaming, field trips, curriculum, work-study, role playing, computer mediated information retrieval—by which the individual can project himself into possible career roles and act them out or test them for himself.

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ISSUES AND CONCEPTS IN CAREER EDUCATION

Kenneth B. Hoyt

Professor of Education
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Introduction

The career education movement is currently in a precarious position. Its continuation as the number one priority of the United States Office of Education carries a hollow ring to many who observe the lack of USOE funds required for implementing the concept. While no major educational association has voiced formal objections to career education, an amazing number are still silent on the subject. The longer such silence continues, the more ominous it sounds. It is hard to win a fight when one cannot find his opponent.

The immediate operational problem facing career education is that of trying to make major changes in American education without the infusion of massive amounts of new federal monies. This is a new and unique challenge for those educators who have come on the scene since 1958. Many appear to be still clinging to the notion that major educational changes occur only when massive federal aid to education becomes available. The probability of securing such massive funding appears very slight indeed at the present time. Reality would seem to dictate that, if the career education movement is to survive, it must plan to do so on its own merits.

In spite of these factors, career education is far from dead. Expressions of interest in the topic continue to be heard from all parts of the country. During the current school year, we have seen national conferences on such diverse topics as "Career Education And The Exceptional Child," "The U.S. Chamber of Commerce Views Career Education," "Career Education And Minorities," "Career Education And The Elementary School Teacher," "Career Education: Implications For Teacher Education," and "Career Education For Gifted And Talented Students." Enthusiastic support has been far more prevalent than negative criticism at almost all of these national conferences.

If a new educational concept is to bring about major change in American education without the infusion of massive federal funding, it must be a very powerful and a very timely concept. Career education certainly qualifies as such a concept. Our task here is to examine current concepts and issues involved in career education. The basic concepts are becoming increasingly clear and leaders in career education generally agree on these concepts. Thus, this presentation will begin with a description of such concepts. Following this, major attention will be directed toward current issues facing the career education movement.

BASIC CONCEPTS OF CAREER EDUCATION

Definition of Career Education

Nineteen state departments of education had adopted formal definitions of career education prior to December, 1972. In addition, most of the self-appointed "leaders" in the movement had formulated their own unique definition by this time. Only the United States Office of Education, among those who have spearheaded this concept, has still refused to offer a concise definition of the term. Most of the basic concepts of career education can be seen in most of the definitions that now exist. It does not, therefore, seem prudent here to list a variety of definitions. Instead, I want to present my definition and utilize it as a basis for discussing the concepts.

In the book *Career Education: What It Is And How To Do It*, I have defined career education as follows:

> "Career Education represents the total effort of public education and the community to help all individuals become familiar with the values of a work-oriented society, to integrate such values into their personal value systems, and to implement those values into their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual."

From this definition, it is relatively simple to extract those concepts of career education that now seem to have attained strong, if not universal, consensus. Those concepts contained in that definition on which consensus has not yet been attained are not included in the discussion that follows.

Basic Concepts

1. Career education represents an *effort*, not merely an attitude or a point of view. As such, it will require time, money, and commitment.

2. Career education demands the involvement of the community if it is to be effective. It is not something that school systems can be expected to do by themselves. Unless the community is involved, career education cannot work.

3. Career education views "public education" as education available to the public and from which the public can choose. As such, it includes but is not limited to our K-12 public school system. In addition to the public schools, it includes parochial schools, all of higher education, and all forms of post-high

school occupational education in both public and private educational institutions.

4. Career education is for all individuals—for the very young pre-school child and for the older, retired worker—for both boys and girls—for those who go to college and those who do not—for those from the most economically affluent and most economically deprived backgrounds—for the intellectually gifted and the intellectually handicapped individual. It is truly for all persons.

5. Career education recognizes the multiplicity of kinds of work values that necessarily exist in today's post-industrial occupational society and seeks to impose no single, narrow, set of work values on any individual.

6. Career education's goals represent only part of the total set of goals for American education. Thus, career education seeks to emphasize its goals in ways that neither demean nor detract from other worthy goals of education. The term "career education" is intended to represent only part of education and is in no way intended to become synonomous with the word "education" itself.

7. Career education represents an attempt to integrate several existing parts of education with each other and with community elements into a comprehensive action program. Thus, it is properly viewed as much more than a simple extension of such current parts of education as vocational education programs or career development programs.

8. Career education focuses its emphasis on work and especially on the increasingly close relationships existing between education and work in our present post-industrial society.

While great variation continues to exist in ways through which these concepts are translated into action programs, these eight concepts seem to have attained sufficient acceptance so as to be included here.

CURRENT ISSUES IN CAREER EDUCATION

An issue can be defined as a concept about which wide areas of disagreement exist. Rather than representing general consensus, as with the concepts presented above, issues represent concepts about which a clear lack of consensus is present. In a new and emerging movement such as career education, it is both healthy and inevitable that many current issues should exist. Of these, only a few have been selected for discussion here.

Issue 1: What Are The Goals of Career Education?

The single most crucial issue facing the career education movement is one of specifying, in terms that are susceptible to clear evaluation and to accountability, exactly what it proposes to accomplish. I have discussed this issue extensively in a manuscript recently submitted for publication in the 1973 *Yearbook* of the American Vocational Association. Here, the issue can only be briefly outlined.

One set of career education advocates seem to picture the goals of career education as being primarily concerned with making school make more sense to students by relating what they are being asked to learn in school to the occupational society. They picture career education efforts as powerful sources of educational motivation and propose such criteria as increases in pupil achievement, satisfaction with schooling, and improved attendance rates, along with decreases in behavioral and discipline problems, as appropriate for use in evaluating the career education effort.

A second set of career education advocates have emphasized job placement as the ultimate goal of career education. They contend that, whenever a student leaves the educational system, he should be prepared for and able to find paid employment if he chooses to do so. Evaluative criteria such as level of occupational skill, proportion of school leavers finding paid employment, proportion placed in directly related jobs, and proportion advancing on the job are highly valued by those holding this point of view.

A third set of career education advocates have pictured the goals of career education as ones of making work possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual. To such individuals, the word "work" is taken to mean efforts aimed at producing benefits for one's fellow human beings and/or for oneself. Thus, it includes the domain of unpaid, as well as paid work, that one might choose to do. For evaluative criteria, such individuals assign equal weight to the three words "possible," "meaningful," and "satisfying." Thus, in addition to discovering the proportion of former students who are working, they would also evaluate the personal meaning and meaningfulness and individual's work holds for him and conditions in the work place itself leading to increased worker satisfaction and decreased worker alienation.

Many career education advocates, like myself, would welcome and encourage use of all evaluative criteria associated with each of these possible sets of goals. The issue, for such persons, resides in deciding which of the evaluative criteria are more important than the others. This, of course, relates to an even more basic issue: namely, from where does the need for career education come? On what basis is the case for career education to be made? This issue is far from resolved at the present time.

Issue 2: Who Will Pay For Career Education?

Dr. Garth Mangum, a noted economist at the University of Utah, is fond of stating that a basic law of economics can be stated as follows: "*There ain't no free lunch.*" Any action program (i.e., a program that involves more than good intentions) is going to require time, effort, and equipment, each of which will cost money. The likelihood of passing a National Career Education Act in the United States Congress

that could finally become law appears slim at the present time. I know very few career education leaders who would disagree with that statement. If this be true, then all concerned with career education must face the hard question of who is to pay for it. Sufficient variety in answers to this question exist so as to make the question a very important current issue for career education.

To date, the operational answer of the United States Office of Education, so far as allocation of dollar resources is concerned, seems to be that vocational educational funds should pay at least half the costs of career education being underwritten by USOE. The practical reasoning involved here seems to be twofold in nature. In part, it simply recognizes that vocational education appears to have more immediate benefits to be realized from career education than other parts of American education. In part, it appears to be simply a matter of recognizing that, under provisions of the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963, it is relatively easy to utilize vocational education funds for career education.

There are many, including many who do not work in vocational education, that object to using federal dollars earmarked for vocational education in any greater proportion for career education than is represented in the proportion of other federal education dollars expended for this purpose. Such persons would, for example, consider it fully as appropriate to utilize funds from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Education Professions and Development Act, and from the Higher Education Act as from the Vocational Education Act. They would argue that it is self-defeating to the career education concept itself if we continue to depend on the use of vocational education funds to pay a very large share of the cost of career education. That is, they would argue that to weaken vocational education through diverting part of its funds is to weaken the entire career education movement.

Some persons are urging that large amounts of money which have in the past been spent for federal manpower programs—including MDTA, NYC, and Job Corps—be diverted to support comprehensive career education programs in communities throughout the nation. Such persons reason that, in the long run, we must act to cut off the flow of persons into the growing pool of the out-of-school, out-of-skill, out-of-work, and out-of-luck youth and adults whom such manpower programs have been designed to serve. They argue that, with the current manpower approaches, more enter that pool each year than the manpower programs can drain off. They contend that the only feasible long-run approach that will reduce the number of persons entering the ranks of the unskilled and unemployed is a comprehensive career education effort, beginning in the pre-school years and continuing through all of adult education. Few have suggested total abandonment of manpower programs, but a redirection of substantial manpower funds into a career education effort has certainly found a considerable degree of support.

Others feel that additional monies required to mount and implement career education programs should come primarily from state and local funds. They argue that we have reached a point where we should cease depending on more and more federal tax dollars for the support of local educational programs. They would further argue that education represents only one of a great many local community needs and that the local community should be in the best position to decide which of their needs requires dollar priorities at a particular point in time. They would argue that, if career education is as viable and valuable a concept as its proponents claim it to be, it will be recognized as such by state and local government officials responsible for allocating funds available to them. The concept of revenue sharing appeals greatly to such persons.

Finally, there are some who contend that no additional funds of any kind should be required to support a career education effort. Such persons claim that, with the great increases in federal, state, and local funds for education, which have occurred over the last thirty years, enough of our national dollar resources are now being spent on education. Rather than add still more educational dollars, they would ask educators to examine carefully how their current dollars are being spent, to eliminate those activities that appear to be unfruitful, and to use funds that were previously spent for such activities for career education. While this view, understandably enough, does not seem to have great appeal for many of today's professional educators, it appears to have rather great appeal for many members of the general public, including many legislators.

Like most other bona fide issues, there is a good deal of logic on the side of proponents of each view. The issue itself will probably be resolved through compromises that will be worked out at the local, state, and federal levels. It is crucial that this issue be neither ignored nor debated endlessly for, were this to happen, career education would die while waiting for someone to pay for it.

Issue 3: Who Will Control Career Education?

In one sense, it can be said that career education will be controlled by those who pay for it. Rather than argue with such a point of view, I would like here to point to other facets of possible control that combine to create a current serious issue for the career education movement.

Many educators have automatically assumed that clear control of career education programs will be in their hands. If career education is to be part of education, then, as with all other parts of education, it must be controlled operationally by educators. The commonality of this reasoning is clearly evident in the large numbers of policy statements defining and

supporting career education that have been passed in recent months by local and state boards of education.

An increasing number of persons, however, are pointing out that, while career education is part of the school system, it is also found, in part, in the community outside of the school. Some such persons would argue that both parents and the business-labor-industry community must cooperate actively in the total program of career education. Since their cooperation and involvement is essential to the success of the total career education effort, it could be argued that they should share, with school officials, responsibility for determining career education policies and priorities. The notion of seeking cooperation in educational enterprises from members of the broader community is certainty neither new nor strange to educators. The active involvement of the broader community as *partners* in career education, however, is quite another matter. Those arguing for a partnership, rather than simply a cooperative relationship, contend that career education will involve sizable adaptations by the business-labor-industry community and that, if such adaptations are to be accomplished in a meaningful and productive manner, the expertise of business, labor, and industry will be fully as much needed in career education policy decisions as will the expertise of professional educators.

This is an issue that, in most communities, has not yet been fully comprehended nor squarely faced. It is obvious that this issue cannot be ignored much longer if those career education concepts on which consensus has already been reached are to be converted into effective programs of action.

Issue 4: Who Will Be Involved In Career Education Programs?

Most career education advocates picture career education as involving the efforts of all classroom teachers at all levels of education from kindergarten through graduate school. Additionally, most also picture career education as a concept that is much more than an extension of any single professional specialty that has previously existed in American education. Disparities between these conceptual views and operational practices in education have created a series of issues between the advocates of career education and the general community of professional educators who have either not been exposed to or who remain unconvinced of the worth of the concept.

This issue is clearly seen in results to initiate career education programs on the K-12 levels in public schools. We find elementary teachers generally enthusiastic and eager to participate and junior high teachers only slightly less enthusiastic and supportive. However, there are few senior high schools in which the concept that calls for *all* classroom teachers to emphasize the career implications of their subject matter is being effectively implemented. Major resistance is evident on the part of many so-called "academic" teachers who seem to feel that their primary mission is to ready students for college attendance. I have a subjective, and unproven, hunch that resistance on the part of "academic" teachers is most evident in those senior high schools with the strongest vocational education offerings. The problem is too important not to be mentioned here, but too complex to discuss in detail.

We find the issue arising again when school systems decide to appoint a "director" or "coordinator" of career education. Obviously, the career education concept calls for such a person to work throughout the entire school system, K-12, in all schools with all teachers. Relatively few appointments appear to have been made on this basis to date. Instead, we find, in many communities, the "coordinator" of career education reporting directly to either the Assistant Superintendent for Vocational Education or the Director of Pupil Personnel Services. In the long run, neither of these arrangements can be expected to work well. The problem is complicated still further when the career education specialist has come from either vocational education or guidance with no additional preparation for his new role in career education.

The issue is abundantly clear in teacher education programs throughout the nation. Frantic efforts are now being exerted across the land to provide in-service education to teachers, counselors, and school administrators so that they can function effectively in career education. Yet, the amount of real change that can be seen in pre-service teacher education programs appears negligible. True, a few teacher education institutions have assigned the task of encouraging such change to one faculty member but, of course, this is really not what is needed. The self-defeating operational philosophy expressed in the phrase, "If you want us to change, give us a bundle of new money" is nowhere so evident as among our teacher education institutions. This issue is too important for us to continue to ignore. It is far from being resolved.

The issue again appears when we view efforts to involve the business-labor-industry community in career education. So far, we appear to be in a "honeymoon" period of such involvement where both schools and the community are surprised at the large amount of cooperation apparently available to them. Like all "honeymoons," this can obviously be a phenomenon of limited duration. Yet, far too little has been done or is being done to build the kinds of workable, lasting relationships that will make for comprehensive, effective career education programs.

These are but a few examples of this issue. Many others could be mentioned. Too few persons seem willing to face this issue yet, in spite of the fact that the long-run success of career education demands that we do so.

OBJECTIVES FOR CAREER EDUCATION AT THE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION LEVEL *

Larry J. Bailey

Department of Occupational Education
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois

Introduction

Widespread agreement and support exists for a concept of career education. Few individuals, however, perceive its substance or the magnitude of change which it requires. Bailey and Stadt (1973) in their text entitled *Career Education: New Approaches to Human Development* have attempted to demonstrate that:

—The climate for change in education, the need for substantial modifications of the basic characteristics of educational institutions, and the types of change which are recommended by prominent educational critics and theorists support a concept of career education;

—Career education has identifiable antecedents in the foundations of vocational education and guidance which are systematically interrelated and well founded in theory and rationale: and

—Models of career development, curriculum development, and educational change theory are sufficiently sophisticated to guide the development and implementation of curriculum for career education.

The remainder of this paper is devoted to the description and discussion of a curriculum framework designed to facilitate the process of career development at the elementary school level.

Definition of Terms

Former Commissioner Marland's leadership for career education has been acknowledged and applauded by most professionals. His speeches, public statements, and interviews have been widely disseminated and discussed. Predictable and natural by-products of the growing awareness of career education are confusion, skepticism, and disillusionment. Following are many of the conditions which have given rise to this state of affairs.

1) Even though career education has identifiable and predictable antecedents and its major purposes have been enunciated throughout the long history of formal education, former Commissioner Marland's *Career Education Now* speech caught the educational profession "off guard." Regrettably, many of the more naive educators were in fields related to career education, i.e., vocational and practical arts education and guidance.

2) Although Marland has presented an adequate case for career education, he and his associates have been deliberately non-prescriptive. Pro and con opinions abound regarding the wisdom of this approach. History will be the final judge.

3) The historical proliferation of terminology, such as vocational education, occupational education, technical education, industrial education, has produced skepticism toward new terminology, especially when it's not apparent how newer terms differ from older ones.

4) The central position of the U.S. Office of Education in the career education "movement" causes many to conjure up memories of compensatory education, ES 70, the Right to Read program and other federally-funded programs which have met with relatively little success.

5) Many of the more prominent advocates and "leaders" of career education are viewed by other professionals in light of their earlier reputations and identities in vocational education or vocational guidance. This does not question the expertise of many of the profession's most qualified spokesmen. Rather, it points up the need for clearly illustrating the commonalities and differences between career education and existing programs of vocational education and vocational guidance.

6) One of the greatest single influences on the evolution of career education has been the literature of career development theory and research. This literature and related areas of vocational psychology and sociology are, in the main, unfamiliar to most educators.

7) The recommended shift in emphasis from a *content* based curriculum to a *process* based curriculum has not been fully understood.[1]

8) Finally, whereas career education is a promising alternative to more conventional types of education, all must acknowledge that its major curriculum components do not now exist. A realistic approach to research and development is required. It must account for the magnitude of the changes required and the vast amounts of time, money, and personnel which are needed. Although considerable "action research" is now underway, much of what is being proposed in the way of curriculum is *inadequate*, *illogical*, and educationally *immoral*.

Even though these conditions are apparent, this author views the future of career education with considerable optimism. Kenneth Hoyt (1971) puts this well: "I see no way, right now, that we could

*This paper is based upon chapter 11, "A Developmental Curriculum Model for Career Education" (Bailey, L. J. and Stadt, R. W. *Career Education: New Approaches to Human Development*, Copyright 1973 by McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company. Duplication prohibited without permission from the publisher.

[1] For a scholarly account of process education see Cole, H.P., *Process Education. The New Direction for Elementary-Secondary Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1972.

impede this movement called 'career education,' even if we wanted to. It is too popular a concept."

Many observers of career education have expressed concern regarding the absence of a simple and all-inclusive definition of career education. The author will attempt to shed some light on that concern. Selected definitions for career education have been reviewed and discussed by Herr (1972), Goldhammer and Taylor (1972) and Hoyt, Evans, Mackin and Mangnum (1972). It is obvious that career education has been defined as a program, a concept, and a process. Examples clarify differences.

Career education as a program has been defined in terms of alternate types of delivery systems (e.g., school, employer, home-community, and rural-residential based); in terms of level (e.g., awareness, orientation, exploration, preparation, specialized education) and in terms of curriculum components (e.g., work experience, occupational information, study of technology).

As a concept, career education has been defined in terms of philosophy and rationale (e.g., economic self-sufficiency, self-actualization, preserving freedom of choice, and expanding available career options).

As a process, career education has been described in terms of observable student behavior (e.g. development and implementation of a self concept, acceptance of responsibility for career planning, understanding of the American economic system, and development of employable skills).

Whereas all of these usages are technically correct, Bailey and Stadt (1973) prefer to differentiate more clearly between *career education*, which they regard as a concept and a program, and *career development*, which is more properly used to describe an individual's career behavior. The authors' definitions follow:

> *Career education* refers to educational programs and curriculum at many different developmental levels, and provided by several types of delivery systems, which provide experience designed to help individuals become oriented to, select, prepare for, enter, and become established in an individually satisfying and productive career. Basic to the concept of career education is the recognition that preparation for a career role must begin in early childhood if the individual is to develop the concepts, attitudes, and skills which *ensure* freedom of choice and *expand* career options. Career education eliminates artificial distinctions between "general" and "vocational" education by fusing the two in a manner which enables the student to better solve personal, social, and career related problems.
>
> *Career development* is a term used to describe the accumulation of individual behaviors related to work, both before and after entry into an occupation. It is a developmental, continuously iterative process which progresses from infancy throughout adulthood like an expanding spiral. In curricular terms, career development refers to the behavioral outcomes of career education, primarily those related to self development; career planning and decision-making; and work attitudes, values, concepts and skills.

PURPOSE

Curriculum aims can be regarded in terms of a time dimension, i.e., as eventual outcomes to be achieved during adulthood, or as curriculum goals and objectives for a particular level or grade of schooling (Grobman, 1970; Krathwohl, 1965). The *ultimate goal* of career education may be described in terms of what Tiedeman (1971) has called "career competence" or what Gysbers and Moore (1971) refer to as the "career conscious individual." More specifically the aim is to develop an individual who can achieve a meaningful career existence in which his individuality functions for both personal and common good.

Thus, long range curriculum goals are directed to the development of competencies and/or attitudes which will be useful in situations that may not now be predictable; often these are situations for which there are no existing prototypes (Grobman, 1970). Yet, the curriculum developer has the responsibility to define in operational terms what behaviors the individual must develop en route to the appropriate long range goal. The curriculum developer must turn to relevant bodies of theory and knowledge to (1) identify goals and objectives and (2) make purposes clear and operational. Bailey and Stadt contend that the primary sources of data for conceptualizing a model for career education are the construct of career development and the foundations of vocational education. It now becomes apparent why Herr (1971) has defined career education as "The institutionalization of career development and the marrying of it with occupational education."

ASSUMPTIONS

Grobman (1970, pp. 104-105) has emphasized the importance of specifying assumptions which guide the formulation of curriculum goals and objectives:

> ". . . a failure by a project to identify theories of learning and philosophy of education espoused, may result in a dilution of the project's effects. With some noteworthy exceptions, few developmental projects identify a psychology of learning which they accept. Still fewer identify a guiding educational philosophy or the value judgments basic to the curriculum. . . . Such philosophies, theories and value judgments may be implicit rather than stated, but they are present in all curricula, are basic to the curriculum, and are an essential part of the assumptions underpinning the curriculum."

Throughout their book, Bailey and Stadt (1973) have been careful to identify their orientation toward education and have been deliberate in stating their beliefs and professional value judgments. Following is a listing of assumptions synthesized from the literature of career development theory, which reflects their beliefs regarding the nature of career development.

1) Career development is one aspect of an individual's overall pattern of growth and learning.
2) Career development is a long-term evolutionary pro-

cess, beginning in infancy and extending through adulthood

3) Career development is the summation of a complex series of career-related decisions made by the individual over a considerable span of time.

4) An individual's striving to arrive at an appropriate occupational goal may be interpreted as an attempt to implement his self-concept.

5) Career development proceeds through a series of (primarily) culturally induced developmental periods or life stages.

6) Each developmental life stage involves meeting and coping with increasingly complex developmental tasks. The developmental tasks are susceptible to further description and elaboration.

7) Development through the life stages can be guided. The knowledge, skills, attitudes, and motivation essential for coping with the developmental tasks can be fostered and developed. Career decision-making can be done on rational bases.

8) The degree of mastery of a developmental task and the quality of an occupational decision is a function of the type, amount, and validity of data and experiences to which the individual has been exposed.

LIMITATIONS

The curriculum model described in this paper has two limitations. First, it is only an outline for a *school-based* approach to career education. Whereas, this model has important implications for *employer-based*, *home-community based*, and *rural-residential based* models, the writer does not wish to imply that this framework is comprehensive enough to encompass the goals of the other three types of career education options.

Second, it has limited scope. An attempt has been made to provide the *nucleus* for an integrated, developmental structure for grades K-12, containing all required, major curriculum goals and objectives which are flexible enough to be adapted toa variety of local school situations and locales. It is anticipated that the model will be considerably expanded and refined in years to come. One test of the adequacy and validity of the conceptual model will be the extent to which it fosters additional research and development.

PROCEDURE

Subsequent sections elaborate a curriculum framework based on perceptions and interpretations of desirable career development outcomes. Four curriculum phases have been differentiated. These correspond to the educational levels commonly referred to as primary elementary, intermediate elementary, junior high, and high school. They are:

Awareness Stage	K-3
Accommodation Stage	4-6
Orientation Stage	7-8
Exploration and Preparation Stage	9-12

These stages provide the context for ordering curriculum activities and experiences. For each of the stages, six domains of behavior have been identified. These entail the "sub-processes" of career development.

1. Concepts of self
2. Occupational, educational and economic concepts and skills
3. Sense of agency
4. Information processing skills
5. Interpersonal relationships
6. Work attitudes and values

The relationship between the six sub-processes and the four developmental stages is illustrated in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
A Developmental Curriculum Model for Career Education

Domains of Career Development Behaviors	A. Awareness K-3	B. Accommodation 4-6	C. Orientation 7-8	D. Exploration and Preparation
1. Concepts of self	A1	B1	C1	D1
2. Occupational, educational and economic concepts and skills	A2	B2	C2	D2
3. Sense of agency	A3	B3	C3	D3
4. Information processing skills	A4	B4	C4	D4
5. Interpersonal relationships	A5	B5	C5	D5
6. Work attitudes and values	A6	B6	C6	D6

Following sections give detailed descriptions of goals and rationale for the Awareness and Accommodation Stages and of representative, integrated objectives. The other stages are treated in the articles that follow.

AWARENESS STAGE, GRADES K-3

The period of schooling spanning the years K-3 is the child's first encounter with a formal learning environment. When a child enters the elementary school, he has long been displaying in recognizable form, *inductive* processes of learning (Vinacke, 1972). That is, exposure to objects through manipulation, observation, use, etc., has lead to familiarity on the basis of which, the child forms generalizations about them. For example, through ordinary experience with articles in his environment a child learns what things are "clothes," "foods," and "animals." Up to the age of five or six, behavior is to a large degree egocentric, i.e., determined mainly by specific experiences and activities of the child.

About ages six to eight the child begins to shift from inductive to more *deductive* behavior (Vinacke, 1972). Awareness of concrete, perceptually known properties of and relations between objects gives way to grouping and abstract, symbolic behavior. Then, the child begins to employ already formed generalizations to deal appropriately with new objects or with familiar objects in new ways. According to Formanek and Morine (1972), growth in concept formation and cognitive development are generally brought about by the organizing of aspects of the external environment in such a way that classes of objects or concepts are formed. In order to deal with the large number of objects in his world, the child must represent them in some way. This representation usually involves some form of grouping or categorizing.

Based on the above, Vinacke (1972) suggests that there are two basic curriculum considerations to be recognized in the early school years. First, *the child needs to be exposed to the ingredients of concepts.* From knowledge of concrete properties of objects and their relations to each other, the child can evolve precise, stable, and complete conceptions. Secondly, since the child is learning how to generalize, how to symbolize, how to apply the same concept to a variety of situations, *he needs practice and guidance in the efficient, harmonious, and productive cultivation of these skills.* The functions of career education during the awareness stage, thus, becomes that of helping the child to perceive the ingredients which are the forerunners of more effective career development concepts and behaviors, and to develop skills for differentiating and internalizing new phenomena.

GOALS AND RATIONALE:

A1. Awareness of self

In early childhood the individual begins the process of self concept formation which continues throughout his life. Initially, the child gathers sensory impressions (i.e., "self percepts") related to his physical configuration and his capabilities (Super, 1963). Gradually, he begins to organize his perceptions into higher-order generalizations and, finally, into simple self-concepts. That is, the impression he receives from his activities and interpersonal relationships are combined to form mental pictures. Emphasis on self awareness, and differentiation of self from others helps the child develop a repertoire of self percepts which become the foundation for more accurate and comprehensive self-concepts.

A2. Awareness of different types of occupational roles

The young child perceives people performing different types of work activities, but is not able to conceptualize differences among them (Goodson, 1970, Zimmermann and Bailey, 1971). For example, the child does not distinguish between the work that his parents may do in an occupation outside the home from the "work" that is done within the home, and from hobby and/or volunteer activities done in addition to an occupation. This goal is closely related to A4 which is designed, in part, to help the child develop skills to make such distinctions.

A3. Awareness of individual responsibility for own actions

This goal is related to A1 in which the child begins to recognize his own uniqueness, and to A2 in which he becomes more aware of the types of roles that he and others perform. These perceptions provide the basis for the child's understanding that (1) he is responsible for his activities, and (2) controls them by choosing from available alternatives. The child's development of a sense of control is seen as a prerequisite to his later acceptance of responsibility for career planning.

A4. Development of the rudiments of classification and decision-making skills

This goal includes the development of two types of fundamental behaviors: (1) classification abilities, and (2) practice in making decisions. With respect to the first type of behavior, research on the nature of concept formation has demonstrated that categorization ability is intimately related to children's cognitive development. Formanek and Morine (1972, p. 154) conclude that "Developing concepts such as 'group,' 'role,' or 'sanction' in the social sciences demands a skill in identifying similarities and differences in human behavior. Consequently, a child's ability to categorize would seem to bear some relation to his ability to understand much of the modern elementary school curriculum." The implications for the understanding of occupational groups is self-evident.

The emphasis on practice in decision-making is designed to acquaint the child with the "logic" of

choosing from among alternatives. While most children may not be able to conceptualize decision-making as a process, they will be able to apply such methods to the choosing of alternative courses of action, alternate behaviors and alternate modes of expression. "From early childhood through adulthood the skills and motives needed for making wise decisions are essential elements in the equipment of the maturing person." (Hill and Luckey, 1969, p. 14).

A5. Learning cooperative social behavior

Like previous goals, the need for effective working relationships is a fundamental behavior of childhood that continues throughout life. As Havighurst (1953, p. 31) notes, ". . . the nine- or ten-year-old clearly shows what he will be like, socially, at fifty." The technique of behavior modification notwithstanding, Havighurst's observation is well taken in that social relationships constitute a foundation element in later adaptions to life and its demands. Effective working relationships with his peers is not some frosting on the educational cake that is desirable if it were to come about incidentially. Rather, it is an essential ingredient of the cake itself (Hill and Luckey, 1969).

A6. Development of respect for others and the work that they do

Probably at no other time does the individual have as high a regard for work as he does in early childhood. The tendency for children to play at work is well known. Kabach (1966, p. 167) notes that ". . . the younger the child the greater the interest in the actual job performance itself. Most children are natural born actors; they want to act out in order to understand what it feels like to be a carpenter or a ball player." The question is not one of *should* attitudes toward work be taught in early elementary school. Students do in fact possess work attitudes. Generally these are favorable. Rather, at issue is *how to preserve* positive attitudes so they may be used as foundation for more realistic attitudes and understandings (Herr, 1970).

Illustrative Objectives:

1. Begins to form generalizations about self
   - 1.1 Summarizes ways in which an individual may be described, e.g., emotions, actions, personal information, physical appearance
   - 1.2 Provides examples of own self characteristics and attributes
   - 1.3 Recognizes uniqueness of own self
   - 1.4 Differentiates self from others
2. Understands how interests develop
   - 2.1 Explains what is an "interest"
   - 2.2 Describes how people become interested in an activity
   - 2.3 Develops "inventory" (generic sense) of own interests
3. Examines different types of human activity
   - 3.1 Formulates a broad, general definition for what is "work"
   - 3.2 Explains what is meant by "leisure"
   - 3.3 Recognizes commonalities of work and leisure
4. Differentiates types of work and leisure activities
   - 4.1 Defines the term "occupation"
   - 4.2 Describes how an occupation differs from other types of work activity
   - 4.3 Distinguishes between occupations, household chores, volunteer work, and leisure activity
   - 4.4 Associates different types of work and leisure activities with various family members
   - 4.5 Observes and talks to various workers in the school and neighborhood to gain occupational awareness
5. Examines the relationship between interests, occupations and leisure activities
   - 5.1 Understands how interests may be satisfied in a variety of occupational roles
   - 5.2 Explains why it is desirable to work at an occupation in which one is interested
   - 5.3 Understands how interests may also be expressed in leisure
6. Adopts identity as that of "worker"
   - 6.1 Lists various types of work tasks he performs regularly
   - 6.2 Describes how the role of student is similar to that of employed worker
   - 6.3 Describes how work he does in school can affect him in the future
7. Understands how individual needs are met in work
   - 7.1 Describes how work has a personal meaning for every individual
   - 7.2 Appreciates how work may enhance self dignity and worth
8. Understands the characteristics of grouping systems
   - 8.1 Defines what is meant by a "group"
   - 8.2 Understands how grouping can be used to organize information
   - 8.3 Understands that objects, events, etc. can be classified in many different ways
   - 8.4 Understands that groups can be created for different purposes
9. Understands concepts (i.e., economic groups) of goods, services, consumers, and producers
   - 9.1 Defines what is meant by the term "consumer
   - 9.2 Understands that everyone is a consumer
   - 9.3 Differentiates between goods and services
   - 9.4 Defines what is meant by the term "producer"
   - 9.5 Provides examples of people who produce goods and people who produce (i.e., provide) services

10. Understands how goods and service producers are interrelated
    - 10.1 Examines own family unit to understand the principle of interdependence
    - 10.2 Explains how interdependence leads to specialization
    - 10.3 Provides examples to illustrate how goods and service workers depend on each other
    - 10.4 Recognizes why worker cooperation is necessary in the production of goods and services
    - 10.5 Describes the individual work habits and attitudes that contribute to cooperative work relationships
11. Understands that production of most goods and services involve a "family" type of effort
    - 11.1 Identifies different types of job families under the broad headings of goods and services producers
    - 11.2 For a given occupational family, (e.g., leisure, construction, health) describes types of goods produced or services provided
12. Examines the nature of a job family (i.e., occupational group)
    - 12.1 Recognizes the wide range of different occupations within a single family
    - 12.2 Understands that many different levels exist within a job family
    - 12.3 Describes what is meant by the term "job ladder"
    - 12.4 Recognizes that individual occupations may be found in more than one job family
13. Understands that grouping can help in organizing information about interests and occupations
    - 13.1 Reviews meaning of "interests"
    - 13.2 Understands that an individual's specific interests may be grouped into a number of general areas
    - 13.3 Recognizes usefulness of grouping occupations by interest area
14. Understands that information about an occupation can be organized using more than one group at the same time
    - 14.1 Surveys a variety of goods and service occupations that involve an interest area
    - 14.2 Surveys one interest area for goods and service occupations
    - 14.3 Given a description of an occupation, can group it in a two-dimensional system
    - 14.4 Understands how using more than one grouping system can be useful

Accommodation Stage, Grades 4-6

During the Awareness Stage the child is perceptually orientated; he makes judgments in terms of how things look to him. In the period from about age nine to eleven, certain mental operations begin to manifest themselves, e.g., the ability to be aware of a previous thought. According to Almy (1961) the intermediate years of education, which correspond approximately to Piaget's stage of *concrete operations*, are the time of intellectual development when the child is able to solve problems and give explanations in terms of concrete data. The most important specific changes in cognitive development which take place with increasing age have been summarized by Vinacke (1972, p. 142-143) as follows:

1. Progression from single to complex concepts. For example, concepts of the structure of society move from the immediate family group to the neighborhood, school, community, and so on.
2. Progression from diffuse to differentiated concepts. Thus, concepts of the self change from generalized awareness of the body and relations to others, to well-organized knowledge of roles, attitudes, traits, etc., in a complex system of needs, social relationships, and activities.
3. Progression from egocentric to more objective concepts. In the first or second grade, for example, a child may assume that a teacher knows much more about his home and parents. Later, of course, he learns to an increasing degree to treat objects and people as distinct from his own experience with them.
4. Progression from concrete to abstract concepts. In this trend, the child tends to become increasingly free from the immediately perceived properties and functions of objects and to deal with them in the classificatory sense mentioned above. For example, a younger person tends to draw pictures of particular persons (himself, or his mother), whereas older children can more readily produce a man or a child.
5. Progression from variable to more stable concepts. In earlier school years the rules of a game, or a classroom procedure, are not treated as having a set form, whereas they come in due course to be regarded as fixed. Words which at first have no stable meaning are increasingly used to signify the same kind of object and characteristics of objects.
6. Progression from inconsistent to more consistent and accurate concepts. A child in the first grade may consider any building with red clapboards to be an instance of a barn.

These changes are continuous and cumulative and are not confined solely to the intermediate level of elementary school education. Certain kinds of concepts, such as those pertaining to self, undergo very extensive development in adolescence and, often, into young adulthood. The significant feature of these cognitive changes in the Accommodation phase of career development is that they occur more rapidly in childhood than in later years.

GOALS AND RATIONALE

B1. Development of concepts related to self

In this phase, the child begins to conceptualize what he formerly only perceived (Antholz, 1972). "Self concepts are self percepts which have acquired meaning and which have been related to other self percepts. A self concept is the individual's picture of himself, the perceived self with accrued meanings." (Super, 1963, p. 18). Operationally, self-concept

development at this level takes the form of helping students develop "self-understanding." Turner (1972) points out that the greater an individual's understanding of the *activities* in which he is interested, his *ability* to participate in those activities, and the *value* of those activities to him, the more accurate will be his choice of a later career.

An additional operational aspect of self-understanding is the provision for periodic assessment of growth and learning, and the assimilation of new information. By becoming more fully aware of characteristics of the process of change which mark growth and development, the child can (1) begin to develop a better understanding of self at a certain point in time, i.e., a *concept of becoming*, and (2) recognize that his understanding of self is constantly changing, i.e., he is in a *process of becoming*.

B2. Development of concepts related to the world of work

At this level, the child moves from perceptualization of work activities and simple generalizations, such as goods and service workers, to more sophisticated concepts. If the child is to differentiate among thousands of occupations, he must be helped to develop a "cognitive map" which will serve as a conceptual framework for later occupational orientation and exploration. The emphasis should be on learning (1) *what* is the world of work and *how* it has evolved, (2) *why* occupations exist, (3) *what* is work, and (4) *why* people pursue various types of work activity (i.e., occupations) (Van Rooy and Bailey, 1972).

B3. Assuming increased responsibility for planning one's time

Awareness of individual responsibility for one's activities acquired in the previous stage, now gives way to greater independence and a certain degree of authority to make decisions for oneself. Antholz (1972, p. 30) states, "He has developed a sense of agency: he knows he can master parts of his environment."

The cultural desirability of extending a child's sense of agency has been emphasized by Havighurst (1953, p. 39). ". . . every society recognizes the growth of personal independence and initiative as desirable during middle childhood. The American society sets greater store than most by personal independence and starts training for independence at a relatively early age."

B4. Application of decision-making and classification skills

Learning how to meet change, to adapt to it, to acquire the new skills demanded by occupational change, must begin early in the child's education. Students in grade six face at the end of the year an important change: transfer to junior high school. Increasingly they are looking beyond their immediate world. The changes that are taking place become more significant in their conscious behavior. Therefore, it is important for children in the later elementary school years to develop behaviors and make decisions which will provide them with the greatest potential for occupational fulfillment under varied circumstances.

B5. Development of desirable social relationships

This goal relates very closely to B1 and is concerned with developing greater "social self" awareness. Self understanding is nourished and enhanced by impressions or reflections of self received from others. Conversely, self-understanding contributes to the development of desirable social relationships. Turner (1972) maintains that the ability to communicate and cooperate with others is facilitated in proportion to the degree that an individual understands himself.

B6. Development of work attitudes and values

During the previous stages, the child manifests work attitudes and values by *taking the role* of various workers. As the child becomes better able to conceptualize, his basis for choice becomes more rational. "Since living requires choosing between values, which are more or less desirable objects or modes of action, and since many important life situations require a choice between two or more values, the growing child must develop a scale of values which will enable him to make a stable choice and to hold himself to these choices" (Havighurst, 1953, p. 36). According to Antholz (1972), if the value of work is not internalized, it becomes very difficult for the individual to achieve self direction. The probability that he will work only because and when others want him to remains high. This, in turn, has a deleterious effect on his ability to achieve the discipline of work or a positive self-concept.

Illustrative Objectives:

1. Understands the terminology used for self-appraisal and self understanding
   - 1.1 Reviews what is meant by interests
   - 1.2 Knows what is meant by aptitudes and abilities
   - 1.3 Describes what is meant by values
   - 1.4 Differentiates among interests, abilities, and values
2. Understands that interests may vary at different points in life
   - 2.1 Provides examples of how interests may change as a result of growth, learning, new experience
   - 2.2 Recognizes the tendency of interests to become more stable as he grows older
3. Analyzes how abilities shape interests
   - 3.1 Describes what is meant by the term "ability"
   - 3.2 Differentiates between general ability (pri-

marily scholastic ability) and special abilities (e.g., art, music, manipulative skills, leadership)
3.3 Describes the role of abilities in relationship to interests

4. Analyzes how values shape interests
4.1 Understands that values determine how an individual "feels" (i.e., importance, worth) toward an activity
4.2 Differentiates own values toward various activities from those of peers
4.3 Describes the role of values in relationship to interests

5. Demonstrates an awareness of the continuing process of change that characterizes maturation
5.1 Describes a number of ways of "growing"
5.2 Identifies commonalities in individuals' growth and development
5.3 Differentiates own patterns of growth and development from others

6. Formulates present self-identity reflecting knowledge of own interests, abilities, and values
6.1 Summarizes primary areas of interest
6.2 Compares present interests with those characteristics of earlier periods
6.3 Provides examples of individual aptitudes and abilities
6.4 Recognizes assets and limitations
6.5 Provided with a list of activities, expresses the importance (value) of those activities to him

7. Judges the validity of own self-identity
7.1 Recognizes that he has several identities
7.2 Understands that the "me I see" may be different from the "me others see."
7.3 Becomes aware of how others characterize him
7.4 Compares own self-identity with the self others see
7.5 Explains how knowledge of his "social self" contributes to more accurate self-understanding

8. Becomes more aware of a "social self"
8.1 Identifies ways he relates to other persons
8.2 Attempts to characterize self as others see him
8.3 Expands his capacity to understand the feelings of others
8.4 Describes how a better understanding of self leads to better relations with others in group activity

9. Analyzes the ways his self-understanding helps him relate to others
9.1 Identifies activities which depend on cooperative relationships
9.2 Infers the effect of cooperation on the ability of people to work and play together successfully

10. Understands how Man's basic requirements (needs) result in the development of a culture
10.1 Provides examples of basic human needs: food, shelter, clothing
10.2 Describes how a culture develops to meet basic human needs
10.3 Explains how a culture in turn generates its own needs and requirements necessary to continue the culture

11. Understands that the world of work is composed of occupational units (factories, institutions, enterprises) designed to meet cultural needs
11.1 Explains why various occupational units have evolved
11.2 Illustrates by example how a particular type of occupational unit, e.g., construction company, meets a specific cultural imperative
11.3 Explains why more industrialized cultures have a greater variety of occupational units
11.4 Describes why more industrialized cultures have a greater variety of service and leisure occupations

12. Categorizes various occupational units in relationship to three types of cultural needs
12.1 Identifies those occupational units concerned with the *replenishment* of culture (primarily goods and services occupational units)
12.2 Identifies occupational units concerned with the *management and maintenance* of culture (governmental and regulatory agencies)
12.3 Identifies those occupational units concerned with the *transmission* of culture (primarily education)

13. Examines work in relation to the environment in which it takes place
13.1 Understands that work is physical and mental activity undertaken primarily within an occupational unit
13.2 Explains how the various jobs within an occupational unit contribute to the goal of the enterprise

14. Understands that people engage in occupations for a variety of reasons
14.1 Recognizes that a person works to satisfy various *social*, *economic*, and *psychological* needs
14.2 Explains how work satisfies both individual needs and the needs of society

15. Engages in a wide range of occupationally-related and leisure activities
15.1 Has opportunities to express interests and to develop goals and aspirations
15.2 Plans experiences, in and out of school, to capitalize on strengths and to strengthen weaknesses

16. Becomes aware of individual responsibility for orderly development
16.1 Understands that the future is built on the present

16.2 Lists ways in which individual actions can affect progression toward a preferred career
16.3 Assumes personal responsibility for the consequences of his choices
16.4 Relates the importance of education to planning one's own future
16.5 Understands that different kinds of occupations require varying degrees and types of educational preparation

17. Demonstrates that he is in charge of becoming himself
17.1 Explains why he is responsible for his own behavior
17.2 Identifies ways he can take responsibility for his own behavior
17.3 Identifies time in his daily life when he makes decisions on his own
17.4 Proposes why only the individual can develop his potentialities

18. Understands that career development is an ongoing, continuous, patterned process
18.1 Recognizes the fact that some day he will have to make an occupational choice
18.2 Recognizes life in the future as being continuing education and preparation for work
18.3 Lists the wide range of factors that influence behavior and development

19. Develops increased abilities for making educational, occupational, and personal decisions
19.1 Understands how a decision has important implications for future decisions
19.2 Gains a knowledge of the process of decision-making

SUMMARY

The climate for acceptance of career education has been found to be favorable and widespread. However, professionals should not be seduced into believing that career education will be warmly received by all constituencies within education. Serious theoretical questions remain and many operational problems persist. The ultimate acceptance of career education is in no small way related to the degree to which curriculum developers can articulate and validate its behavioral outcomes. This paper is offered as a beginning toward the creation of a more comprehensive and integrated career education curriculum.

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CAREER EDUCATION AT THE JUNIOR HIGH EDUCATIONAL LEVEL—A TIME FOR CAREER EXPLORATION PLUS

Robert A. Ristau

Head, Department of Business Education
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan

THE NEED

The career development of youth is a process which is continuous, complex, and in need of attention by concerned educators. To be concerned with career development is to be concerned with self-concept, the "work-success ethic," human values, and interpersonal relationships as well as job information, career patterns, and career planning.

The junior high school years are prominent among the critical years which span the career development process. These years provide a unique opportunity for students to gain important insights into work as vocational maturity develops. It is appropriate, perhaps even crucial, that vocational and general educators along with counselors focus attention on this segment of emerging developments in career education. We are perhaps rightly accused of too often doing too little too late (Ristau, 1973, pp. 196-198).

Programs of career development which attempt to relate to the needs of emerging adolescents of junior high school age are the focus of this paper. We must be concerned with activities in career exploration plus those which support and enhance the total career development process.

TRANSITIONAL YEARS

The junior high school is perhaps best conceptualized as a transitional institution. It is one which ought to provide for its clientele opportunities to adjust to a new learning climate. The self-contained classroom of the elementary school with its unique learning climate created by a single teacher gives way to a more complex approach to education. A variety of classrooms and laboratories, specialized teaching staffs, and departmentalized subject areas typically await the junior high school student.

The junior high school in terms of its organizational structure most commonly includes grades seven, eight, and nine. As an individual, the student served is perhaps in one of his or her most unique stages of personal and social development. Many of us who have taught and worked with these emerging adolescents find them to be somewhat puzzling and perplexing on one hand yet vibrant and exciting to work with on the other. The characteristics of youth of this age which stand out in my mind include their great desire to be accepted by their peer groups and their tendency to be filled with curiosity and boundless energy. Programs designed to appeal to these youth should be varied in nature and uniquely designed to meet their needs (Gysbers, 1969; Mathney, 1969, pp. 18-21).

THE MIDDLE SCHOOL CONCEPT

The middle school is an emerging institution in our nation's educational system which has come on the scene over the past decade. Coming in largely as an alternative to the junior high school, suggesting perhaps that the junior high school has failed to serve effectively the emerging adolescent, it emphasizes programs which are specially designed for youth of this age and which meet their unique needs.

Based in part on my personal experiences with the development of the middle school in the Madison, Wisconsin Public Schools, I believe that the middle school concept holds some important implications for us. Important among the basic thrusts of the middle school movement is the conviction that the "miniature high school" image fostered in junior high schools of the past be negated. Attempts to bring down to the student of this age junior versions of the high school program are seriously challenged. As an institution, it generally incorporates grades five through eight. In terms of its program, it emphasizes flexibility in its approach to teaching and learning. It focuses on the unique needs of the individual as a person as well as individuals as a group. The institution serves the student. The juxtaposition of the institution relative to the high school is minimized.

THE STUDENT

Students served by the typical junior high school grades of seven, eight, and nine will be the frame of reference for this discussion. Programs described will not be restricted to those in institutions labelled "junior high school" but will include those that might be taught in any institution which addresses the needs of such students. We must be concerned primarily with the characteristics of the student.

Whatever the grade level or institution involved, there are important individual characteristics to be considered. Students of this age should be seen and treated as individuals who have identifiable and

unique needs. In addressing guidelines for planning career development programs, Juliet Miller describes four characteristics of junior high school students. She includes the following important points:

1. Students are moving from the general skill acquisition of the elementary school toward the more specific preparation for adult life. Experiences should be broadening and exploratory in nature and should expand the horizon of the individual.

2. Students are in a period of rapid change with considerable variance in the developmental level of individuals within the total group. A variety of methods are needed to accommodate the range of individual differences.

3. Students are beginning to develop abstract, verbal skills. But students also continue to have a real need for concrete, action-oriented activities, especially in the lower junior high school grades.

4. Students experience intense feelings associated with their rapid growth and change. The need to express and explore these feelings can be met in part through educational programs planned with their needs in mind (Miller, 1972).

The emerging adolescent can be described as one who is searching for identity, feels a strong desire for belonging and acceptance especially in terms of peer-group relationships, and is beginning to identify with adult roles. Developmental tasks associated with this age group speak to the development of and movement toward vocational maturity.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Career development theory appropriately undergirds much of our discussion. Although research in career development theory can be criticized as often relating to atypical groups and not relating to the needs of ethnic groups or even average, middle-class students, there is emerging a new sense of direction with important implications for career education (Manpower Report, 1972, pp. 77-100).

Samuel Osipow, in speaking to the 1972 annual conference for administrators called by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Wisconsin, described a maturing of career development theories. Although discrepancies and differences among theories were acknowledged by Dr. Osipow, he saw career development theory and the career education movement as being brought together at a fortuitous juncture in the history of education (Osipow, 1970, pp. 6-16).

There appears to be some consensus that in spite of differences which exist among the findings and approaches of various career development theorists, the self-concept theory is the one that should give us direction in our career education programming. Moving away from the once popular trait-factor theory, which suggested career choice as a point-in-time act and one which was largely irreversible, career development is now viewed as a lifetime process of growth and development. The role of the school as well as the influence of parents and others in the career development and the career selection process is recognized. Needs of youth for job information and real work-world experience require an approach that unifies the efforts of counselors, educators, and others in moving toward the common goal of serving youth in terms of their career development needs (Manpower Report, 1972; Mathney, 1969).

THE USOE MODEL

An interesting characteristic of the career education movement is the plethora of models, many of which are graphically portrayed. An analysis of the various attempts to define career education and translate definitions and concepts into educational programs reveals some reassuring congruencies.

It seems appropriate to examine the model promoted by officials of the United States Office of Education (USOE). Sometimes referred to as the inverted pyramid model or career education cone, it gives recognition to certain grade levels as lending themselves particularly well to certain aspects of career education (Ristau & Strong, 1972, pp. 209-216). These aspects are identified as follows:

grades K through 6, awareness and orientation;
grades 7 through 9, exploration and planning;
grades 10 through 12, basic levels of job preparation;
grades 13 and on, advanced levels of specialized job preparation.

Basic to the concern of those who promote career education, and reflected in this model, is the plight of the early school leaver. Based on various statistics which indicate that 2.5 million young people annually leave the public school systems of the United States without adequate preparation for a job, attention is focused on the basic need to be met. Coupled with the evidence that although only 20% of the jobs in the labor market of the next decade will require a baccalaureate degree is the evidence that most jobs will continue to require more education and more skills for successful entry (Byrnside & Wykle, pp. 1-4; Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1970-71). The mandate for education seems to be clear: education at all levels must be made more relevant in terms of relating to the needs which our young people have to explore, plan, and prepare for a rewarding occupation and career life.

Students who choose an early exit from school in grades 7, 8, or 9 will face special problems in the labor market. The solution to many of these problems lies beyond the purview of the school. In addition to programs which provide for career exploration, however, these students should be given help in terms of developing very basic skills required for success to entry level jobs. The concern for the student who terminates or interrupts his education at this point in the educational milieu must extend beyond the walls of the educational institution itself.

THE FUNCTION OF MODELS

The models in their graphic portrayal tend to establish an input-output relationship which should speak to educational planners. The need for a coordinated career education program plan is evident. The uniqueness of an activity at any particular level of education should be seen in relation to the total process. The student who emerges from an articulated program of career awareness and career exploration should be served at the high school level with programs that are fully cognizant of the preceding developments. Subsequent activities should be based in part on the outcomes of preceding activities.

The model developed for the State of Wisconsin (Drier, 1972) and the matrix developed for the national school-based career education model, the Comprehensive Career Education Model (CCEM) (Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1972), demonstrate a desired articulated approach to career education.

One of the primary deficiencies of the depicted models is the tendency to suggest that there are absolute and discreet levels of career education activity. For instance, an examination of the USOE model tends to suggest to some viewers that awareness begins at kindergarten and ends at grade six. One might assume from such an examination that exploration suddenly begins at grade seven and ends at grade nine. In reality, of course, career awareness and exploration are closely intertwined and continue throughout life. Awareness of occupations and careers continue on as a function of the life-long career development process. Exploration activities, both formal and informal, should continue as part of one's experiences throughout the entire educational process (Gysbers, 1969; Perrone & Wolleat, 1970).

THE WISCONSIN MODEL

The Wisconsin model identifies three components of self, world of work, planning and preparation as major curriculum emphases. An emerging vocational self-identity results from the articulated treatment of sixteen major concepts which are identified and expanded in the guide. These sixteen concepts are presented in terms of those grade levels at which the concept should be introduced, developed, and emphasized. None of the concepts is treated in isolation at any grade level. Those introduced in the primary grades, developed in the elementary grades, and *emphasized in the junior high grades* are as follows:

1. An understanding and acceptance of self is important throughout life.
2. Persons need to be recognized as having dignity and worth.
3. Occupations exist for a purpose.
4. There is a wide variety of careers which may be classified in several ways.
5. Work means different things to different people.
6. Education and work are interrelated.
7. Individuals differ in their interests, abilities, attitudes and values.

Those introduced at the elementary grades and *developed in the junior high grades* are as follows:

8. Occupational supply and demand have an impact on career planning.
9. Job specialization creates interdependency.
10. Environment and individual potential interact to influence career development.
11. Occupations and life styles are interrelated.
12. Individuals can learn to perform adequately in a variety of occupations.
13. Career development requires a continuous and sequential series of choices.
14. Various groups and institutions influence the nature and structure of work.

Those *introduced in grades seven through nine* and developed in grades ten through twelve are:

15. Individuals are responsible for their career planning.
16. Job characteristics and individuals must be flexible in a changing society.

It is significant that all of the 16 basic concepts are introduced prior to grade ten.

THE CCEM MATRIX

The matrix of the CCEM identifies eight themes and provides for the treatment of each one at each grade level. The interrelationships of the many aspects of career development and career education can readily be seen in an examination of this matrix (Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1972). The themes, each of which is addressed in the programs developed for students of junior high school age, are as follows:

1. Career Awareness.
2. Self Awareness.
3. Appreciations and Attitudes.
4. Decision-Making.
5. Economic Awareness.
6. Skill Awareness, Beginning Competence.
7. Employability Skills.
8. Educational Awareness.

CAREER EXPLORATION PROGRAMS

Concepts, themes, and objectives must be ultimately translated into student-centered experiences. Career exploration programs can meet a unique need at the junior high level. Such programs, properly organized, provide a framework for students to engage in special kinds of activities aimed at meeting career development needs.

It is a generally accepted proposition that the young people of our country tend to be shielded from the realities of the world of work. A variety of factors causes this to be so, including our advanced technology, the specialization of jobs, and our post-industrial, service-oriented society. Child labor restrictions, designed to protect youth, tend to hinder them in terms of meeting this need. Gaining

an insight into jobs and the work which people perform is basic and vital to the career development of our youth and must be provided through career exploration programs.

Career awareness and orientation programs tend to acquaint students with many different jobs and work roles at a basic familiarization level. Discovering the work done by parents is frequently one of the initial steps in that process. Learning about the vast variety of work roles in the community-at-large is an anticipated outcome of the kindergarten through sixth grade emphasis on career awareness and orientation. Career exploration programs must pick up where the awareness and orientation programs leave off.

The discrete distinction and demarcation between awareness or orientation and exploration is more easily made in a discussion of this kind than it is in the conduct of the actual processes themselves. Basically, career exploration programs should acquaint students with the techniques of career exploration, provide them with relevant career information, and facilitate opportunities to gain insight into a number of different jobs or career fields through a study of people on jobs as well as the jobs themselves. Whether this is accomplished under one program heading or another is more of a pedantic than real concern. Career exploration programs can be organized and analyzed in terms of basic and in-depth levels of exploration. Both levels should occur during junior high school years.

CAREER EXPLORATION OBJECTIVES

Objectives of a career exploration program can be grouped into two categories. One addresses itself to the overall thrust of career exploration; the other to the more specific exploration by students of job families or career areas. Both categories of objectives are important to student development and should be accomplished in a program.

In terms of the general thrust of career exploration, a program should:

1. reach all students.
2. occur at several grade levels.
3. actively involve students.
4. include desirable job information suitable for the students' maturation level.
5. move from broad-based explorations to in-depth exploration.
6. provide a variety of real or simulated work experiences made available to all students.
7. provide opportunities for decision-making experiences.
8. be continuous and articulated throughout the school and community.

In terms of more specific objectives, all students should:

1. examine themselves in relation to occupational requirements.
2. consider the broad range of career opportunities.
3. analyze personal needs and interests.
4. develop tentative career goals.
5. engage in the planning process required to meet goals.

Career exploration must help students to understand the world of work, to appreciate its opportunities and requirements, and to see themselves in relation to jobs and career fields. This should lead to meaningful career planning. To accomplish the desired ends requires a varied program of activities, both curricular and non-curricular.

OCCUPATIONAL CLUSTERS

The task of relating to the broad spectrum of occupations in the labor market of today and tomorrow is a formidable one. The basic levels of career exploration should present students with an opportunity to learn about the similarities and differences among various career fields and occupations. The interrelatedness of occupations should also be understood. The organization of occupations into clusters aids the exploration process.

Clustering schemes tend to be varied in themselves. Each one, however, groups occupations into categories which have one or more identifiable similarities (Mathney, 1969, pp. 18-21). Among the many clustering schemes are several which seem to lend themselves particularly well to exploration. The two which seem to be most popular are the people-data-things groupings associated with the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) and the fifteen clusters developed by the United States Office of Education.

To the extent that young people begin associating with work that tends to emphasize working with people, data, or things, the DOT clusters seem to provide an appropriate vehicle for investigating occupations. In terms of relating to subsequent curricular organization and educational patterns, the fifteen USOE clusters seem to provide a desirable basis for exploration. Whatever clustering scheme is ultimately used in an exploration program, it should be one which covers the total gamut of occupations and which can incorporate present as well as emerging occupations.

The fifteen clusters of the USOE are as follows:

1. Agri-business and Natural Resources
2. Business and Office
3. Communication and Media
4. Construction
5. Consumer and Homemaking-Related
6. Environment
7. Fine Arts and Humanities
8. Health
9. Hospitality and Recreation
10. Manufacturing
11. Marketing and Distribution
12. Marine Science
13. Personal Services
14. Public Service
15. Transportation

As part of the basic exploration process, students should develop a general understanding of each cluster. Then, depending upon personal interest

and capabilities, students should begin gaining greater insight and knowledge of jobs contained in certain clusters. Students should gain experiential understandings and should begin to internalize their knowledge of those careers. Clusters, for this in-depth purpose, can be subcategorized into families of occupations which have even closer similarities and characteristics. Families which can be considered within the USOE clusters identified as "Marketing and Distribution" and "Business and Office," illustrate the family concept.

Business and Office Cluster:
- clerical occupations
- secretarial occupations
- record systems and control occupations
  - accounting occupations
  - data processing occupations
- administrative occupations
- business ownership
- management occupations

Marketing and Distribution Cluster:
- retail selling occupations
- marketing services occupations
- sales and services occupations
- physical distribution occupations

ORGANIZING A CAREER EXPLORATION PROGRAM

Given the objectives for a career exploration program and the characteristics of the students, how should a program of career exploration be organized? Almost immediately there comes to mind the suggestion that the program be varied in nature and that it be actively centered.

No attempt will be made here to review the vast variety of career exploration programs which are now operational in school systems throughout the land. Many fine and apparently successful programs are being conducted. A characteristic of successful programs appears to be variety; that is, their individual uniquenesses speak to the needs of their clientele and the resources of the schools and communities. Descriptions of these various programs abound in current career education literature. (Dzurenda, 1969; Gambino, 1972; Lecht, 1969; Mathney, 1969; McElroy, 1972; North Carolina Dept. of Public Instruction, 1970; Ward, 1972).

It does seem appropriate that characteristics which describe an ideal program be presented here. The following are suggested as basic to a career exploration program which would truly accomplish the desired objectives.

(1) All students would explore all occupations through the use of clusters of occupations or some other organizing structure.
(2) Segments of the program would be offered at each grade level.
(3) The program at each grade level would be coordinated within that grade and among all of the grades involved.
(4) All subject areas would contribute to the program.
(5) Counselors and teachers would work in close harmony in the development and offering of such a program.
(6) Special courses in career exploration would be supplemented with activities in other courses and in counseling activities.
(7) Teachers and counselors would be knowledgeable about many areas of work.
(8) Teachers and counselors would be skilled in relating to students in terms of various values and desires different from their own.
(9) Individualization of instruction would be prominent.
(10) A variety of suitable materials, especially designed for career exploration at this level, would be available to both students and teachers.
(11) A variety of persons representing a variety of occupations would become active participants in planning and offering the program.
(12) The presentation of factual and informative materials would be balanced with activities in which students can discover their own interests and abilities and at the same time gain further insight into the occupations.
(13) Counselors, teachers, students, and parents would work in close harmony in the evaluation and upgrading of the program.
(14) The program would provide for an in-depth exploration of a career cluster or occupational family whenever a student is ready for it.
(15) The program would be seen as enhancing and enriching all curriculum areas as well as abetting the counseling process.

In reality, factors may be in operation which mitigate against the establishment of the ideal program. In such cases, the very best kind of program possible within the constraints of the local district should be offered. The need is too great and the outcomes too important for such programs to go unoffered. Constraints which might have to be faced, and hopefully overcome, in a local situation include the following:

(1) Attitudes of counselors and teachers.
(2) Lack of understanding of the career development needs of youth.
(3) Lack of suitable materials and other resources.
(4) Lack of knowledgeable personnel to conduct the program.
(5) Rigidity in present curricula which stifles innovations.

Alternatives to the ideal program include the possibility of one or more departments or teachers who move ahead on their own. If this should be the case in any school district, efforts to move toward the ideal program should be tried first and should not be disbanded even through such efforts are unsuccessful at first. The Business Education Department or the business teacher, for instance, might carry the message for career exploration to the administrator and/or the counselor. Failure to initiate a total program should not result in nothing being done. An "Exploration of Careers in Business" course might be proposed for a starter. Such a course could be a forerunner to other efforts within the school system, possibly establishing a model for others to follow. Such a course could present a basic approach to exploring careers in office and dis-

tributive occupations followed by modules which would permit students to explore in greater depth two or more of the families of occupations identified within the business and distributive clusters (Ristau, 1973).

CAREER EXPLORATION ACTIVITIES

A characteristic of any career exploration program should be its provision for student-centered activities. Activities suitable for incorporation into a career exploration program should be both curricular and non-curricular. In describing an exemplary program conducted in New Jersey, Thomas Gambino expresses a belief in a wide variety of settings and techniques for career exploration (Gambino, 1972). Included in the New Jersey program were the following:

1. Career Clubs.
2. Part-time Jobs.
3. Summer Career Exploration Programs.
4. Introduction to Vocations (IV) Programs in a wide range of occupational areas.
5. A "Know Yourself" Career Guidance Unit.
6. A Video Recorder in Career Counseling.
7. Career Resource Centers.

Other activities will come to our minds as we ponder the possibilities. "Day-at-the-job" programs, minicourses providing volunteer and paid short-term work experience, career fairs, career days, business and industry days, and exploratory field trips might be included in our list of activities.

The exploration program must do more than present activities. It must put all of the activities together into a purposeful and unified program. Activities should complement each other and be seen as part of the total program. In isolation, each of the activities should be worthy of merit. United into a planned and coordinated program, however, their individual worth should be enhanced. The value of the total program will be greater than the sum of value of its parts.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

The role of occupational or career information in the total effort to meet identified needs should not be overlooked. It is essential that the information be factual, relevant, and suitable to students of this grade level; and it must be readily available.

Occupational or career information must be seen in its proper perspective: it is a means to an end itself (Keller, 1972). Providing information and making it readily accessible to students and teachers, although of great importance, does not in itself constitute the program desired. An organized program can help assure that students will use the information in a meaningful way.

Occupational information might be collected and made available in a number of different ways. A career information center has considerable merit if it is readily accessible and facilitates program activity. A working model of a career information center was developed in Massachusetts. It includes services that lend themselves to career conferences, career television and radio programs, career tape recordings and career filmstrips (U.S. Dept. of Health, 1969).

Career corners have been organized in instructional materials centers, libraries, and cafeteria areas of some schools. Although simpler in concept than the more formal career information center, the collection and dissemination of materials is facilitated. Student participation on an informal basis is encouraged.

Both locally-produced materials and commercially-produced materials are appropriate for use. Publications of the United States Government are available in many special career fields as well as in the general field of career exploration (U.S. Dept. of Labor, 1968; 1970-71). Organizations, such as the National Business Education Association, offer some specially prepared materials in the fields of speciality to which they relate (Byrnside & Wykle).

Whatever information is used, certain characteristics should be looked for in the materials. The following appear worthy of consideration; they were developed in a workshop by a group of teachers who were studying career exploration programs. Occupational information for career exploration should be:

1. accurate and factual, free from a glamorized oversell approach;
2. current, and identifiable as such;
3. capsulized, with essential information included;
4. written at an appropriate reading level, generally seventh grade;
5. easily updated, through looseleaf supplements, etc.;
6. based on identifiable and reliable sources;
7. illustrated to enhance and augment the reading process;
8. presented in an easily-read, inviting format.

A PANORAMA OF OBJECTIVES

The basic premise of this paper is that the junior high school years are appropriate for "career exploration plus."

The preceding discussion of career exploration demonstrates the breadth of the subject. Possibilities for program structure and activities seem limited only by the imagination of the organizers and participants.

An illustration of objectives appropriate to grades seven, eight and nine appear in publications developed in the CCEM project. Local guides developed by schools implementing the Wisconsin Guide also illustrate the variety of possibilities for the total program at this level. The following are selected from among that panorama of objectives. They will help to demonstrate what might be incorporated into the career education program at the junior high educational level (Career Education, 1972; Center for Vocational Education, 1972).

OBJECTIVES DEVELOPED IN THE CCEM PROJECT

Grade Seven, Beginning Competency:

The student will become familiar with the use of basic tools, equipment, and materials associated with business, commercial, and industrial activities.

1. The student will use a variety of tools, equipment, and materials needed to perform various tasks.
2. The student will apply his understanding of the various properties of tools, equipment, and materials.
3. The student will refine his understanding of safety as related to tools, equipment, and materials.
4. The student will use complex tools, equipment, and materials in a safe manner.
5. The student will develop the competency or expertise needed to use tools, equipment, and materials.

Grade Seven, Decision Making:

The student will identify and state personal career goals.

1. The student will recognize that having personal goals that involve self, school occupation, leisure time, education, and organizational membership requires making decisions.
2. The student will understand that personal characteristics influence decision making and will explore career clusters in relationship to personal goals and decision making.

Grade Eight, Career Awareness:

The student will recognize that his career development includes progression through stages of educational and occupational experiences.

1. The student will recognize career potential variables that influence job change and advancement.
2. The student will define differences in entry requirements for career fields.

The student recognizes how careers become specialized and vary on the basis of the complexity of social values and geographic locations. He recognizes occupational requirements as they relate to functioning in terms of data, people, things and that choice, mobility, and advancement are related to preparation. He understands how differences in lifestyle are related to personal values and occupational choice.

Grade Eight, Beginning Competency

The student will develop the skills required to identify the objectives of a task, specify resources required, outline procedures, perform operations, and evaluate the product.

1. The student will identify problem-solving situations in a career area.
2. The student will demonstrate his understanding that skills must develop from the simple to the complex.
3. The student will specify resources which will be required in an assigned project and organize sub-task sequence.

Grade Nine, Educational Awareness:

The student becomes aware that learning can apply to his use of time throughout life. He learns that educational preparation for various careers may take different forms. He accepts simulation as a means of learning job skills and examining a tentative job choice.

Grade Nine, Employability Skills:

The student recognizes the difference between entry-level jobs and jobs which have career ladders. He collects and organizes information related to his employability in selected occupational areas and demonstrates skills basic to career placement.

Grade Nine, Career Awareness:

The student will recognize that his career development includes progression through stages of educational and occupational experiences.

1. The student will define the expected performance requirements of specific careers.
2. The student will analyze the entry requirements for selected career areas.

Grade Nine, Employability Skills:

The student will develop the work habits and attitudes necessary to enter an occupation in the career area of his choice.

1. The student will develop attitudes consistent with task completion.
2. The student will use social and communication skills appropriate for an employment interview.
3. The student will demonstrate communication, writing, and research skills appropriate for career placement.

OBJECTIVES DEVELOPED IN IMPLEMENTATION OF WISCONSIN GUIDE (Career Education, 1972; Drier, 1972)

Grades Seven-Nine, Occupations Exist For A Purpose:

Given a clear definition and introduction to self concept, students will comprehend the idea that one's self concept is very clearly defined through the success of one's activities, especially work, and that success is a personal thing.

Grades Seven-Nine, Work Means Different Things to Different People:

Given an insight and an opportunity to investigate the benefits of work experience programs, the student will comprehend that these programs can have important exploratory values. Given an awareness that value is a relative and multi-faceted concept and

transferring this awareness to everyday life situations, the student will identify a variety of values provided by work experience.

Grades Seven-Nine, Occupational Supply and Demand Has an Impact on Career Planning:

Given an occupation, the student will be able to list how government, seasonal work, economic cycles, and changing sex roles will stimulate or retard the occupation.

Grades Seven-Nine, Occupations and Life Styles Are Interrelated:

The student will discover that some individuals are attracted to careers because of observed life styles of certain workers.

Grades Seven-Nine, Individuals Are Responsible for Their Career Planning:

Given the high school curriculum, the student will be able to prepare a high school program according to his area of career interest.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The transitional years of the junior high educational level provide some unique opportunities to relate to the career development of youth. With a focus on the student as an individual and based on sound career development theory, programs of career exploration can meet a significant need.

Although career exploration is appropriate for emphasis and concentration of effort as a program activity for junior high students, other aspects of career education must also be treated. Career education models suggest input-output relationships and present the total program conceptually.

Career exploration programs must satisfy the need for both basic and in-depth exploration. Occupational clusters and career information centers are important considerations in the implementation of desired programs. Decision-making and career planning must be based on factual data.

The need for developing career exploration programs and relating to the career development needs of youth is not a new one. With its new found spotlight in the career education program, career exploration programs should have a bearing on future educational planning. Business and distributive educators have much to offer such programs, both in terms of planning and implementation. Whether accomplished as part of a total program or as a program by itself, the exploration of careers in the business and distribution clusters should be made available to students at the junior high educatonal level of development.

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OBJECTIVES FOR CAREER EDUCATION IN OFFICE EDUCATION

Louise J. Keller

Chairman, Department of Vocational Education
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, Colorado

INTRODUCTION

One of the principal advantages of having as the title of an address, "Objectives for Career Education in Office Education," is that virtually anything you want to say can be subsumed under such a nice rhetorical umbrella. However, when attempting to fashion the substance of my thirty-minute presentation, I was somewhat bewildered at where to start. I began by changing the title of my topic from "Objectives for Career Education in Office Subjects" to "Objectives for Career Education in Office Education." We have far too long perceived our role to be that of a teacher of subject matter, not as a facilitator of career development within a comprehensive program design.

An assumption was made that the characteristics of career education would provide the criteria needed for evaluating and determining career development objectives for office education. Characteristics of career education, K-12, that have appeared in the literature are listed below [*Reinhart, 1972; Keller, 1972*]:

- —Program designs and operations are non-traditional.
- —Students have an opportunity to become aware of, explore, and prepare for multiple job opportunities.
- —Subject matter is integrated and correlated to provide an interdisciplinary experience which is more understandable and relevant for many students.
- —Human development services such as career guidance, counseling, directed part-time occupational experience, and follow-up services in the field for early school leavers and graduates enhance and support the total educational enterprise.
- —Adjunct community helpers and paraprofessional personnel are utilized.
- —Professional teachers are involved in new coordinating roles and role relationships.
- —Curricula are performance based.

One need not examine the literature in any degree of depth to discover that business education programs exist which exemplify many of these same characteristics. There are innovative simulation programs; awareness and exploration type courses; block time approaches which stress the integration and correlation of subject matter; expanded work-study and cooperative vocational education programs; utilization of paraprofessionals, especially in large typing classes; concern for community relationships and expanded utilization of advisory committees; and literature which reveals that our curriculum is becoming performance based.

Yet with all these activities, little attention has been given to a comprehensive career education model at the senior high school level. Most of the activities we call career education are developing in the elementary and middle schools.

Finally, after numerous attempts to get hold of the assigned topic, the decision was made to synthesize synoptic ideas which appear in the literature regarding career education as well as office education, using the characteristics of career education previously mentioned as guideposts for determining goals and objectives for career education in office education. My approach, though rational or logical in nature, does lack the research foundation sophistication one would hopefully expect. Research projects that continue to influence my thinking are the final reports from NOBELS (New Office and Business Education Learnings Systems) and Erickson's *Basic Components of Office Work* study.

These reports and other synoptic ideas have been organized under four major headings: (1) A Definition of Career Education, (2) Some Implications of Career Education for Business Education, (3) Topic Limitations, and (4) Goals and Objectives.

A DEFINITION OF CAREER EDUCATION

I have always contended that one cannot design, develop, and implement career education activities at any level if he cannot define career education for himself. There have been many definitions enounced, but the following is one I have established for myself.

> Career education is that part of the school's curriculum and instruction which focuses on the development of individuals for their social and economic roles in life, these roles being the work role, home/community/citizenship roles, as well as the avocational/leisure roles in life.

This definition is much broader than preparation for one's work role. A "careers curriculum" considers all the important roles in life [Reinhart, 1972; Goldhammer, 1972]. The curriculum design and instructional practices may at any given time stress one role more than another role. The work role may well be the major focus for many youngsters.

Career education can be examined for its content and process objectives. The process is often referred to in the literature as career development. Theories of career development which have emerged over the past several decades have affected significantly the

conceptualization of career education. The process of career development is perceived as transitional stages. These stages may also be cyclic for many individuals [Keller, 1972]. These transitional stages include:

—Awareness [of self and career roles].
—Explorations [to discover self and career roles].
—Identification [with career roles].
—Preparation [for career roles—the work role to include vocational preparation as well as professional preparation].
—Career Assessment and Recycling.

Many of the career education models that have been conceptualized show the "awareness" stage to be a primary concern for the elementary school, the "explorations" stage to be the primary concern of the junior high school. There needs to be an awareness/explorations experience at all levels of education. Doctoral students often need a career awareness and exploration experience before identifying and preparing for new work roles in education.

Career education wherever implemented has brought about changes in program designs and in the teaching-learning processes. Therefore, let us look at some of the implications career education has for business education. These implications will be expressed in a very positive and predictable manner.

SOME IMPLICATIONS OF CAREER EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

The *mission* of business education will be perceived in a new and expanded developmental mode which begins in the elementary and continues through adult education programs which are school-based as well as home-based and business-based.

The two broad *goals* of business education—preparation for personal business living and preparation for business and office work—will both take on new dimensions. The so-called general business/personal living courses will become part of a system-wide program for human development and for citizenry preparation for the twenty-first century. A business educator will join multi-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary teams to support such learning modules as: communications, courts and correction systems, fine arts, humanities, financial systems, transportation, social psychology, society and work, social assistance and rehabilitation, development and control of physical man-made environments, health delivery systems, and consumer education.

The role of business education as related to the *preparation* of individuals for careers in business and office will also be restructured and its program components greatly expanded. The training program will be performance-based and stratified as to levels of competencies [U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1970]. These stratified levels, which have been identified by manpower studies, permit learners to enter an office education program on any day of the year, exit with ease, and return with ease. These stratified levels also permit program articulation between secondary and post-secondary institutions.

Level I represents entry office skilled positions with upgrading experiences to lower supervisory positions. Level II positions represent entry office technical positions with upgrading to specialized supervisory and administrative management. Level II training should be part of the community college/post-secondary schools' mission. Level III is the recognition that there are professional office positions, and preparation programs are needed. These programs should prepare individuals for entry office administrative positions with upgrading to high level supervisory management positions. Career education should strengthen the concept of professional careers in the office world. Four-year educational institutions that have been concerned with the growth of secretarial training programs in the community colleges should rethink their office career development mission and perhaps for the first time turn to a new clientele—the experienced office worker that has not been properly served—and establish a program which gives real support to the idea that there is "professionalism" in office work.

Each of the three levels mentioned will include an awareness/explorations experience, a competency-based core program, and a number of occupational training options and alternative training modes.

Another major implication career education has for business education is the strengthening and expanding of career development *services*. These services will require the reallocation of limited resources by the business education department to provide career guidance, counseling, job development, and placement activities. These services should not be considered the responsibility of the schools' counselors. New facilities, new organizational patterns for maximizing the utilization of limited resources, and new types of inservice education are all conceivable if we become involved in a comprehensive career education thrust at the senior high school level. These are just a few of the implications career education has for business education.

TOPIC LIMITATIONS

There are several important limitations placed on this topic. Office education is now perceived as a career development continuum beginning in the elementary grades and expanding its programmatic operations through each grade level and into new adult education patterns of teaching and learning. This paper, however, will focus on goals and objectives for career education in office education at the senior high school level or for area career development centers now being established in rural areas as well as in some large cities.

Another importantant limitation has to do with the type of goals and objectives delineated. The focus is on goals and objectives which give direction to de-

signing and implementing a comprehensive career development program for office positions in the world of work.

Goals and Objectives for an Office Education Career Development Program

There are four goals for an Office Career Development Program. All four goals reflect career education concerns expressed in the literature. The goals also support the mission of office education, which is to prepare, place, and facilitate job advancement of learners who are capable of preparing for careers in office work.

The goals for an office career development program are as follows:

1. To provide an office education program which considers the principles of human growth and development, manpower and human needs, and office research findings.
2. To facilitate career development through structure—the organization of resources (people, things, and data).
3. To provide a comprehensive service component which is an integral part of all programmatic operations.
4. To establish a personnel (staff) development program for all school and adjunct personnel involved in the office career development program.

These goals reflect a major concern for the identification of goals and objectives which will assist educators to design and implement career education. Since the late 1950's there have been a number of interesting studies which have attempted to measure the extent to which innovations have been adopted both in the nation as a whole and in individual schools and school systems. Pellegrin (1968) found that effective innovation must be preceded by fundamental changes in education organization. Arthur D. Little, Inc. (1968) assessed the usefulness of several models for innovation adoption and concluded that innovation adoption can occur only in the presence of an initiating mechanism (a plan) and a sustaining mechanism (a viable program and supportive services). These goals also reflect some of these concerns.

The four goals have been further explicated as sub-goals and objectives. As you well know, there are process objectives which refer to programmatic operations, and there are product objectives which refer to changes in behavior of individuals. The objectives given in this presentation will be process objectives, and they represent some of the goals and objectives for an Officer Career Development Program. No attempt has been made to establish product objectives.

Goal 1 TO PROVIDE AN OFFICE EDUCATION PROGRAM WHICH CONSIDERS THE PRINCIPLES OF HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT, MANPOWER AND HUMAN NEEDS, AND OFFICE EDUCATION RESEARCH FINDINGS

Sub-Goals

1. Conduct community manpower surveys, compare with state and national manpower data, review research findings, and present information to the school's office manpower development for utilization by advisory council for program recommendations.
2. Complete "Learners' Needs Assessment Profiles" at the entry point to the program and review the profile at regular intervals with individual learner
3. Establish an Office Career Development Program in the school or area secondary school to provide specifically for:
   a. The equipping of each learner who desires and can benefit from the experience with an office training program to enable him to reach short-range or long-range goals.
   b. The intensifying of the counseling-placement function to insure that each learner is prepared to obtain employment in an office or is prepared to enter more advanced training.
   c. The expanding of opportunities for cooperative education and work-study programs.
   d. The including of a program for intensive training for learners who have decided to leave school prior to graduation or who did not establish a career preparation objective until their junior/senior year in school.
   e. Organizing the Office Career Development Program into three sequential components:
      (1) An awareness and exploration component
      (2) A Basic Office Training Core Program
      (3) Office Preparation Clusters (specialized career development options)
   f. Supporting the program by a new organizational structure composed of people, things, and data (delineated under other goal statements).

Enabling Objectives

1. Identify Level I, Level II, and Level III office positions as to (a) position title, (b) number employed, (c) job descriptions, (d) critical decisions made by employee, (e) industrial classification, (f) turnover/retention factors, (g) wage and promotional factors, (h) role relationships, and (i) personal characteristics.
2. Assess the learner's needs as to three major areas of educational concern: (a) career development needs to reach short-range and long-range goals, (b) basic education knowledges, skills, attitudes needed by the individual to survive within his social environment, and (c) human development (personal) needs and desires.
3. Provide awareness and exploration experiences for those students who need inquiry and decision-making experiences before advancing within the Basic Office Training Core Program.
4. Organize a Basic Office Training Core Program in at least nine competency-based modules: (a) office environments and services, (b) oral communications, (c) typing communications, (d) computing, (e) office data and paper flow, (f) coping behavior, (g) human relations, (h) leadership development, (i) career development—a personalized learning module to meet the competency needs of the individual.
5. Organize Level I Office Preparation Program into office clusters: (a) word processing, (b) number pro-

cessing, (c) reprographics processing, (d) management/pre-professional planning.

6. Provide for simulated and actual world-of-work office experience as "capstone" experiences for trainees moving through the Basic Training Core Program and specialized cluster training programs.

Goal 2 TO FACILITATE CAREER DEVELOPMENT THROUGH STRUCTURE—THE ORGANIZATION OF RESOURCES (People, Things, and Data)

Sub-Goals

1. Organize human resources into teams—a *direct instruction team* and *support teams*.
2. Organize facilities for people, things, and data.
3. Design teaching-learning environments outside the formal school setting: home-based, business-based, community-guidance center-based.

Enabling Objectives

1. Differentiate as to roles and responsibilities—a direct-instruction team to be composed of: (a) a team leader, (b) assistant team leader, (c) teachers (number will depend on such factors as program offerings, enrollment), (d) paraprofessionals, (e) interns, (f) teacher aides, (g) volunteers (trained by local LEA), and (h) Office Teacher Education Cadets from high school or community college cooperative pre-professional education programs.
2. Differentiate as to roles and responsibilities for support personnel. Examples of support personnel are: (a) office teacher-counselor (*See* Goal 3), (b) office education specialist in computer-assisted instruction, (c) office education multi-media curriculum specialist, (d) school artist (e) material editor, (f) multi-media production specialists, (g) media librarian, (h) lay advisers assigned to the school from business and industry.
3. Establish within the formal school setting an Office Career Development Center which is organized for interacting environments:
   a. *Information and Dissemination Environment* to consist of a reception area, a large conference area, several small seminar and inquiry study rooms, office education library, and a resource dissemination station.
   b. *Guidance and Evaluation Environment* to house: (1) teacher-counselors, (2) training advisers assigned to school from business and industry, (3) computer terminal and other hardware for student data management.
   c. *Materials Creation Environment* for production of multi-media curriculum materials.
   d. *Awareness and Exploration Office Laboratory* to provide office work stations to which groups or individuals may be assigned for self-discovery and decision-making experiences.
   e. *Simulated Office Environments* for each specialized cluster: (1) word processing laboratory, (2) number processing laboratory, (3) reprographics laboratory, and (4) management and pre-professional conference environment.
   f. *Faculty and Support Staff Office Environments* which are contiguous to the learning environments.
4. Establish an Area Instructional Materials Center with a division for Office Education which provides for:
   a. Acquisition and dissemination of commercially prepared instructional materials.
   b. Creation of multi-media instructional materials.
   c. Storage and dissemination of multi-media activity packets created by teachers and state colleges and universities.
   d. Adaptation of materials for instructional teams or for individuals enrolled in self-directed programs which are home-based or business-based.
   e. Validation of new materials and instructional materials through contractual arrangements with local LEAs.

Goal 3 TO PROVIDE A COMPREHENSIVE SERVICE COMPONENT WHICH IS AN INTEGRAL PART OF ALL PROGRAMMATIC OPERATIONS

Sub-Goals

1. Organize a Guidance and Evaluation component which will:
   a. Recruit and orient learners to the office education programs.
   b. Provide learners with experiences and information that present office occupational dimensions accurately and representatively.
   c. Provide special assistance to the awareness/exploration program staff so that learners may have an opportunity to make decisions, discuss and examine the decision-making process, and understand the basis for judging the quality of their decisions.
   d. Conduct need assessments directed at people—include learners, office employees in the community, and faculty and staff employed for the office education programs.
   e. Establish, maintain, and improve learner data/information system.
   f. Plan and utilize the services of lay advisers from business and industry.
   g. Coordinate a comprehensive job development and placement service which includes:
      (1) *Developmental activities* to prepare the learner both cognitively and affectively.
      (2) *Transitional activities* designed to assist the student in making the move from the awareness/exploration stage to the Basic Office Training Core Program or to some other program in the school.
      (3) *Bridging activities* designed to assist the student to move from a sheltered environment(s) to actual office world-of-work activities.
   h. Administer all competency examinations and other tests.
   i. Manage all office career extension, continuing education, and inservice education for faculty and staff and field service activities.
   j. Seek help for individuals who have special needs.
   k. Represent the department on school and system-wide guidance and counseling committees.
   l. Establish an internal and external advisory system for maintaining and improving the guidance and evaluation services.
2. Organize an Information and Dissemination Envi-

ronment which provides the following services: A central focus for learners and visitors to direct questions, make appointments with staff personnel, secure self-directed study materials from the resource dissemination station, and arrange for use of small or large conference rooms.
3. A Materials Creation Environment which contributes to the personalization of office education.
4. Provide the local community with multi-media home study programs through its library or community guidance center.
5. Allowance for other learners within the schools, as well as citizens from the community, to utilize the facilities and self-directed programs at assigned times of the day, evening, and weekends.
6. Quarterly open competency examinations.
7. Cooperation with the Area Instructional Materials Center and the Colleges/Universities in the validation of instructional materials.
8. A "planned" internship program for prospective office education teachers.
9. Service on career education curriculum committees, K-Adult Education.

Enabling Objectives

1. Create appropriate situations for the learners involved in the awareness/exploration program which include:
   a. Opportunity to take one or more standardized tests; for example:
      S.R.A. Primary Mental Abilities
      Schubert General Ability Test
      Thurstone Test of Mental Alertness
      Wonderlic Personnel Test
      Wesman Personnel Classification Test
      S.R.A. Short Tests of Clerical Ability
      S.R.A. Clerical Aptitudes Test
      Short Employment Tests
      Minnesota Clerical Aptitudes Test
      Kuder Preference Record—Vocational
      Strong Vocational Interest Test
      S.R.A. Survey of Interpersonal Values
      Gordon Personal Profile
      Gordon Personal Inventory
      Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey
      Supervisory Inventory of Human Relations
      Supervisory Index
      GATB—General Aptitude Test Battery
      OVIS—Ohio Vocational Interest Survey
   b. Opportunity to make a short-range and long-range career development blueprint.
   c. Opportunity to discuss career plans (blueprint) with professional staff and adjunct advisory teams.
   d. Opportunity to revise plans and judge the quality of one's decision.
2. Provide opportunities for full-time and part-time lay advisers to serve as: (a) group and individual career counselors, (b) work models, (c) team members for advising learners involved in awareness/exploration experiences, (d) teacher assistants, (e) laboratory supervisors, (f) role players, (g) competency examiners.
3. Supervise all job observations, hands-on exploratory experiences in business and industry.
4. Assign learner to a faculty and lay office advisory team for program planning and related office experiences. Evaluate learner's progress chart and approve the next step within a given stage of development.
5. Place and coordinate all work-study, internship, and cooperative vocational education programs.

Goal 4 TO ESTABLISH A PERSONNEL (STAFF) DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR ALL SCHOOL AND ADJUNCT PERSONNEL INVOLVED IN THE OFFICE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Sub-Goals

1. Develop for each instructional and support team member a self-improvement training plan.
2. Assist state teacher training institutions in establishing a local "Teacher Education Preparation and Renewal Center" for providing preservice and inservice education.
3. Provide preservice and inservice training programs for differentiated staffing teams to maximize program effectiveness.
4. Establish standing inservice education committee for office education, K-12/14.
5. Provide adjunct training programs for all volunteers, lay advisers, and on-the-job supervisors.

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OBJECTIVES FOR CAREER EDUCATION IN GENERAL BUSINESS SUBJECTS

John E. Clow

Department of Business Education
Southern Illinois University
Edwardsville, Illinois

Jerome Bruner, noted authority on child development and the nature of learning, recently stated that "the neuroses of the young are far more likely to revolve around work than around sex." The delay of vocational or job decisions fostered by our school system has provided difficulty for students to identify themselves in adult roles. He suggests that the "first order of business in the transformation of our mode of education is to revolutionize and revivify this idea of vocation or occupation" (Bruner, 1973).

Others have indicated this same belief. The career education movement certainly is a means to reorient American education. All levels and subjects in our schools are to focus upon career education. As indicated by Sidney Marland at the 1971 Convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the false dichotomy between things academic and things vocational should cease (Marland, 1971). All subjects should be providing learning experiences which assist the student in selecting and assuming fulfilling career roles.

As indicated in earlier presentations, many different definitions have been given for career education. One definition which is comfortable for me is that career education has three broad objectives namely:

1. Learning to Live
2. Learning to Learn
3. Learning to Make a Living (see Reference 1).

This definition is much broader in scope than others that have been suggested.

Basic business subjects, such as general business, economics, business law, consumer economics, business principles and management, and economic geography, have important roles to play in fostering career education. The nature of these roles and procedures for implementation in basic business classes will be considered.

LEARNING TO LIVE

Cooperative Attitude and Ability

Basic business courses can assist the student to learn how to live in a number of ways. An ability to cooperate and to work with others is a prime requirement for fulfillment in community, family, and occupational life. Utilization of student-centered teaching techniques, such as panel discussions and other group projects, can assist in developing these traits.

Dignity of Work

The dignity of work is another important element to be emphasized. In recent years, the Protestant work ethic has been critized. We have seen instances where the ethic was overemphasized. Still, there is a satisfaction to be gained from a job well done. Students should realize the benefits from their own work in basic business classes through experiences aimed at their interest and ability levels.

Consumer Competency

Another important factor of learning to live involves the family unit. Most basic business students will marry and start their own families. All of us realize that the presence of family discord many times has an effect on the performance and satisfaction gained from our occupation. If "things are going badly at home," the effects seem to seep into our occupational life.

One of the prime reasons for family discord is poor money management. Too many Americans have adopted the misconception that the only way to increase one's real income is to earn more money. Wise money management is considered by too few people as a means to increase real income.

Many materials have been published to teach for consumer competency, a number of them being free or inexpensive. Consumer education curriculum guides have been developed by several states, including New York, Illinois, and Georgia.

The development of consumer competency has far-reaching effects. It influences the actions of the family members both within and outside the home. The effects of wise consumership in the home also may be apparent in the consumer habits of offspring as they build their own family unit in the future.

Economic and Legal Literacy

Rules and regulations are also a part of living. Besides the development of morals, there are laws which affect the lives of each citizen. There are rules of the economic system which a person should understand, especially in a country such as the United States where the citizens have a voice in the operation and regulation of the economy. Do students realize that it is their responsibility to register complaints of faulty merchandise? Do they take action when defrauded? Do they realize that the laws can

be changed, such as the holder-in-due course doctrine which is currently being challenged in several states? Do they study the political issues of a campaign to determine the effect of proposed social policies on the economy? Do students know why there are dissimilar wage levels for different occupations? Do they realize that the consumer advocate and advertising executive positions would not be found in a government-dictated economy, such as the Soviet Union? Basic business teachers have the responsibility of preparing students to assume their roles as a supporter and an agent for change in our economic and legal systems. This is a part of living in our country.

A number of materials can be obtained for teaching economic and legal concepts. Few materials are available which develop economic learnings from the viewpoint of the individual as a worker/income-earner. Dr. Darcy and Dr. Powell through the Joint Council on Economic Education devised an economics course from this perspective. The 75-lesson guide entitled *Manpower and Economic Education* is aimed at helping students develop an understanding of the economic process and the role of work in the life of man. Through these activities, students explore how they can enhance their future employability, productivity, earnings, and work satisfaction by investing in the development of their own knowledge, skill, motivation, and behavior pattern. The materials are geared for the high school and adult levels and could be utilized in basic business courses (Darcey & Powell, 1970).

Problem-Solving Process

Problems are another part of life. Students should be able to use the problem-solving approach to cope with their difficulties. This process should be developed in basic business courses as well as courses in other areas. The problem-solving teaching technique along with appropriate case studies could be utilized to develop this competency. Problems that could be considered include: what career should I choose and what should be done to deter high unemployment rates in our country.

Leisure-Time Utilization

With the introduction of the shorter work week, the worthwhile utilization of leisure time is becoming increasingly important. The old saying "all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" is a truism. No avocational pursuits may mean Jack is dull not only in his occupational life but in his role as a family member and citizen.

Basic business subjects should include experiences whereby students explore various uses of leisure time. Perhaps, the consumer economics course would be an appropriate place for these experiences, especially if consideration is given to the recreational forces vying for the consumer dollar. Students should also study the nature of beneficial and unrewarding leisure-time activities. Questions could be raised regarding how they might use their leisure time differently if employed in various occupations, such as a sedentary office position as contrasted with a physically active forest ranger position.

LEARNING TO LEARN

The second objective of career education is learning to learn. It is said that "man can live without air for seconds, without water for days, without food for weeks, and without ideas for years. A man without ideas lives an empty or shallow life." He is prone to shortchange his own innate ability. What a shame to waste such talent.

Learning Sources

Students should realize that ideas can be gained in many different ways. Activities in basic business classes should be structured so that the students are learning from such varied sources as relatives, businessmen, neighbors, other students, books and audiovisual aids. Frank Reissman and others in a recent book, *Children Teach Children*, report the findings of an experiment involving cross-tutoring, a name given for older children helping younger ones. They found that there was a considerable increase in the scholastic performance of the tutored children and a very considerable increase among the scholastic achievement of the tutors. Further, they discovered that there was an increase in self-worth and pride for both groups (Gartner, 1972).

Joy of Learning

Experiencing the joy of learning is necessary if the student is to continue his quest for knowledge. Students may experience joy through many activities in basic business classes, such as understanding how to read the stock quotation on the financial page and reconciling his bank account to find that his balance corresponds with the amount indicated by the bank. This joy of learning must be fostered not only in basic business classes but others as well.

LEARNING TO MAKE A LIVING

One major responsibility of basic business courses in preparing the student to make a living is to provide experiences whereby students can gain an orientation to the world of work with primary emphasis upon business occupations. Many students do not realize the wide range of business positions available in our economy. The requirements and responsibilities of various jobs are, in many instances, completely foreign to a great number of our students. Basic business subjects can serve to alleviate this situation through several means.

Occupational Unit

One way is to establish an occupational orientation

unit in a basic business course. According to several models of career education, career exploration and orientation experiences should be placed at the 7-10 grade level in the public school sequence. A basic business course offered in those grades could include an occupational unit. Often this course is general business.

Content and Techniques. In the unit, students should answer such questions as:

1. What are the careers and groups of careers available in business?
2. What are the requirements, responsibilities, and opportunities for advancement in these occupations? What are the reasons for varying levels of income for different jobs?
3. What is the outlook for employment in these positions? Why does the outlook change periodically?
4. What will be the emerging jobs which might provide occupational opportunities upon entrance into the working force? What prompts the introduction of new positions?
5. What career or careers are related to personal goals, interests, and apptitudes? What is necessary to prepare for that career or careers?
6. What is the decision-making process that should be used in selecting a career?

Appraisal of these questions indicates that a variety of student activities could be provided in the orientation unit, such as:

1. Performance of simulated or actual work tasks of selected business occupations.
2. Observation of individuals performing responsibilities in various occupations.
3. Analysis of positions through library research.
4. Communication with workers in various business occupations regarding the requirements and responsibilities of their positions.
5. Analysis of one's interests, goals, and abilities.
6. Practice of the decision-making process of career choice-making with concomitant planning.
7. Analysis of the economic factors affecting the labor force.

Materials. Many different materials have been developed to be used in this unit. Both of the "top-selling" general business texts devote several chapters to career development. *The Occupational Outlook Handbook, Encyclopedia of Careers,* and *SRA's Occupational Kit* are other helpful references. The previously mentioned Joint Council on Economic Education publication, *Manpower and Economic Education,* would also be beneficial.

Several learning activity packets (LAPS) have been developed by individuals to be used in an occupational orientation unit. At the American Vocational Association Convention in December, 1972, Dr. Ruth Woolschlager of Northern Illinois University reported on the utilization of two LAPS that she and Dr. Thomas Garman developed and used at a middle school in DeKalb, Illinois. One of them provided for the broad exploration of careers in general and of job success. The second one focused on the purposes and functions and the broad spectrum of careers found in the business world (Woolschlager, 1972).

The description of these LAPS, along with others, will be enumerated in a forthcoming bulletin entitled *Career Education Ideas* to be published and distributed by the Illinois Business Education Association this spring. Other types of career education practices, such as simulations and role-playing situations, will be included in this publication.

During this last year, Dr. Robert E. Nelson of Illinois State University and I completed a curriculum guide for orientation to the careers in the business, marketing, and management cluster. The project was funded by the Illinois Division of Vocational and Technical Education. The purpose of the guide is to provide activities which enable the students to experience the tasks of a wide range of business occupations in order to determine possible career choices.

To give coverage of the entire range of business, marketing, and management occupations, it was found expedient to group the careers. This was deemed essential since there is a similarity and, in some instances, a duplication of job tasks among many business occupations. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (D.O.T.) was used as a basic source of information in developing the groupings. Since the categories of *Data, People,* and *Things* are considered the essential elements of involvement in any occupation, each career was classified according to the primary orientation of the position in regard to these elements.

To simplify the study of these careers, the occupations were separated into the office and marketing areas. Five families were delineated for each area. Every family unit included those jobs which involved a similar emphasis of working with *Data, People,* and/or *Things.*

Common job tasks of occupations in each family were then determined along with those responsibilities peculiar to one or more of the positions in the family. For example, the People-Things family in the office area included such occupations as cashiers, tellers, receptionists, and switchboard operators. Some of the common job tasks included: relates on a person-to-person basis with the public, operates machines and equipment quite extensively, and enters verbal and/or written data on record forms. Handling money and checks were determined to be the peculiar job tasks of the cashier and teller positions in this job family.

Student activities were then designed to illustrate the tasks in the job family. Whenever possible, students performed the actual or simulated work tasks. For example, the activities suggested for the job tasks, "relates on a person-to-person basis with the public," consisted of role-playing experiences which involved meeting friendly and disgruntled customers and clients. The teletrainer was used as the focus for one activity concerning the operation of machines and equipment. We did not recommend that the students perform the job tasks on machines

unless the equipment is easy to operate or students have had some previous machine training. Therefore, when considering such positions as duplicating machine operator and keypunch operator, the suggested activity was to provide student observation of machine manipulation.

The career guide also provides inventories to enable students to determine whether their interests, aptitudes, and goals are consistent with the requirements and responsibilities of various occupations. Provision is made for the practice of career decision-making and the development of a career plan.

The materials have been field tested in general business classes. Further field testing will be conducted this year. The materials will be ready for distribution in 1974 from the Illinois Division of Vocational and Technical Education in Springfield, Illinois (Nelson & Clow, 1972).

Career Orientation in Other Basic Business Units

Career information can be emphasized in many of the other basic business units. A few examples will follow.

In a business law class, a mock trial could provide career education experiences. A student with shorthand skill might serve as the court reporter. Others could be the judge, lawyer, and bailiff.

In consumer education classes, career experiences could be provided for such positions as consumer education teacher, consumer affairs investigator, consumer counselor, consumer researcher, consumer journalist, and paraprofessional consumer advocate (Bonnice, 1972). Many of these might be considered in the consumer rights and responsibilities unit. In the housing unit, students could write a paragraph describing the home or apartment in which they are living, a task performed by many real estate brokers. The development of a slogan or advertisement for a product could be one of the activities in the advertising unit.

A field trip to a bank is a common experience for many basic business classes. Determination of the roles and requirements of the different bank positions could be one of the major objectives of this activity. Many different free publications are available which emphasize occupations in a particular area. The Insurance Information Institute and the Internal Revenue Service, among others, have produced pamphlets which delineate the positions in each of their respective areas (IRS, 1970; Insurance Information Institute). Such publications could be used to emphasize careers in the insurance and tax units.

The career orientation activities that can be implemented into basic business units depend on the ingenuity of the teacher and his commitment to career education. The aforementioned examples are but a few of the many that could be utilized in basic business units.

Career Orientation as Independent Study

A third means by which career orientation can be implemented is through independent study. A student could survey the broad area of careers on his own and then give in-depth study to one or two occupations of special interest. The community should be an integral part of his learning center. A student should observe individuals at work, interview these workers, and, if possible, perform some of the activities in their positions. Generally, there is considerable student interest in this type of project since they are eager to know about the working world around them.

SUMMARY

Career education—what can be done to meet its objectives in basic business courses? We can provide many experiences which will assist the student in learning to live, learning to learn, and learning to make a living. The concept of career education seems to be accepted by most business educators. The hope is that "a little dab will do them" will not be the accepted philosophy of basic business educators toward career education. Many good ideas have been wholeheartedly accepted but halfheartedly implemented. Let's not have this happen to career education!

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OBJECTIVES OF CAREER EDUCATION FOR DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS

Harland E. Samson

Professor of Education and Business
University of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin

The principal concern of this paper is on the distributive occupations component of a career development program. It is recognized that considerable research and many valuable studies have been made on various aspects of distributive education. For example, many of the follow-up studies on graduates from D. E. programs contain significant information and important recommendations relating to the occupational characteristics of the field. The focus here, however, is on distributive career development and, to a somewhat lesser degree, on the occupations themselves. Thus, references are made to that literature which seems to have the most direct bearing on the topic.

THE CAREER EDUCATION CONCEPT

Over the past several years as career education has been expounded and explained it has often been said that career education is a concept in search of a definition. The term career education, as used in this paper, is broadly defined and totally encompassing as an educational effort. Such a definition would be:

> "Career education is the total effort of public education and the community aimed at helping all individuals to become familiar with the values of a work oriented society, to integrate these values into their personal value systems, and to implement these values in their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual" (Olympus, 1972).

The scope of career education has been stated in descriptive terms by Marland (1972):

> "Besides encompassing every school year, career education will include all students. They will learn about the wide range of career possibilities in our technologically advanced society. They will learn what is involved in getting a job and holding it. They will receive sound guidance and counseling to help them consider their interests and abilities in relation to potential careers. They will learn of the occupational needs of the nation, as projected. They will be helped to develop career decision-making skills. They will learn specific job skills. . ."

Several ways of accomplishing the intent of the objectives implied in the previous definition and description have been suggested in the numerous articles in professional journals. Many plans have already been implemented in school systems. Inherent in most is a developmental process which usually includes a sequence of: (1) self understanding, (2) awareness of work, (3) job exploration, and (4) occupational preparation.

It is accepted that career education must be integrated and articulated throughout the education structure (K-A). Individual development in awareness and experience is expected to be a continuous and coordinated process and, as with most aspects of education, a responsibility shared by the school and community.

DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS

The distributive occupations have traditionally been defined as those of proprietors and employees engaged in marketing or merchandising goods or services. These occupations are commonly found in retail, wholesale, manufacturing, or service firms. Distributive occupations may also be characterized as those concerned with performing or managing one or more of the basic marketing functions. (The functions associated with marketing have been categorized by the American Marketing Association as buying, selling, transportation, storage, standardization and grading, financing, risk taking, promotion, and market information [Committee on Definitions, 1960]. It should be noted that this definition covers, and is intended to cover, the numerous occupations connected with the development, sale, and movement of industrial products to persons or firms other than the ultimate consumer.

In terms of the number of people engaged in performance of these marketing functions, the 1970 census data (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1971) show that of the 70,660,000 persons in the non-agricultural labor force, about 34,500,000 are in the wholesale and retail trade, service, transportation and finance related occupations. Not all of these, of course, are engaged in marketing or merchandising (just as some of those classified in other occupations are probably performing marketing functions). The best estimates seem to indicate that about 35 percent of this labor force is engaged in distributive work and for about 27 percent, such work is their major activity. Even with this rather conservative allocation * distributive employment represents more than 1 out of 4 workers. The census data and almost all other national data fail to indicate clearly the nature or scope of work within the distributive field. This lack of manpower data is a serious deterent to accurate development of career information and to curricular planning.

*Similar rationale was used by Leroy Buckner in, "Projections for the Future," Chapter 13, *Business Education An Evaluative Inventory* National Business Education Yearbook, No 6, 1968 (pages 153-164) Buckner apparently used the total labor force (including agricultural workers) and estimated 30 percent in distributive occupations

Consistently overlooked in writings on distributive occupations and often in distributive education programming is the great number of people engaged in marketing in the industrial sector of the economy. Pingry (1973) syas, "When one considers that industrial marketing transactions total $1.3 trillion yearly and industrial sales are nearly equal to the total sales of retailers and wholesalers combined, there is relatively little research activity or published material."

DISTRIBUTIVE COMPETENCIES

The nature of jobs within the distributive field are described by Beaumont (1971):

> "The job levels open to individuals entering distribution are many and varied, according to the degree of responsibility and judgment the employee is capable of exercising. Some jobs are satisfying as ends in themselves; others are merely stepping stones to higher level jobs, although they do not necessarily represent an orderly progression to a predetermined job. Advancement is measured by an individual's total occupational experiences, by his social maturity, by the breadth of his marketing techniques, and by his specialization."

While this definition is representative of the field, such descriptions are not particularly helpful in planning either career development experiences or curriculums for occupational preparation. Some studies on specific distributive occupations have been undertaken, but these are largely degree type research efforts. Examples of specific distributive occupations studies would be Feed Salesmen (Albracht), Home Furnishing Sales (Sheeks), Automobile Sales (Van Blois), Industrial Sales (Klein), Retail Middle Management (Carmichael), Department Store Middle Managers (Samson), Sales Jobs (Eckerson), and Purchasing (Pinkerton). Unfortunately, these studies do not have a common design; thus the resultant findings provide little aid in getting an overall grasp of the totality of distributive occupations.

There are a few studies which have been conducted on a sufficiently broad base to provide meaningful guidelines to some aspects of distributive work. An occupational analysis by Crawford (1967) involved interviews with 76 workers and supervisors of these workers. From these structured interviews, the critical tasks were found in the jobs held and the competencies necessary to perform these tasks identified. Over 900 tasks were cross tabulated by jobs, by major competency areas, and also by areas of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. This work by Crawford is highly significant because (1) the scope of the study covers many of the common occupations in the merchandising area and, (2) it is a well executed piece of research. Ertel (1966) sampled 900 employees in 33 retail firms including both supervisory and non-supervisory personnel. Twelve categories of work were derived and 332 tasks identified. A study by Peck and Denman (1968) covered 250 firms in eight major areas of marketing with both employer and employee responses being collected. Peck and Denman ascertained the

important and non-important subject areas and concluded that distributive education curriculums could not cover all the needed subject areas.

Two additional studies of interest to those developing distributive career education programs would be the classical role study by Lombard (1955) and sales creativity research by Wallace (1964).

AWARENESS AND ENTRY INTO DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS

As disturbing as it may be to many of the distributive educators in this country, the fact remains that the great majority of the people entering distributive employment do so without benefit of formal preparation. Even more bothersome is the fact that many of these people perform quite well in their work and frequently advance to highly responsible positions. It would, of course, be unrealistic to expect that every person entering into distributive work would have preparatory training. It is ironic though that those who do complete course work in some aspect of marketing or distribution represent considerably less than 10 percent of those who gain distributive employment each year.

How do people learn about and find their way into distributive jobs? It seems that in the normal activities of day-to-day living, most people are exposed to a great many of the distributive jobs, particularly in retailing. Retailing is the largest single area of employment within the distributive field. The nature of work in retailing is such that a great number of young people get their first part-time as well as first full-time job in that area. The number of jobs at the basic or entry level is large, the prerequisite skills are minimal, and the turnover is high so that opportunities are prevalent in almost any business community. Wholesaling and industrial marketing are generally more difficult for young and inexperienced workers to enter. The service areas are often specialized, some requiring licensure, and thus difficult for the young and inexperienced to enter.

Frequent exposure to retail jobs does not mean that such work is understood by the general population. The high "visibility" of workers such as salespeople, cashiers, and deliverymen does contribute to their consideration by potential workers. The "invisible" marketing occupations such as purchasing agents, shipping clerks, copywriters, and credit analysts do not receive the same consideration. The visible/invisible phenomen exists also in the readings and instructional materials used in non-distributive courses. The examples, descriptions, and illustrations tend to be predominately in the obvious distributive occupations. Often such marketing and business oriented references are incomplete as well as misleading.

It would seem that inclusion of well conceived K-A career development programs would bring a more accurate and comprehensive picture of distributive work to those who may be inclined to pursue such employment. An important outcome of such an exposure to learners would be an improvement of the entire manpower structure in the distributive area.

THE DISTRIBUTIVE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The career development process for distributive occupations would not be unlike that for other occupational fields.[1] The goals for such a process would be similar to the eight that follow:

1. A comprehensive recognition of the variety of distributive careers.
2. Continuous opportunity to observe the complexities of distributive work operations.
3. A background of information from which the individual may derive a basis for planning and developing.
4. An acquaintanceship with the tools, processes, and materials with which the distributive worker must have knowledge.
5. Reinforcement of positive job behaviors and work values.
6. Involvement in individually selected distributive projects in planning, decision making and problem solving.[2]
7. Selection of appropriate programs or experiences to provide desired preparation.
8. Preparation for desired level and area of work within the distributive field.

The attainment of goals 1 through 5 would be primarily the result of interrelated efforts of the general education disciplines and a coordinated program of counseling. Goals 6 and 7 would be attained through joint work of the general education disciplines, counseling and the distributive education specialist. Goal 3 would be primarily attained through the vocational and/or technical distributive education curriculum.

PROPOSITIONS FOR PLANNING

There is national recognition for career education, and the individual states are giving such effort priority. Ultimately, however, implementation must be accomplished at the local level and within a given educational system. It is on the local level that objectives will be set and decisions made as to what will or will not be included regarding distributive careers. The propositions for planning that follow likewise can be considered of national concern, given priority by states, but ultimate delivery must be on the local level. Cooperation among state D. E. consultants, teacher educators, local supervisors and distributive teachers is deemed essential if the promise of career education is to be realized.

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[1] Comprehensive career development experiences are described by Harry N. Drier in "Career Development Activities Permeate Wisconsin Curriculum" *American Vocational Journal*, March, 1972, p. 39-41. The simplified list presented here is intended to be consistent with such plans.

[2] For a discussion of such experiences see Charles S. Winn, "Incremental Learning for Career Exploration in Distributive Education." *Business Education Forum*, December, 1972, p. 28-29.

Proposition 1. CAREER EDUCATION MUST BE A SHARED COMMITMENT

Career education is intended to transcend the entire educational system, touching every student regardless of age, and encompassing all occupational pursuits. Success of the endeavor depends on the dedication of every educator and the involvement of parents, family and community. The distributive educator must see himself as a member of a team with a common objective.

Proposition 2. VOCATIONAL AND CAREER EDUCATION MUST BE PRESENTED AS A COHERENT WHOLE

Distributive teacher educators and other leaders must adopt appropriate strategies to assure that vocational and career education is presented as a coherent whole. The commonalities of concern and preparation in vocational education must be developed and in turn these must be effectively integrated with the concept of career education. To the new teacher in preparation and to the experienced teacher, the presentation of the multifaceted dimensions of comprehensive career education must be both effective and efficient.

Proposition 3. UNDERSTANDING OF THE FREE ENTERPRISE SYSTEM IS ESSENTIAL

An understanding of the free enterprise system in a democratic society is an essential prerequisite to meaningful exposure to distributive careers. A fundamental understanding and appreciation of the profit motive, freedom of choice in all matters, the functioning of supply and demand, the working of a marketing economy, are all foundational blocks to an apperceptive base for meaningful consideration of distributive careers.

Proposition 4. DISTRIBUTIVE WORK LIFE STYLES MUST BE IDENTIFIED

Distributive career dimensions must cover a wide spectrum enveloping the whole person throughout his lifetime. These dimensions should deal with home, family and community occupational relationships. The centrality of occupation in life has an increasing influence on personal values and life style. Miller (1970) states, ". . . it is less how much you get or even how much you spend, but rather what you do on an occupational level which has the major influence on one's life style, especially for males." Distributive life styles as well as competencies must be included in career education.

Proposition 5. DISTRIBUTIVE PERSONNEL MUST DEVELOP MEANINGFUL ANALYSES OF DISTRIBUTIVE WORK

The professional workers in distributive education must assume responsibility for developing meaningful analyses of distributive work which in turn will contribute to the information pool for career education programs. The occupations and career ladders in the distributive field represent a bewildering array of unknowns even to distributive personnel. The sifting and sorting must be done by those most knowledgeable of the field.

Proposition 6. RECENT RESEARCH REPRESENTS THE MOST IMMEDIATELY FRUITFUL RESOURCE

The immediate need for data on competencies and characteristics of distributive jobs could best be met by analysis of the research and studies completed in the past ten years. Such review would identify and categorize much of what is already known about the tasks, skills, and occupational requirements. Following such a review there could be a coordinated plan among the distributive researchers, both in education and in business, to develop some defensible analysis of the entire scope of distributive work in the American economy. Only with such an informational base can valid career education data and experiences be developed.

Proposition 7. CONCENTRATION MUST BE ON THAT WHICH IS OCCUPATIONALLY IMPORTANT

Distributive career development, particularly the preparation phase, must concentrate on that part of distributive employment which is occupationally important. Too often in curricular evaluations there are large segments (content and obviously time and resources) given over to what is neither socially or occupationally useful to the learner. Accountability must extend beyond the question of whether it is fun to teach and fun to learn.

Proposition 8. YOUTH CLUBS HAVE THE POTENTIAL FOR DELIVERY OF CAREER INFORMATION

A national goal of the distributive education youth clubs has been that of developing occupational understanding. There is within the club program considerable potential for the effective delivery of distributive career information to younger students. Youth groups made up of those in the preparation phase should be made working partners in the career education team.

CONCLUSIONS

The ultimate result of an effective distributive component in a career education program would be that:

1. All persons would understand the necessity and value of the economic function of distribution.
2. All persons would be aware of the nature of distributive work in the economy.
3. Every interested person would have an opportunity to explore distributive jobs.
4. Every person would have sufficient information to arrive at a meaningful career choice.

5 Each person would have the opportunity to prepare for his chosen area of work in a manner appropriate to his capacity, his learning style, and his pace.

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SECTION TWO

IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

The articles presented in this Section focus on a variety of topics and issues. The central concern of each article, however, is the improvement of education and educational practice.

Dr. Koerner in discussing educational technology and its future in education makes it clear that there is no substitute for the good teacher and good textbook in classroom instruction. Students soon tire, he emphasizes, of "push-button" education. Nevertheless, Dr. Koerner suggests that educational technology may yet revolutionize education when the initial flirtation period is over, and careful study and research replace haphazard use of the new media. We need to determine the appropriate mix of teachers, materials, and machines in the educational process, and how educational technology may help in solving some of the demands made upon the educational enterprise in terms of access, individualization of instruction, and economy. Dr. Koerner indicates that ". . . education by the end of the century may look fundamentally different from what it is today, thanks to technology." His thought-provoking article warrants our attention.

Dr. Steven Frankel capsulates in his paper the significant findings of his research and assessment of school-supervised work education programs. His findings indicate the tremendous, and as yet unexploited, potentials of such programs for the student, the employer, and the educational establishment. Since work experience education is an important facet of the business education program, the pertinent findings of Dr. Frankel's research and his recommendations and suggestions for strengthening and improvement of work education programs have particular relevance to business educators.

Dr. Moskovis and Dr. DeYoung strike at the heart of a problem that has long plagued all educational groups, and that is the role of our national professional associations in shaping educational practice. The findings of their study should stimulate some important discussions of this crucial problem. Such discussions may even lead to needed improvement and change in our national organizations so as to make them more responsive to the groups they represent as well as to educational need and change. The recommendations of these authors for a special task force to assess the future of the National Business Education Association (NBEA) is one upon which we must act.

The issue of teacher effectiveness and teacher evaluation has been with us ever since Socrates intrigued and challenged his students in the streets of Athens. Although we all recognize the importance of the one-to-one relationship suggested by Mark Hopkins and symbolized by the educational log, we also recognize the impracticability of such a relationship in an age of mass education. Many researchers have studied the problem of teacher effectivenss and evaluation. The recent research by Drs. Kourilsky and Cords of this problem, although offering no panaceas nor solutions, may spark some ideas for additional research in the minds of the readers. If it does this, the paper will have served a useful purpose.

—Lawrence W. Erickson

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY—DOES IT HAVE A FUTURE IN THE CLASSROOM? *

James D. Koerner

Alfred P. Sloan Foundation
New York, New York

Asking in 1973 about the future of educational technology is similar to asking in 1903 about the future of the aeroplane. I wonder how many people standing on the beach at Kitty Hawk had a vision of the future in aviation that even approached what the reality was to be. As they watched a couple of ingenious bicycle mechanics coax a fragile craft into the air for a few seconds, how many of them could have imagined an evolutionary line of flying machines that would produce a 747 or a DC-10 in their children's lifetime?

The people who are now experimenting, in ways that only can be described as primitive, with an assortment of electrical and mechanical instruments potentially useful in human learning, may also turn out to be the precursors of a major new industry. We won't know for some time. Although it won't take another 70 years for these experimenters to produce an educational 747—if one is to be produced at all—it will take more than a few.

Therefore school boards, state legislatures, and college trustees are ill advised to expect—indeed in some cases to issue directives for—a collection of gadgets they think of rather vaguely as educational technology. One sympathizes with their search for ways of coping with the relentlessly rising costs of education, but for them to look to technology for rescue at this point in time is like expecting the brothers Wright to have put their first craft into commercial production and carried passengers around the country in it.

In the 1950's predictions were widely and confidently made that education by 1970 or 1975 would be revolutionized by technology—that is, by the new technologies of communications that are generally lumped under the name "educational technology." Leaders and so-called futurists from the knowledge industry, from government, from education, and, I regret to say, from foundations joined in these rosy prognostications. Lately this enthusiasm has given way to embarrassment and disenchantment, as many a corporation has found its Edsel in educational technology. The metaphor is imperfect. The Edsel at least ran; the public just wasn't buying. Educational technology to date cannot be said even to "run."

Why not? First, the equipment itself—the hardware—has fallen far short of the claims made for it. Hardly a system today is equal to its propaganda. The most advanced hardware systems have had serious de-bugging problems, low reliability, high maintenance. Most continue to be incompatible with other systems, because manufacturers are not yet able to agree on industry-wide standardization. Moreover, hardware becomes obsolete so fast that capital investments for new or improved systems are a continous necessity.

Then there is the programming itself—the "software"—which has lagged far behind the hardware, imperfect as the latter has been. One has only to sample the materials that have been prepared for use on teaching devices to realize how rudimentary the state of the art still is. Since educational technology today and tomorrow will be just as good or bad as the quality of stuff available for the machines, a long road lies ahead before a true technology of education can be developed.

Of course, our ignorance of the education process itself has contributed, as it always does, to the technological failures. If we knew more about the way learning occurs with various kinds of students—if we knew more about intelligence, motivation, the rhythm of learning, the role of repetition, and a great many other things—we could design better machines and better programs for them. As it is, our knowledge lends very little precision and a great deal of guesswork to educational technology.

The failures of the past also have something to do with the attitudes of teachers toward the whole notion of technology in education. These attitudes seem to get more negative as we go up the educational ladder. Teachers at the elementary school level are more or less open to the possibilities of technology (even if teachers' *unions* are not); those at the secondary level are less open but still willing to be persuaded and in many cases are systematic users of technology themselves; and those at the college level look on the whole matter with feelings that range from apathy to hostility. (I am speaking of the general situation, which leaves room for many exceptions.)

The dominant attitude among college faculties is not due merely to dislike or distrust. It also reflects the lack of faculty incentives. Distinguished scholars have not been willing to invest professional time and energy in a field in which little recognition is offered and royalty rates are low or nonexistent. Until now a professor could expect to make more money from writing a textbook than a computer program, and he could gain more professional advancement by publishing scholarly works than by tinkering with pedagogical gadgets.

* This article first appeared in the *Saturday Review, Special Education Supplement*, May, 1973. Reprinted by Special permission of the author and *Saturday Review Co.*

In addition, faculty members, who now find themselves in the most severe buyers' market since the Depression, are not aglow with the desire to develop a technology of education that may eliminate jobs. Administrators who find their departments losing enrollment and who have a surplus of highly paid, tenured professors who won't retire for some years are tempted to explore the potential of technology or anything else that might reduce the unit costs of education. But how can they persuade the faculty to take an enthusiastic role—and that is the only kind of role that would mean anything—in such a threatening exploration?

Even so, the faculty skeptics have had a certain amount of justice on their side, in view of the overpromotion and underperformance that have characterized the field of educational technology over the last 15 years. Too often a grand plan for exploiting instructional technology has been drawn up by consultants or other outsiders who have no personal responsibility for carrying it out—a procedure that, as far as I can judge, has always produced failure. Too often technology-based systems have been thrust upon teachers by administrators who were enamored of innovation or were simply seeking to cut costs. Too often the systems have been inconvenient to use; too often they have imposed an outside "star" performer on the classroom teachers (on the theory that technology could put persons who were called master teachers into every classroom); too often the program itself has offered no visible advantage over an ordinary book; too often no decent evaluation has been attempted; and too often support for research and development has been capricious and short-term.

Finally, the matter of cost has had its effects. In the 1960's the knowledge industry proceeded on the incredibly naive assumption that because education was a gigantic enterprise consuming $60 billion or $70 billion a year (it consumes more now), it constituted a massive market for educational technology. To their sorrow, the promoters learned that 70 percent and sometimes more of a typical school budget went to salaries, that another 15 or 20 percent was devoted to fixed costs, and that very little, if any, "loose" money was to be found in the average budget. They also failed to take into account the fact that professional politics, economic protectionism, and simple inertia are as alive and well in education as in any other large bureaucratic activity—meaning that big changes of *any* kind are rarely possible.

Industry did manage to make a lot of sales but with dubious results. A school board that has sunk a million dollars into some kind of technology system that nobody uses is not a very good prospect for further sales. A university that has financed, fully equipped, and staffed an elaborate media center with technical personnel on the assumption that the faculty would spend time learning about educational technology, only to find the whole effort giving birth to a large white elephant (which describes the situation at a number of campuses today)—such a university is not a promising market for more purchases.

Some people would argue that the main problem with educational technology is that experiments have simply been conducted on too small a scale and in an ambience that has been too traditional or conventional. They would say that a "new" faculty and a new institution designed from scratch around technology are needed. But in the few cases where such a massive approach has been taken (Florida Atlantic University, for example), the results have been discouraging even to their natural defenders. Not least among the reasons for the failure is the elementary fact that students and their parents, who may have made a considerable sacrifice in financing a higher education, become disgruntled if all or even a large part of that education is in front of push buttons instead of professors.

So much for failures. What of the state of the art now, and how does it relate to the demands being made on the educational system? Educators, school boards, and legislatures are not accustomed to asking the question in the right way. They most often ask, "What is there in technology that we can use in education?" The question, I believe, becomes more useful when we reverse it and ask, "What are the fundamental needs of education now, what are the demands being made on the system, what is it we would like to do but can't in the present arrangement —and can educational technology help in meeting any of these needs, desires, and demands?"

Let's begin with the problem of *access*. Increased access to education is surely one of the chief demands being made on the system these days. The American school and college system already affords greater access than does any other system in the world, but there is now a national movement for making the educational system still more accessible. The demand begins at the level of the high school dropout and continues to the postdoctoral level.

The "open university" idea as it has been imported into the United States from England, the development of external degree programs, the removal of such barriers as sequential study and prerequisites to study, the reduction of residency requirements, the emphasis on independent study and on so-called "contracts" or "portfolios" that allow students much greater control over their course of study, the demands that people be permitted at any point in their lives to move in and out of educational programs for any period of time that suits their purposes, and establishment of the University Without Walls and the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, the granting of credit by examination, and the recommendation of the Newman Report for regional examining universities, and certainly the open admissions experiment of the City University of New York with its emphasis on remediation in basic subjects—all these programs are simply responses to demands for access—access to study and indeed to degrees for anyone, anytime, anywhere.

I don't know whether these demands come more from the educator himself than from the consumer, but time will tell whether the national appetite for external study is as great as is claimed and if it is accompanied

by the requisite self-discipline. To these demands for access I should add those for graduate study and post-professional study away from the campus at one's convenience and, if possible, in one's own home. Such demands for continuing education come in particular from doctors, dentists, lawyers, engineers, and others who have a regular need to stay abreast of developments in their fields.

What all of these demands for access have in common is the need for varied, flexible, and pervasive means of communication between the educator and the student. Lacking such means, these varieties of open-study programs will presumably have to rely on the technology of the U.S. mails, plus a few minor additions, such as the telephone or local study centers. Communications technology is going to have to carry much of the burden of enlarged access if external-study programs are to succeed on the scale for which they are being planned and promoted.

Individualization of instruction is another demand. For most of this century professional educators have been talking about the importance of "individual differences" among students and how to provide for them. But in reality there has been very little individualization of instruction in American schools and colleges. On the contrary, one of the aspects of the educational system that most impresses an observer is its mass nature. Educators, faced with the sheer number of students at every level of the system, have never found a way out of the lockstep structure, with its rigid timetables, set courses of study, instruction in groups (often very large groups), and progress measured out in credit hours. Of necessity, most students move through the educational system in blocs rather than as individuals. They increasingly resent it, just as educators increasingly regret it.

The third and final demand I would mention comes, not from students, but from those who pay most of the bills. It is the *demand for efficiency*, for a reduction in the unit costs of education. Now that we are spending more money on education (either in absolute figures or as a percentage of the Gross National Product) than any other nation on earth, the taxpayer is telling educators that they are going to have to do more than merely hold the line on costs. They are going to have to reduce them.

Can technology do anything about these demands for access, individualization, and economy? Does the technology exist with which to help meet the demands? Or is the situation similar to that faced by society in its demands for the control of automobile emissions or for ever-greater supplies of energy? We have abundant demands—and indeed federal orders—to reduce emissions from the internal combustion engine to certain levels by 1975, and we have equally abundant demands from all segments of society for more energy, particularly electrical energy. The problem in both cases is that the technology does not yet exist to satisfy the demands. No amount of wishing or declamation by environmentalists will create that technology; only more technology will produce it.

The state of the art in education is only slightly different. In a sense, the technology *does* exist with which we could at least begin to meet the demands. It exists, that is, if we think of technology only as hardware, the physical means for communication between the educator and the student. This is where we are with the major technological systems:

BROADBAND COMMUNICATIONS. We now have the technological *ability* (I stress "ability," for the systems are not yet installed widely) to deliver a vast number of signals to almost any kind of educational audience at almost any distance. By means of coaxial cable, microwave, and satellites (in the future by means of lasers, glass fibers, and other exotic devices), we have the capability of creating many kinds of tele-communications networks with more or less unlimited capacity. These networks could tie educational institutions together as well as tie them to other kinds of public institutions and directly to homes.

COMPUTERS. This technology now offers the educator a means unmatched by anything else he has ever had available for the lightning processing of truly vast amounts of information. Two major experiments in computer-assisted instruction will produce within another three or four years better data about computer learning than we have had in the past. They are the PLATO IV project at the University of Illinois, which will ultimately link thousands of time-shared terminals to a large central computer, and a system called TICCIT, which is being developed by the Mitre Corporation and uses a small computer along with a coaxial cable television system that goes into homes. I mention PLATO and TICCIT only as two leading experiments; there are many others. The point is that computer technology now offers the educator an instrument of great range and power that he is still far from knowing how to exploit. Too often today's computer programs continue to demonstrate the truth of an adage that grew up in the computer trade years ago, "Garbage in, garbage out."

VIDEO REPRODUCTION. By this I mean the technology of storing miniature, talking pictures on tape or discs or film for later replay at one's convenience, or for immediate reproduction as in the case of live television or Picturephone. This technology involves scanning a two-dimensional picture, any kind of picture, and converting it into a series of electrical impulses, which at the user's end are then reconverted to the original picture. (This same process makes possible facsimile reproduction of newspapers or other printed matter over long distances.)

Broadband technology can, of course, be combined with video or computer technology to provide a virtually unlimited system for delivering miniature talking pictures or digital data—in other words, for sending to any audience any amount of educational programming with illustrations and sound. Videotapes do not even require a transmission system, only a transportation system for moving them from the originator to the point of playback and from one point of playback to another.

MINIATURIZATION. In addition to video technology (which is a species of electronic miniaturization), microfiche technology allows a large array of miniaturized images to be stored on transparent materials for later use at a student's convenience. The material can be

reenlarged on a reading machine or reproduced on a piece of paper. Extreme reductions are possible, as with the 20,000-volume library on American civilization now offered by *Encyclopedia Britannica*, each volume of which is available in the form of a single, thin *fiche* measuring three by five inches. Even greater reductions are possible. I have no doubt that it will soon be possible for an itinerant evangelist to carry around for distribution a packet, no larger than a deck of cards, containing a hundred copies of the Old Testament. (Such miniaturization is probably all that is needed to insure that neglect of the Bible becomes total, but that is another matter.)

BOOKS, BLACKBOARDS, AND OTHERS. Other technologies may also have potential in education. For example, there are many kinds of audio devices, including one that has all but been forgotten by American educators called radio (the BBC seems to remember, however, as do the radio systems of many other countries). There are multitudinous mechanical gadgets, ranging from costly teaching machines to xerographic devices for making copies of any kind of document at a cheap price. There is also the ordinary blackboard, which is a structural aid made possible by technology. There are even things called *books*, which are nothing more than visual aids made possible by a technological breakthrough in the middle of the fifteenth century.

Our original question still needs an answer. Can these assorted technologies do anything to meet the demands for access, individualization, and economy? The answer is no, not now, but possibly in the future. If we think of the term "educational technology" as meaning more than hardware, if we think of it as an integrated *system* of teaching and learning for which the cost is reasonable and for which software has been specifically developed, tested in practice, revised, retested, and finally validated—then it is clear that educational technology cannot now meet any of the demands, for these reasons. First, the major hardware systems have not been built or installed on any scale; for example, there is virtually no school system or college or university in the country that is completely wired with a broadband communications system, not to mention a system that can link it to the surrounding community. Second, the quality of the materials to be used with whatever kind of hardware ranges from poor to miserable.

This sad state of the art in educational technology is welcome news to people who look with distaste or outright horror on new technologies and their potential consequences. I have entertained such sentiments from time to time. When I think about all those systems for delivering all those signals to all those audiences, I recall a series of questions that Tolstoy was moved to ask despairingly as he contemplated the communications technologies of the late nineteenth century. "Machines to do what?" Tolstoy asked in his notebooks. "Telegraph and telephone to transmit what? Schools, universities, academies, to teach what? Meetings to discuss what? Books, newspapers, to spread information about what? Railroads for whom to travel where?" Although I would not expect the disciplines of educational technology to answer Tolstoy's questions, I wish they would ask them once in a while.

When I think of the promised glories of cable television, for instance, I find it possible to contain my enthusiasm. When I think that half or more of the homes of America may be wired for cable within the next 10 or 15 years, when I think that people will have, not 4 or 5 channels to play around with in search of something that interests them, but 40 or maybe 60 channels, with programming for even the most specialized of audiences (fans of the Metropolitan Opera, say, or of the local flower show), when I think that all of us will then be able to spend nearly every nonworking and nonsleeping moment of our lives looking at something on the tube we *want* to see—I find myself hoping that this technological monster might be strangled at birth. But the Luddite quickly yields to the realist in most of us as we acknowledge that these powerful technologies are going to continue to develop. All that we can hope for is that educators will have a voice in the way they are used and that they will have the wit to know what to say if given that voice.

History suggests that new technologies are often overrated in the short run but vindicate their prophets in the long term. This may well be the case with educational technology. How long that term will be no one can say, but education by the end of the century may look fundamentally different from what it is today, thanks to technology.

Educators may ultimately learn how to ask the right questions of the new communications technologies and conduct the right experiments to test their potential. Educators may finally learn how to use television in a way that exploits rather than wastes its special capacities; they may learn how to take advantage of the immense power of the computer in order truly to individualize instruction for the first time since Mark Hopkins got off his log; and they may learn how to use to best advantage the miniaturized materials, the audio devices, and the other technologies I have mentioned, as well no doubt as others I have not mentioned or thought of.

For all my doubts and misgivings, I look forward to the time when the quality of American education at all levels can catch up with the quantity, and I do indeed believe that there is at least a gambler's chance that technology will help bring that event about. But to get us from here to there is going to require a giant effort in research and development by the best heads we can get to work on the problem. The effort needs to be applied not merely to the gadgets but to human learning and the way it interacts with the gadgets as well as to the further question of whether any kind of fruitful interaction might not require a wholly reconstructed system of education. Nor is talent all that is needed for this formidable and costly job. We need people with a deep interest in teaching, for it is pedagogy, after all, that we are really thinking about.

Meanwhile the central question abides: Do the new technologies of communication have any relevance to the teaching-learning process—a process that is itself preeminently based on communications? The only tenable answer at the moment is, "Maybe."

AN ASSESSMENT OF SCHOOL-SUPERVISED WORK EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Steven M. Frankel

System Development Corporation
Santa Monica, California

BACKGROUND OF STUDY

This paper summarizes the significant findings, overall methodology, and policy recommendations for the study "An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs," which was conducted by System Development Corporation for the Office of Planning, Budgeting, and Evaluation of the U.S. Office of Education during the 1972-73 school year under the direction of Ms. Mary Ann Millsap and Ms. Dorothy Schuler.* The objectives of the study were to examine the different configurations of work education programs which currently exist in the United States, to determine the degree that different types of programs are meeting their intended objectives, and to suggest ways in which different types of programs might be modified or expanded.

In order to examine the different configurations of work education systematically, a three dimensional typology was adopted by the project staff and advisory committee. The typology was structured around what were felt to be the three most relevant variables which were educational level, primary purpose, and industrial setting.

To determine the degree that different types of programs are meeting their intended objectives, a stratified random sample of 50 work education sites was drawn from a set of 500 representative programs using the three dimensions of the typology as the basis for stratification. These and the number of programs falling in each category are listed below:

- Educational level: Secondary (36), postsecondary (14)
- Primary purpose: Specific occupational training (30), dropout prevention (14), career exploration (6)
- Industrial setting: Farming region (15), bedroom community (11), single industry area (9) major industrial business center (15)

Specific occupational training programs are usually referred to as *cooperative education programs*, but two Job Corps programs were also included in this category. In cooperative programs, students enrolled in vocational education classes use part-time employment as their primary means for applying classroom instruction. Cooperative programs generally are headed by a coordinator who serves as the communications link between the school and the employer and often serves as a vocational teacher and/or guidance counselor as well. Either informal or written training agreements are used to indicate the responsibilities of the student, the school, and the employer, and in many cases students receive academic credit for the time spent at work. While most of the programs included in this study involved students working at jobs for pay, the specific occupational training program category included some clinical programs in the allied health fields in which students weren't paid for their work and two other programs, similar to clinical programs in structure but not in the allied health fields, in which students also weren't paid.

Dropout prevention programs usually function by providing students with supplemental income which either permits or induces them to remain in school. Work-Study programs allow high school and college students to hold down part-time jobs to help finance their education, and programs such as Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) In-School and WECEP allow dropout-prone youth to earn money if they remain in school. WECEP (Work Experience Career Exploration Program) is an experimental program in which 14 and 15 year olds are allowed to hold jobs in the public and private sectors in order to encourage them to remain in school.

Career exploration programs were defined for this study as those in which students are given the chance to explore different occupational opportunities by observing workers of different types as they go about their work and by actually performing tasks for pay on different types of jobs.

To obtain the data, interviews were conducted with the following types of persons in *each* of the 50 education *programs*: Program administrators, approximately 20 students participating in the work education program, a sample of students in the same school who held jobs but were not participating in a work education program, up to four employers who were participating in a work education program under study, and two employers who were not participating in the program. At some sites, interviews were also conducted with representatives of participating and nonparticipating unions, but the very small number of participating unions which were operating at the program sites precluded the possibility of highly elaborate statistical analysis techniques being applied to the data. Therefore, only a comparatively brief description of the union data was obtained and included in the data analysis report.

SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

Analysis of Program Types

According to the findings of this study, *specific*

* This paper is a summary of the original research report on work education programs (see Item 2, p. 59)

occupational training programs (cooperative education programs for the most part) appear to be generating the most enthusiasm among students, employers, and school officials because they are meeting the expressed needs and objectives of all three groups. Students feel that cooperative education programs are providing them with valuable job training. Employers feel that they are getting their money's worth out of their student workers and are contributing to the occupational training of the students. They also feel that by participating in these programs, they are contributing to the growth and development of their own occupational fields. School administrators and teachers are satisfied with the learnings and job placements resulting from these programs after the training period.

Specifically, it was found that a cooperative education program is more likely than any other type of program to:

- Provide students with job-related instruction in school
- Have a followup program for its graduates
- Have an advisory committee
- Provide job placement services
- Have a high rate of job-related placements
- Provide students with jobs that offer formal on-the-job training
- Help students in deciding on an occupation
- Provide students with jobs that fit into their career plans
- Provide students with jobs that have a high level of responsibility
- Provide students with jobs that afford a high degree of satisfaction

From a negative standpoint cooperative programs, when compared to the other types of work education programs, are most apt to discriminate against students on the basis of student attitude; they are less effective in reducing student absenteeism; and, because they place students in more responsible jobs, they are more apt to interfere with a student's other activities such as school work, dating, sports, etc. Cooperative programs were more likely than other types to restrict their programs to students with rather conforming middle-class behaviors; and at the secondary level they were also more apt to segregate their job placements by sex with only men or women being assigned to a specific employer.

Dropout prevention programs are limited by their basic objective which is to keep students in school by providing them with financial assistance. While many of these programs have additional goals such as improving disadvantaged youngsters' attitudes toward school and work, practically none of these programs attempt to offer students related classwork or intensive vocational training. When viewed in terms of their limited objectives, dropout prevention programs appear to be successful. It was found that they are more likely than any other type of program to offer students jobs paying at least the minimum wage, but they were second (by a slight amount) to specific occupational training programs as most likely to improve students' attitudes toward school.

The inherent aim of *career exploration programs* is to assist students in deciding on their occupational choices. However, none of the career exploration programs studied provided students with systematic exposure to several different types of jobs which would better enable them to choose a career best suited to their own needs. This type of program was the least likely to have assisted the student in his choice of occupation, so in this regard, has been much less successful than the occupational training and dropout prevention programs since career choice is the stated purpose of career exploration programs. These programs have not constructed effective job rotation mechanisms; they receive the lowest level of support from the schools of all three types of programs; and they do not have standardized formats or operational configurations that are widely accepted or written into federal statutes. Among all other types of programs, it was found that 70 percent of the administrators devote 100 percent of their time to their work education programs, while none of the career exploration program administrators devoted 100 percent of their time to their work education programs. In querying these administrators, supporting evidence was found that they were more likely than the administrators from any other type of program to feel that the organization and staffing of their programs were not effective for meeting their goals; and that they rate their program's coordination and direction significantly lower than do the administrators of the other types of programs. One area in which career familiarization programs were more successful than the other types was racially integrated job placements with this type of program being more likely to provide a given employer with a racially-mixed student work force

Analysis of Employer-Related Factors

One of the most significant findings concerning the employer's point of view is that the purpose of the program had very little impact on his attitudes toward the program (possibly because the employers have never been oriented regarding the different purposes of various work education program configurations), even though these types of programs possess very different characteristics. However, the educational level of the program with which the employer was associated did make a significant difference in his outlook. Employers participating in secondary level work education programs, regardless of purpose, rated overall program quality significantly higher than did employers participating in postsecondary programs. Yet, from the standpoint of related placements and quality of training, the postsecondary occupational training programs were superior to their secondary level counterparts.

The employer ratings of individual work education students proved to be a very significant variable in gaining an understanding of work education programs. It had significant impact on the attitudes

of both the students and the employers. For students, a higher rating by the employer was associated with greater job satisfaction; and for employers a higher average rating of students was associated with a higher rating of overall program quality. Thus, careful matching of students to jobs which meet their career objectives, so that they are likely to succeed and be highly rated by their employers, appears to be one of the most crucial tasks for work education programs, in terms of both student satisfaction and employer acceptance.

Analysis of Pay Factors

Pay factors played an important role in the way the employers viewed work education programs. Employers who paid students higher wages were significantly less likely to rate the program's overall quality as excellent. More important than the absolute rate of pay given to the work education students, was whether or not students were paid less than the regular employees for the same work. Where students were paid less, employers were significantly more likely to rate the program's overall quality as excellent. Specifically, 54 percent of the employers who paid students the same wages as regular workers rated the program as excellent in overall quality, while 72 percent of the employers who paid the students less than they did their regular workers rated the program's overall quality as excellent.

From the student's point of view, pay factors play a minor and somewhat ambiguous role. Whether or not the student is paid for his work has only a weak impact on his satisfaction; and, in fact, this influence is opposite for two types of satisfaction measures. Students who are paid for their work are slightly, though not significantly, more satisfied with their jobs, while students who are not paid for their work are somewhat more likely to like school better after joining the program. The reasons for this are unclear and need further study.

Analysis of Program Setting

The industrial setting in which the program was located played a minor role in the characteristics displayed by the work education programs under study. Most of these findings were not unexpected; *e.g.*, pay rates and the proportion of ethnic minorities were higher in programs in urban areas. A surprising finding was that the level of students' satisfaction with the jobs was significantly higher among programs in rural settings than among programs in any of the other three types of industrial settings.

Analysis of Educational Level

The educational level of a program (secondary or postsecondary) was examined in relation to specific occupational training programs and dropout prevention programs. In examining specific occupational training programs, it was found that postsecondary programs are more effective than secondary programs in performing nearly all aspects of program operation. They had higher ratings on job-related instruction, student followup, job-related placements, helping students to decide on an occupation, providing students with jobs that fit into their career plans, providing students with jobs with high responsibility ratings, and providing students with jobs with which they are highly satisfied. The two areas where postsecondary programs scored lower than secondary programs were employer satisfaction with the students and student pay. It was found that employers rated secondary students higher than their postsecondary counterparts and that, somewhat surprisingly, secondary students earned slightly more than postsecondary students. When the differential between what employers pay their regular workers and their student workers was examined by educational level, there was no significant difference. No reasons can be given as to why employers prefer secondary cooperative students to postsecondary cooperative students, or as to why they pay the older postsecondary students less. Both of these questions should be subjected to more intensive study.

Educational level was not a significant variable in examining dropout prevention programs. In this type of program, educational level was not related to the students' pay, type of work, or perceptions of the job. The one exception to this was employer satisfaction ratings with employers preferring the secondary students.

Analysis of Student-Related Factors

Two components of student satisfaction were considered in this study. One was their degree of satisfaction with the jobs they had. The other measured improvement with their satisfaction toward school since they had joined the work education program. These two measures of satisfaction were analyzed in two ways. First, students participating in work education programs were compared to students not participating in such programs in terms of these measures. It was found that the two groups differed little in terms of their satisfaction with their jobs. On the other hand, satisfaction with school was increased to a significantly greater degree by participating in a work education program, while only 15 percent of the nonparticipating students have improved attitudes toward school since they began working.

The other way in which student satisfaction was analyzed was to determine, for participating students, the factors that most impacted on their degree of satisfaction with their jobs and school. The most important influences on the student's job satisfaction were *how well he was rated by his employer* and the degree to which he felt his *job afforded him responsibility*. This same level of job responsibility also had a positive impact on improving a student's attitude toward school. Other than this, only the non-manipulable background characteristics of the

student—mainly ethnicity, sex, and age—had an impact on whether or not his satisfaction with school was improved since enrolling in the program.

The study was also concerned with determining to what degree these programs were fostering discriminatory practices. It was found that while no programs would admit to overt discrimination, subtler forms were rather common. Thus, while the majority of the programs were integrated, only 30 percent of the interviewed employers had been assigned students of more than one race. Sexual stereotypes were being fostered in a similar manner with only 39 percent of the employers receiving students of both sexes.

In terms of pay rates, it appears that when compared to nonparticipating students with jobs from the same schools, work education programs tend to pay female students more than their contempories earn but pay black students at lower rates than are being earned by black students not in work education programs. Explaining this will also require further study.

Analysis of Program Features

A product of this study was three models, each based on multivariate data analysis which analyzed individual components in the student, program, and employer data bases in order to identify those components which were linked to different types of successful program outcomes and those which were serving as constraints on program expansion. The models are shown at the end of this summary (see pages 60-61).*

Policy Recommendations

While there is a definite risk in suggesting ways in which the structure of work education programs can be improved when the suggestions are based upon a sample of only 50 programs with widely varying characteristics and goals, certain findings of this study were sufficiently definitive to allow policy recommendations to be developed. These recommendations are:

1. *Further Explore the Concept of Establishing Occupational Training Programs with a Nonpaid Work Experience Component*

An interesting finding of this study is that at least some students can enjoy and benefit from nonpaid work experience. A number of specific occupational training programs were examined in which students were not paid for work performed in on-the-job settings. Nearly all of these were clinical programs in the health field where financial compensation is not normally provided for work experiences gained in working in hospitals and other medical facilities during training. Other programs in the study which did not pay students included one similar to a diversified cooperative program, which offered work experience in many occupational fields and at the same time also located training classrooms within the plants of employers where students were working without pay; and another program which allowed college students, not qualifying for financial assistance but desiring vocational experience, to perform work identical to that done by students being paid for their work on a volunteer basis. According to the findings of this study, clinical programs and the two additional programs in which students were not paid for work, were very successful in providing students with good job training and work experience.

Another finding of the study was that one of the best predictors of employer satisfaction with a work education program is the difference between what he normally pays for labor of a given type and what he pays for student labor; and there was some evidence that employers who paid students less were willing to provide them with more training time

This suggests that there might well be a place for work education programs in all occupational fields, incorporating a component in which students spend part of their time performing supervised work within an employer's facilities without pay. While such programs should never take the place of traditional cooperative programs, they can open up training slots and job placement opportunities with employers who are unable or unwilling to take on part-time student employees under a cooperative training agreement.

For such programs to operate at present, special arrangements have to be made to satisfy the Fair Labor Standards Act, workmen's compensation programs in different States, and other labor laws that impact on student employment. Vocational educators are often unaware of the procedures for doing this, and they are often concerned with the reaction of labor unions toward such programs.

It is recommended that a more detailed study be conducted of the programs of this type presently in existence with the objectives of documenting program configurations capable of meeting training needs without exploiting students or antagonizing labor organizations, and setting forth specific recommendations regarding changes in labor laws and workmen's compensation statutes which would allow these programs to operate on a standardized basis.

2. *Expand the Scope of Dropout Prevention Programs*

Most of the dropout prevention programs examined were either Work-Study, Neighborhood Youth Corps, or WECEP programs. In most of these, students were receiving part-time jobs in government offices or nonprofit institutions which either provided them with funds needed to stay in school or else served as an incentive to stay in school. While these programs appeared to be meeting their basic objective of keeping students in school, they were

* These models were developed by Alan Cohen of System Development Corporation

less successful than cooperative education programs in improving high school students' attitudes toward school. Also, it was apparent that far too many students in the dropout prevention programs were placed in rather boring dead-end jobs which didn't challenge their capabilities, gave them no real appreciation for the world of work, and failed to allow them to explore career interests on their own. As indicative of this, only 6 percent of the secondary students in specific occupational training programs were in the lowest category on the job responsibility scale, whereas 75 percent of the secondary dropout prevention students were located in this category. Similarly, when asked whether or not their work education programs helped them to decide on an occupation, 35 percent of the secondary students in specific occupational training programs said yes as compared to only 18 percent of the students in the dropout prevention programs.

It is strongly recommended that consideration be given to expanding the scope of dropout prevention programs by requiring the employers participating in such a program to offer students at least one of two alternatives:

- The opportunity to link working for pay to specific occupational training offered at the job site by the employer. The employer (usually a government office or a nonprofit agency) would provide the training in return for obtaining a student's services without having to pay the student's wages. Under this type of plan, which would entail changes in the present legislation, it would probably be possible to involve more private employers in dropout prevention programs, since they would be operating as a training facility, and not obtaining free labor at the taxpayer's expense.
- The opportunity to explore different occupational areas while enrolled in a dropout prevention program. This would involve rotating students among employers on a scheduled basis and arranging for the student to have different responsibilities at each job site so that students would be given the opportunity to study the different environments in which jobs exist. Again, since most students in dropout prevention programs are performing rather menial work with little training being required, rotating a student every 30 or 60 days should work no hardship on employers who would adopt this option in place of the training option given above.

Efforts should also be made, within the scope of the present legislation, to place students in jobs far more interesting than are available at present in most of these programs. While dropout prevention programs at the secondary level often have students enrolled who are significantly lower in academic ability than students found in the cooperative and career familiarization programs, the spread is not so great that the scope of these programs cannot be broadened considerably.

3. *Develop Formal Structures for Career Exploration Programs*

Unlike specific occupational training and dropout prevention programs, there are no federal statutes which support career exploration programs of any specific types. This has resulted in career exploration becoming a catchall category into which many different types of programs place themselves by claiming that their primary objective is to familiarize students with the world of work and to help them to make an informed career choice.

A rather disturbing finding of this study was that only 9 percent of the students in secondary career exploration programs stated that their programs had helped them to decide on a career, whereas 35 percent of the students in secondary specific occupational training programs and 18 percent of the students in secondary dropout prevention programs made this assertion. Another distressing finding was that none of the career exploration programs included in the study had provisions for allowing students to sample different types of jobs on a scheduled and predetermined basis. Instead, they were usually placed with a given employer for the complete semester, as was the case with students from other types of work education programs. In fact, without looking at the program's specified objective, there was no way of differentiating career exploration programs from other types of work education programs, and we are forced to conclude that, in nearly all cases, career exploration programs are actually no different in configuration from specific occupational training programs or from dropout prevention programs. There was one notable exception to this where the program was structured around helping Eskimo students to decide whether or not they wanted to leave their villages and move to cities to obtain jobs.

Also, it was found that career exploration programs were far less apt to have a full-time program coordinator and, according to the coordinators of these programs, these programs are far more poorly organized than are the other types of programs.

All of this suggests that an organized structure for career exploration programs is needed, and should be developed and incorporated into law with guidelines similar to those established for other types of work education programs. At a very minimum, these programs should include work familiarization, diagnostic testing for skills and interests, and scheduled job rotation within their configuration. In this way, it can be ensured that students will be offered a program giving them a wide perspective of the world of work.

4. *Develop More Effective Followup Components*

Program coordinators in all three types of programs agreed that student followup was the weakest com-

ponent in their work education programs. Similarly, one of the employers' most voiced complaints was that they never find out what happens to students after they leave school. This lack of followup information is hindering programs by making it very difficult to base program revisions on solid data. Also, several employers stated that, if they were regularly informed on accomplishments of students formerly in their employ—especially those who entered the field on a full-time basis—they might be more inclined to expand their programs and accept more students.

It is recommended that school administrators, or other school personnel, be strongly encouraged to follow up on all work-education students for 5 or 10 years after leaving school. This could be done by each district or school on an individual basis, or it might be done on a statewide or national basis with a central operation responsible for collecting data, disseminating results to individual schools for transmission to employers, and for program planning purposes. The data might also be analyzed on a regional or national basis in order to document trends, successes, and problems with different types of work education programs. Similarly, the data could be used to improve local programs and curriculum materials.

5. *Encourage Unions to Actively Participate in Work Education Programs*

This study included only a small sample of programs in which unions actively participated. Nearly all of these unions rated their cooperation with the schools as being excellent and their representatives were as positive toward the programs as were the participating employers. This is important because many of the program administrators mentioned that they were reluctant to solicit job slots in union-controlled operations because of anticipated problems, and because several of the administrators reported that a favorite excuse given by employers who refuse to make training slots available was the fear that admittance of students would lead to problems, or a weakened bargaining position, with the plant union local. Interviews with nonparticipating unions showed that, like the nonparticipating employers, the majority of them claimed that they would participate in a work education program if someone would actively pursue them.

Aggressive solicitation of union participation appears to be well worth the effort. Programs with active participation benefited in permanent job placements of graduating students, in students being granted automatic acceptance into union apprenticeship programs with time in the work education program sometimes being credited toward the completion of these programs, and by students being allowed to become fullfledged voting members of some locals while they are still in school.

Program administrators should be actively encouraged to seek union participation and coordinators should offer to approach union officials directly when a businessman is reluctant to participate in a work education program because of a fear of union problems. Union officials should be made members of program advisory committees and should be given the special charter of soliciting union support for these programs. In addition, funding priorities should be assigned to programs with active union participation.

6. *Improve the Effectiveness of Public Relations Activities*

In a similar vein, many programs of all three types have not paid sufficient attention to other forms of public relations. The most common reason given by employers for not hiring work education students was that they had never been approached about participating—even indirectly by means of advertisements or newspaper articles—and/or that they didn't feel that they had enough knowledge of the programs in their community to offer to participate. Similarly, as mentioned earlier, many employers weren't even familiar with the objectives of the program with which they were involved. As has been demonstrated by programs with strong public relations components, this situation can be rectified by arranging for frequent newspaper, radio, television, and trade magazine coverage; hosting annual banquets to which present and prospective employers are invited (along with school administrators, students, parents, union officials, and local political officials); involving parents of students in the work education program; and establishing contacts within the local political structure.

Public relations activities of these types can be promoted by means of inservice seminars and training materials; by requiring that a public relations' plan be included in all project proposals; and by encouraging states to set up work education public relations offices which would serve the dual purpose of assisting and training local coordinators and promoting work education on a statewide basis.

7. *Strengthen the Role of Program Advisory Committees*

Study results indicate that advisory committees are an effective tool for building ties with the business and industrial community, but most of these committees seemingly maintain a very low profile. Invariably, employers who are not members of advisory committees associated with their industry do not know of, or have not been contacted by, these committees. This means that the effectiveness of these committees is severely limited since the members appear to interact only among themselves and not bring other employers and union officials, whom they supposedly represent, into the picture.

A lesson might be learned from the community advisory committees being established under the Emergency School Assistance Act (ESAA) to promote desegregation: Appointments to advisory commitees are announced in the newspaper—in classified advertisements as well as in news stories when cov-

erage can be obtained—and announcements of meetings are publicized in a similar manner with nonmembers encouraged to attend and voice their concerns and opinions. A similar strategy might well enhance the effectiveness of the program advisory committees. Certainly, at a minimum, such meetings should be publicized in trade and local newspapers and magazines so that nonaffiliated employers are informed as to who the members are in their community, when different issues will be discussed, and the results of these discussions.

8. *Discourage Discrimination on the Basis of Student Attitude*

Several of the programs included in the study used "proper student attitude" as a program entry requirement. In some of these cases, it appeared that only students of a given race possessed the proper attitude; in other cases, it appeared that this requirement was causing program entry to be limited to middle-class youngsters who could have obtained their jobs (often in distributive education) without the school's assistance or without any special training being required. In both of these types of instances, the programs ended up excluding students who could have benefited from the training. Rather than exclude students on such a basis, it would be far better for program coordinators to handle problems such as these on an individual basis and work with these students in order to make them more eligible for employment. In many cases, regulations of these types appeared to have been adopted more for the convenience of the program coordinator and the ease of program operation than for any overt desire on the part of the school or employer to discriminate against a particular group.

It is recommended that plans or proposals for any work education programs incorporating federal funds be required to state, in specific terms, any behaviors that can cause students to be prohibited from entering a particular program, and that regulations should require schools to notify students excluded on this basis as to why they are excluded and what they can do to make themselves eligible for admission at the next entry date.

9. *Use Vocational Aptitude and Interest Instruments in the Counseling of Students*

The study found that the counseling components of all types of programs were relatively ineffective and did not contribute significantly in any manner to student success. It also found that careful matching of students to jobs results in satisfied employers and students. Yet, the use of standardized measures to counsel students prior to entry in work education programs does not appear to be especially common and the placement of students in jobs in which they have little aptitude or interest is not unusual. These problems are fewest in specific occupational training programs where the classwork that precedes work experience serves to screen out many of the poorly matched students. Fifty-nine percent of the secondary students and 74 percent of the postsecondary students in this type of program report that they intend to work full time in the occupations for which they are training. In the other types of programs, 41 percent of the postsecondary dropout prevention students, and 38 percent of the career familiarization students (all secondary) reported that they intend to work full time in the occupational field in which they are training. In the dropout prevention programs in particular, it is fairly common to find students working in jobs in which they have little interest and for which they are overqualified from a cognitive standpoint.

To increase the effectiveness of counseling components, it should be required that students be given vocational interest and aptitude tests before entering any work education program, and have a chance to discuss their test results with a qualified person before being assigned to their first work station.

10. *Establish Internship Programs for Work Education Coordinators*

Approximately 70 percent of the programs studied in this project have full-time coordinators or administrators, whose capabilities varied greatly. Most were knowledgeable in the vocational fields for which they were responsible, but they differed widely in their ability to sell their programs to employers, students, and the community; their ability to safeguard students from being exploited by employers or working in unsafe or unpleasant working situations; their management skills; and their knowledge of vocational counseling techniques.

11. *Increase Funding of Cooperative Education Programs*

This study presents very strong evidence that cooperative education programs are highly successful in the United States. They appear to be meeting their intended objectives and generating support from participating students, vocational instructors and administrators, and employers. They also appear able to serve far larger numbers of students than are presently enrolled. Further, it appears that expanded student involvement would not be deterred by lack of employer interest and ability to accept student placement. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that funding be increased for this type of work education configuration.

DESCRIPTION OF ANALYSIS MODELS

The purposes of this study included the following:

* To evaluate existing programs to determine successful program components
* To delimit constraints on program expansion
* To examine incentives that could increase employer participation

As one means of accomplishing these aims, an analy-

sis model was developed for each of these major groups of respondents: The program administrators, the participating students, and the participating employers. The models divide the variables in each data base into two distinct sets: The independent or predictor variables, and the dependent variables which are outcome measures of program success.

Using this structural framework, individual predictor items have been related to outcome measures by means of crosstabulation; and tested for statistical significance and strength of association with the chi-square statistic and other appropriate measures for the strength of association (phi or contingency coefficient for nominal variables and gamma, tau or Somer's d for ordinal variables). These analyses allow us to empirically determine the program components that have a major impact on the outcome measures of program success.

Figures A-1, A-2, and A-3, pages 60-61, show the significant linkages between the various independent and dependent variables in each model for programs, employers, and students, respectively.

In attempting to identify successful program components, Figure A-1, which depicts the program analysis model, will be most useful. Among the more interesting linkages demonstrated in this model are the relationship of job-related instruction to teacher enthusiasm (*i.e.*, teachers are much more enthusiastic about work education programs in which they have the opportunity to provide students with job-related instruction); and the relationship of competitive placement in training slots to the relating of classwork to on-the-job training (*i.e.*, programs where classwork is highly related to actual on-the-job training experiences tend to make students compete for training slots by sending more than one student to be interviewed for each position available in the work phase of the program).

Constraints to program expansion appear in all three models. The employer analysis model shows, for instance, that size of the company is related to on-the-job training programs. The program analysis model shows that organizational effectiveness is significantly related to teacher enthusiasm and this implies that unless teachers are convinced as to the worth of the program in which they are participating, the effectiveness of the program will suffer. Conversely, the student analysis model shows that present pay and pay raises are not related to student job satisfaction. This implies that pay is not a constraint to job satisfaction.

Incentives for increasing employer participation in work education programs appear in the employer analysis model. Among the linkages depicted here are the relationship between pay differential (the difference between what employers pay regular employees and students for performing the same work) and involuntary terminations. This can be interpreted as saying that the larger the pay differential, the more unlikely are employers to involuntarily terminate students from their employ.

The examples listed above are deliberately simplistic so that the means of interpreting the models will become clear. Other, more complex relationships between variables are discussed at length in the *Data Analysis Report* resulting from this project. However, the figures can be used by readers as a means of gaining an overview of these findings once it is understood that an arrow from one box to another in a figure indicates that there is a statistically significant relation between these two variables. For example, in Figure A-3, the arrow connecting job responsibility to job satisfaction indicates that a student's degree of satisfaction with his job is significantly related to the level of responsibility the job affords him.

It should be noted that the predictor variables in the student analysis model have been further subdivided into two groups: Independent variables and intervening variables. Intervening variables are those which can be treated as independent variables when related to the dependent outcome measures of student satisfaction; but, in relation to the other independent variables, they can be considered as causally dependent. Thus, in the analysis they were treated in both ways—as independent predictors of the outcome variables and as dependent variables of other independent variables.

PROJECT PUBLICATIONS

Banta, Trudy, Steven Frankel, Sylva Bowlby, and Cleone Geddes. *A Topical Bibliography of Work Education Programs, Projects and Procedures*. System Development Corporation, Santa Monica, Ca., 1973, 124 p. (Technical Memorandum-5086/000/00)

Cohen, Alan, and Steven Frankel. *Data Analysis Report, An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs*. System Development Corporation, Santa Monica, Ca., 1973, 270 p. (Technical Memorandum-5195/001/00)

Frankel, Steven, Emily Allison, and Cleone Geddes. *Case Studies of Fifty Representative Work Education Programs* System Development Corporation, Santa Monica, Ca., 1973, 338 p. (Technical Memorandum-5195/000/00)

Frankel, Steven, Alan Cohen, and Mary Ann Millsap. *A Directory of Representative Work Education Programs*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, HEW Publication, (OE) 74-01701, 1973, 328 p.

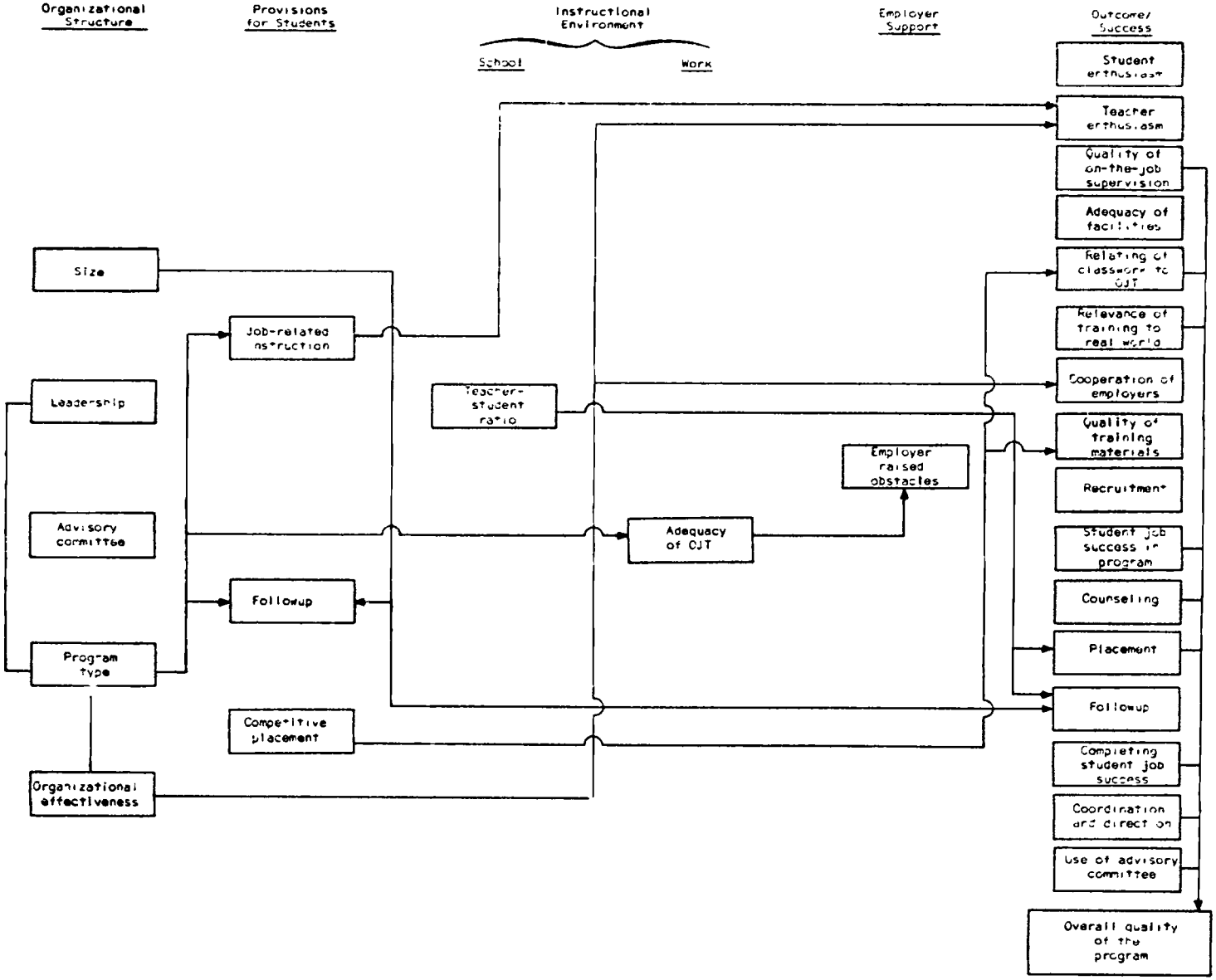

Figure A-1. Program Analysis Model

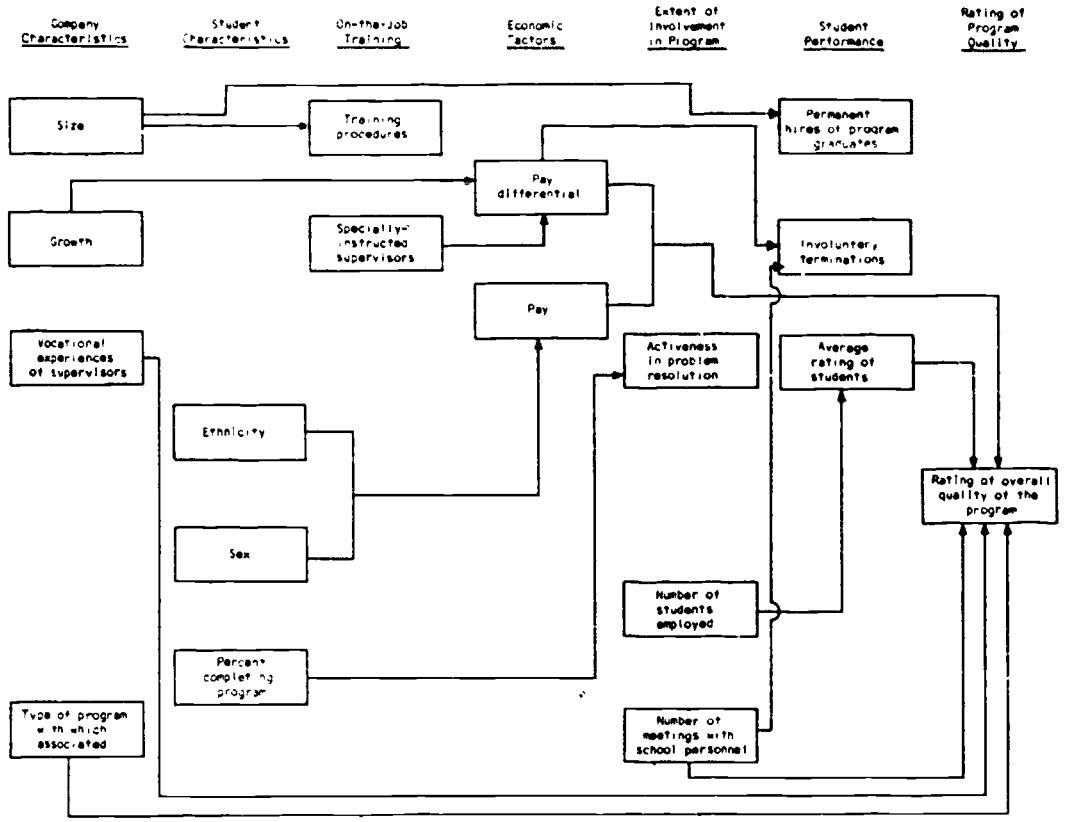

Figure A-2. Employer Analysis Model

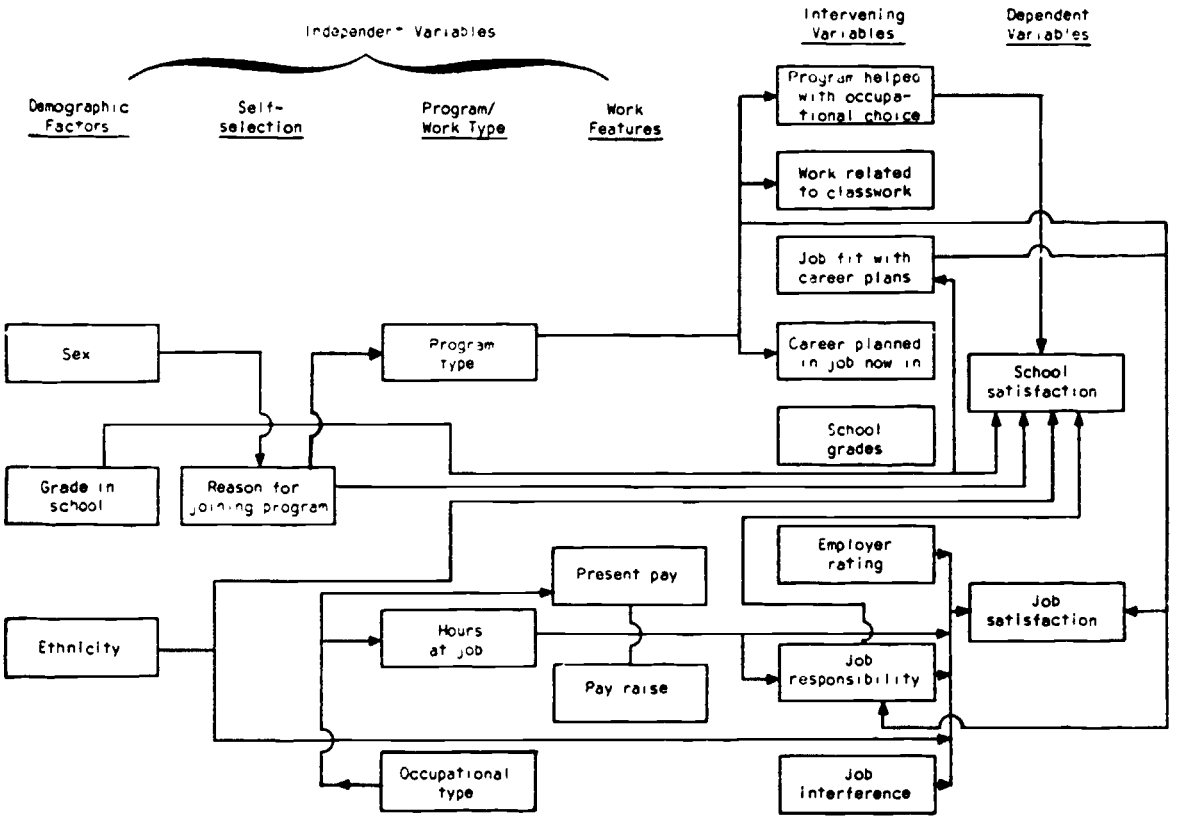

Figure A-3. Student Analysis Model

BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATORS LOOK AT THE NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

L. Michael Moskovis
Ron C. DeYoung

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

What effect professional organizations have had in shaping education has been long debated. Yet, as educational issues and problems become more complex, as educators become more aware of the politics of organized strength, and as citizens become more questioning of the contribution teachers have made to the educational process, the need for assessing the contribution that professional organizations must make in improving the quality of education is of considerable significance.

Although business education professional organizations were established as early as 1878, the unification of a number of separate and regional business education organizations into a single national group did not finally take place until 1972 when the Eastern Business Teachers Association affiliated with the National Business Education Association.[1]

To determine the contribution that the National Business Education Association (NBEA) has made in the past as well as to examine the role that it must play as a unified national organization of business educators, a questionnarie [2] was designed and mailed in the spring of 1973 to 267 business teacher educators representing the National Association of Business Teacher Education member colleges and universities. One hundred and sixty one usable questionnaires representing 60 percent of the total were returned.

Before presenting an analysis of the perceptions of teacher educators regarding NBEA, several words of caution seem necessary. For example, because many of the questions required the respondents to check the degree of contribution from such words as *Great*, *Moderate*, or *Little*, the authors assumed a certain agreement as to terminology. Obviously, this was not true in every instance and readers are reminded that such words are value laden.

Moreover, while every NBEA member may have opinions as to the contribution that the organization has made as well as future organizational priorities, this survey was limited to business teacher educators. Because of the unique vantage point many teacher educators have in reacting with a number of educational groups, the authors believe that certain of the findings may be generalizable to the entire NBEA membership.

In presenting the opinions of the teacher educators, the authors have occasionally editorialized in discussing the findings. Those readers who prefer to peruse formal research reports prepared in a formal way are therefore forewarned.

PRESCRIBED AREAS OF SERVICE

The National Business Education Association, like other professional organizations, was formed to provide a particular service to a potential membership. The NBEA Articles of Incorporation list six specific areas of service which the organization intends to provide. Table I indicates the "degree" of success the national organization has made in each area of intended service as perceived by the business teacher educator respondents.

TABLE I

Rating of NBEA Services by Business Teacher Educators

Areas of Service	Great Contrib N %	Moderate Contrib N %	No Contrib N %	No Basis for Judgment N %	No Response N %
Promote all phases of bus ed	86 (53)	68 (42)	2 (1)	2 (1)	3 (2)
Unify regional & other groups who promote bus ed	77 (48)	72 (45)	3 (2)	8 (5)	1 (1)
Conduct research	20 (12)	100 (62)	33 (20)	7 (4)	1 (1)
Experiment with new ideas	16 (10)	96 (60)	30 (19)	16 (10)	3 (2)
Disseminate info	84 (52)	70 (43)	2 (1)	2 (1)	3 (2)
Fund grant scholarships/ fellowships	2 (1)	33 (20)	59 (37)	60 (37)	7 (4)

Although more than 50 percent of the respondents believed that NBEA has made a great contribution in promoting *all phases of business education* and in *disseminating information*, a large number of the teacher educators indicated that only a moderate contribution had been made in five of the listed areas. Certainly the terms "great" and "moderate" are value laden; yet, it is important to note that only 10 percent of the respondents indicated that NBEA has made a great contribution in *experimentating with new ideas* and only 12 percent indicated the same contribution in *conducting research*.

[1] For a review of the development of business education organizations, readers might examine:

Strong, E. P. *The work, administration, and supervision of business education.* New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1944.

Guy, H. Through the years. *Business Education Forum*, 1971, *25*, 18-20.

Guy, H. Through the years. *Business Education Forum*, 1957, *11*, 46-47.

Tate, D. The quest for unification. *Journal of Business Education*, 1973, *48*, 276-277.

[2] The authors are indebted to Dr. Floyd Crank, Dr. Vern Marietta, Dr. Max O. McKitrick, and Dr. Mary Ellen Oliverio who reviewed the questionnaire prior to distribution.

Whether these two areas of service do in fact deserve priority attention by the officers of NBEA is a matter of conjecture. They are, however, areas of vital importance to the effectiveness of business education programs and perhaps to the ultimate contribution the organization can make to the profession.

Data in Table 1 indicate the respondents were uncertain as to the contribution NBEA has made in *funding and granting scholarships*. It would appear that this purpose deserves examination or further explanation by the national officers.

NBEA AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Many groups and forces act upon education and attempt to influence direction and change. While certain groups "act" as forces in attempting to bring about educational change, others tend to "react" to real or purported change.

When asked to indicate the role that NBEA plays in educational change, 29 percent (46) of the respondents reported that they believed the national organization has generally *acted* as a force in educational change, 48 percent (78) of the respondents opined that the organization *reacts* to educational change, and 17 percent (28) of the teacher educators suggested that NBEA generally *neither acts nor reacts* to educational change (9 persons did not respond).

When asked to cite examples of ways in which NBEA acted as a force in educational change, those most frequently suggested were: unification, policy statements, organized support of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, and NOBELS and other sponsored research projects.

Few respondents were as harsh as one teacher educator who remarked: "I am hard put to think of a positive 'act' on the part of NBEA. Therefore, I believe the organization *principally* 'reacts'."

A great many, however, agreed with the respondent who stated:

> I would list the VEA 1963, the VEA 1968, and the entire career education move as examples of where NBEA was more of a "reaction" than an active change agent. While it was involved, it was not, as far as I know, a prime force. There are, of course, many cases where NBEA has acted. Yet there are obvious areas where too little is being initiated: research, unified teacher certification, leadership in curriculum development, etc.

Perhaps the notation made by one teacher educator best summarizes the feelings of a large number of the respondents:

> NBEA seems quite aware of current trends in education and society which affect or have implications for business education. I cite the recent conference which emphasized accountability, individual, or instruction, performance objectives, and career education. In recent years it has been my observation that NBEA has followed very closely national trends, but in few instances would I identify it as a "leader" in the sense that it develops new ideas. Indeed, I'm not sure that it should or can be expected to do so.

NBEA AND ASCSB

Many forces have influenced business education programs. But perhaps none has caused the discontinuance or reorganization of business education programs as has the interpretation of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation requirements.

Obviously, AACSB has had a significant influence on collegiate business administration programs. Colleges of Business have added staff, revised curricula, and reallocated resources and priorities in preparing for AACSB accreditation.

Has NBEA had an equally significant influence on the business teacher education programs with which our respondents have been associated?

Although comparing an accreditation association with a professional association may have limited value as no voluntary group can exert the same influence as can an accreditation group, 82 percent (132) of the respondents more or less agreed with one teacher educator's concise summary which declared that NBEA has not had an equal impact on business teacher education programs:

> NBEA has not had the power of control over business teacher education programs that AACSB has had over business administration programs. AACSB approves or rejects school applications for membership. NBEA has only attempted to provide persuasive leadership, guidance, and example in the development of business teacher education programs.

Sixteen percent of the teacher educators (26) indicated that NBEA did have an equally significant influence on the teacher education programs. As one respondent pointed out:

> NABTE criteria for business teacher education constitute significant input into our program which is administered through a college of education.

Until NBEA broadens its scope and purposes to include accreditation—an unlikely possibility—its obvious and immediate influence on education programs will necessarily deserve different measurements of worth. As one teacher educator lamented: "Perhaps NBEA has provided a greater potential of input than AACSB."

CONTRIBUTIONS TO MEMBERS

NBEA's potential membership is comprised of teachers working in a variety of instructional settings. Because of this diversity of potential membership, the variety of services NBEA must offer should be dramatically wide. Table 2 reports the measure of contribution NBEA has made to eight groups of educators as perceived by the respondents.

TABLE 2

Contribution of NBEA to Eight Groups of Educators
As Perceived by Business Teacher Educators

Contrib. of NBEA to	Great Contrib N (%)	Moderate Contrib N (%)	Little Contrib N (%)	No Contrib N (%)	No Response N (%)
Elementary teachers	0 (0)	4 (2)	74 (36)	73 (45)	10 (6)
Jr. High teachers	3 (2)	43 (27)	100 (62)	8 (5)	7 (4)
Secondary teachers	71 (44)	75 (47)	9 (6)	0 (0)	6 (4)
Area vocation center teachers	21 (13)	79 (49)	47 (29)	2 (1)	12 (7)
Continuing education teachers	8 (5)	59 (37)	77 (48)	5 (3)	12 (7)
Private business school teachers	5 (3)	53 (33)	74 (46)	8 (5)	21 (13)
State local supervisory staff	17 (11)	84 (52)	45 (28)	1 (1)	15 (9)
College university faculty	54 (34)	79 (49)	22 (14)	2 (1)	4 (2)

As would be expected, the respondents believed that NBEA's primary contribution has been made to secondary teachers and college/university faculty (business teacher educators), though not with an overwhelming response.

Because of the difficulty of accurately defining "great," "moderate," or "little," this table must be reviewed with some caution. Still, it is interesting. For example, a majority of the teacher educators did not believe that NBEA has made a *great* contribution to any of the eight educational areas listed. Only one category received more than 50 percent of the respondents' affirmation of NBEA's moderate contribution: *state and local supervisory staff*.

A review of the little or no contribution column of Table 2 may provide a guide to both NBEA program planners and regional membership chairmen. Certainly, the eventual resolution of the specific role each instructional level will play in career education will demand that NBEA realistically increase its service to elementary, junior high, and continuing education faculty members, areas in which the teacher educators indicated the organization presently makes little or not contribution.

NBEA AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Business educators have long stressed the dual purpose of business education (vocational and general education). As a result of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, however, increased attention has been paid to the vocational arm of business education.

To tentatively measure the impact this legislation may have made on the direction of NBEA, the teacher educators were asked if they believed that this trend has changed the direction of NBEA. Whether teacher educators are the best "watchdogs" of trends in education can obviously be debated. This group, though, perhaps more than any other in business education, does have a number of educational communication channels; thus the opinions are useful.

In response, 61 percent (99) of the teacher educators indicated that the 1963 legislation has changed the direction of NBEA, while 35 percent (56) of the respondents believed otherwise (six persons did not respond).

In reviewing the comments appended to the question by a number of teacher educators, the one underlying comment would appear best summarized by one who concluded, "All educational components are attracted by money."

A number of teacher educators were encouraged by the increased interest in vocational education and reminded the authors that NBEA has always worked for the advancement of vocational education. As one respondent pointed out:

> From 1900 to 1963, business education showed it could produce competent office workers without federal aid. The 1963 Act focused greater *attention* on business and vocational education than before and made more funds available for equipment, etc.

Believing that the 1963 Act did change the direction of NBEA, one teacher educator explained:

> Mainly because course offerings in business education have increased, the curriculum has opened up and far more students are taking courses; career education is now "respectable."

Suggesting that NBEA can only follow national educational trends and that to do otherwise would be foolhardy, one respondent reluctantly concluded: "In several states the basic business subjects now constitute a disaster area. And this is sad."

NBEA AND THE SUBJECT AREAS

Membership in NBEA is comprised of persons with a variety of teaching interests. Table 3 lists the degree of contribution NBEA has made to each of these specific interest areas, as perceived by the respondents.

TABLE 3

Contribution of NBEA to Subject Areas
As Perceived by Business Teacher Educators

Contrib. of NBEA to	Great Contrib N (%)	Moderate Contrib N (%)	Little Contrib N (%)	No Contrib N (%)	No Response N (%)
Teacher education (office & distrib.)	68 (42)	75 (47)	14 (9)	1 (1)	3 (2)
Skills subjects	92 (57)	63 (39)	5 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
Acct. subjects	42 (26)	95 (59)	23 (14)	0 (0)	1 (1)
Career education	16 (10)	74 (46)	61 (38)	5 (3)	5 (3)
Consumer education	16 (10)	86 (53)	49 (30)	4 (2)	6 (4)
Basic business subjects	36 (22)	93 (58)	25 (16)	2 (1)	5 (3)

A review of the table indicates that the teacher educators believe NBEA has made its greatest contribution to teacher educators (a reinforcement of the opinions of certain secondary school teachers who believe NBEA is "for college people") and to teachers of the skill subjects.

An instructional area receiving considerable attention by business educators because of its reimbursement potential through home economics departments is consumer education; interestingly though, 53 percent of the teacher educator respondents indicated that NBEA has made only a moderate contribution to teachers of consumer education. Moreover, 38 percent of the respondents indicated that the organization has contributed little to career education.

another much publicized educational concern. Both areas would appear to deserve additional NBEA attention, particularly if business education is to fulfill its general education mission.

NATIONAL CONVENTION AND PUBLICATIONS

To many members, NBEA means professional meetings and publications. Because of the need for continually appraising the value of these services, the teacher educators were asked two questions regarding these important services. Table 4 lists the response to the question, "If you were planning next year's annual NBEA convention, indicate the emphasis you would give to the following topics."

TABLE 4
Areas of Annual NABE Convention Emphases As Perceived by Business Teacher Educators

	Great Emphasis	Moderate Emphasis	Little Emphasis	No Response
Emphasis at Convention	N %	N %	N %	N %
Philosophical approaches to business education	28 (17)	66 (41)	54 (34)	13 (8)
Broad educational problems	51 (32)	59 (37)	36 (22)	15 (9)
Seminars on bus. ed. problems	110 (68)	39 (24)	3 (2)	9 (6)
See and do workshops	90 (56)	39 (24)	22 (14)	10 (6)
Business related topics (ex. seminar on real estate syndicates)	29 (18)	55 (34)	62 (39)	15 (9)
Exhibits (books, machines)	41 (25)	58 (36)	49 (30)	13 (8)

More than half of the respondents indicated that the national convention program should place *great* emphasis on *business education problem seminars and workshops*.

Perhaps believing that NBEA members should also participate in other professional meetings, 39 percent of the respondents suggested that *business related topics* should receive little emphasis. Pragmatists, 34 percent of the respondents indicated that philosophical approaches to business education should receive little emphasis, presumably because convention-goers are more interested in the practical and the immediately useful.

A number of the teacher educators were concerned with what appeared to be a confused and splintered national convention and urged a separate NABTE meeting. These respondents believed that stronger regional conventions might better serve the total NBEA membership. Representative of many of the respondents' statements (but again not necessarily representative of the entire NBEA membership), one teacher educator stated:

> The broad concerns of education as a whole should be given considerable attention at NBEA. True, we are affiliated with AACTE; but, unless we walk down to the Hilton and pick up a program, we don't know what is being offered. Formerly, we had joint Saturday morning sessions. We don't now. Education, broadly speaking, is going to influence business education far more than business education is going to influence education. Recent issues of the Phi Delta Kappan have featured countless problems about which we in business education ought to be concerned.

A number of teacher educators commented that the national convention program must be made considerably more powerful and vital. Several agreed with one teacher educator who suggested that it:

> would be interesting to set up some discussion sessions where people with common concerns could meet and talk together without an organized program or formal speaker.

The responses to the question, "If you were the editor of NBEA publications, what emphases would you place on each of the following types of articles?" are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
Areas of Publication Emphases As Perceived by Business Teacher Educators

	Great Emphasis	Moderate Emphasis	Little Emphasis	No Response
Emphases in Publications	N %	N %	N %	N %
Philosophical articles related to business education	48 (30)	78 (48)	34 (21)	1 (1)
Broad educational problems	51 (32)	82 (51)	26 (16)	2 (1)
How-to-do articles	84 (52)	63 (39)	13 (8)	1 (1)
Research	111 (67)	46 (29)	3 (2)	1 (1)
Articles by nonbusiness educators	18 (11)	89 (55)	49 (30)	5 (3)
Reprints from education & business journals	12 (7)	85 (53)	60 (37)	4 (2)
Articles related to business topics	55 (34)	76 (47)	27 (17)	3 (2)

Similar to the responses pertaining to the national convention, the teacher educators emphasized the practical and the specific—albeit the *business related topics* received increased emphasis in contrast to the national convention areas of emphasis.

MEMBERSHIP

Although all readers may not agree, many business educators now view themselves as office educators rather than as business educators and are participating in increasing numbers in the activities of the American Vocational Association (AVA). To assess this trend, the respondents were asked: "Many business educators view themselves as vocational teachers and are participating in increasingly greater numbers in AVA. What effect do you believe this will have on NBEA membership and convention attendance?"

The responses were: 39 percent (62) of the respondents believed that this trend will decrease NBEA membership and convention attendance, 11 percent (17) believed the trend will increase NBEA membership and convention attendance, and 48 percent (77) believed that it would have no effect (5 persons did not respond).

While the largest though not overwhelming percent of the respondents indicated that the trend will have no effect on membership and participation, 39 percent of the teacher educators believed otherwise. In view of the contributions that NBEA can and must make to the advancement of business education, this opinion is one that deserves careful examination by NBEA leaders.

Comments as "a common cause," "supplemental," "working together," as well as the belief that only

NBEA can adequately advance vocational and general business education were representative of statements made by the teacher educators who believe there will be no decrease in membership or participation. As one stated:

> Business educators have always been vocational educators but not as defined by the AVA. Because broadly interested business teachers are still concerned about such areas as general business, law, and economics, they will remain loyal to the organization that represents these areas also.

Those who believe a decline is inevitable were concerned with both duplication of effort and a sharp division between business educators; many agreed with one respondent who stated:

> Teachers do not believe, as a general rule, that they can support more than one organization either with time or money. Since some states force vocational teachers to belong and attend AVA, I believe NBEA membership will suffer

Obviously, the concerted effort of NBEA will be necessary to assure a viable and supportive membership. As one respondent concluded:

> If NBEA continues to provide the insight and leadership that is desired by business teachers, there should be no change. If NBEA decides to allow AVA to be responsible for Vocational Business Education, then there will be a decline.

NBEA SERVICES

NBEA provides a variety of services—hopefully designed to serve the varying needs of its members. To assess the usefulness of these services to teacher educators, the respondents were asked to indicate the "value" of a number of the more apparent NBEA services. The opinions of the respondents are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Value of Selected NBEA Services to Business Teacher Educators

Services	Great Value N (%)	Moderate Value N (%)	Little Value N (%)	No Value N (%)	No Response N (%)
Yearbook	122 (76)	32 (20)	6 (4)	0 (0)	1 (1)
Forum	135 (86)	26 (16)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Convention placement services	18 (11)	57 (35)	34 (21)	47 (29)	5 (3)
Policy Commission statements	38 (24)	74 (46)	36 (22)	8 (5)	5 (3)
National business entrance tests	10 (6)	52 (32)	48 (30)	45 (28)	6 (4)
Typing tests	6 (4)	45 (28)	57 (35)	48 (30)	5 (3)
Award of Merit	52 (32)	59 (37)	32 (20)	14 (9)	4 (2)
National Convention	67 (42)	74 (46)	18 (11)	1 (1)	1 (1)
Insurance	6 (4)	28 (17)	36 (22)	82 (51)	9 (6)

The two NBEA supported publications, the *Forum* and the *Yearbook*, were considered to be of "great value" to respondents, with no other category designated as having either great or moderate value by at least 50 percent of the teacher educators. Of particular note are the opinions of the teacher educators regarding the policy commission statements and the national convention, both of which were considered to be of only moderate value by 46 percent of the respondents.

The NBEA *insurance program* was considered to be of "no value" to 51 percent of the respondents. As one respondent indicated, "the insurance is just a duplicate of everyone else's insurance." Other respondents suggested that a disability insurance coverage would be valuable if offered.

A number of respondents made specific—though often contradictory—mention of the annual convention. Certain respondents regretted the lack of a convention exclusively devoted to the particular needs of teacher educators; others complained of the NABTE orientation of the national meeting.

Because this questionnaire was addressed to teacher educators, a similar evaluation of NBEA services might be undertaken by the national office to assess the opinions of other segments of the NBEA membership.

When asked to recommend additional services that NBEA might provide, 68 percent (110) believed that NBEA should act as a clearing house for teaching aids/materials, 60 percent (96) suggested that NBEA consider evaluation of specific business education programs, and 53 percent (84) believed NBEA should provide consulting services to both education and business.

The need for the national organization to communicate beyond its membership was a concern of a number of the respondents. As one teacher educator summarized:

> Our greatest need is public relations—especially with other school personnel and the business community. We need to interpret our profession to show that we are more than the "big three." Note TV ads for music, for art; they are effective. Couldn't NBEA do something similar?

In commenting on the variety of services now offered by NBEA, one respondent appended a note of caution:

> Hopefully, NBEA is not opposed to considering any proposed service . . . NBEA is performing an excellent service for business educators now; if they do more, they may weaken the present service.

ACTIVE PARTICIPATION BY NBEA MEMBERS

Meaningful professional growth is often a complicated process, dependent on a number of apparent—and occasionally not so apparent—options. Although many professional educators and school administrators believe that professional organizations provide a convenient avenue for professional growth and enrichment, membership in professional organizations and active participation in the activities of these organizations are seldom representative of the number of eligible teachers.

A number of the teacher educators expressed a deep concern about the many business educators who do not join NBEA as well as those members who fail to participate in the various organizational activities.

To determine the possible reasons for this nonparticipation, the teacher educators were asked to react to a series of statements. The results listed in Table 7 indicate that even the teacher educators are not certain why nonparticipation is the rule rather than the exception. Only a few, in fact, offered comment.

TABLE 7

Reasons for Nonparticipation in NBEA As Perceived by Business Teacher Educators *

Reasons	Responses N (%)
Real participation is closed to a select few	43 (27)
Participation doesn't bring monetary rewards	13 (8)
Participation costs too much	29 (18)
Everyone could participate if they wanted	34 (21)
Participation doesn't help me do my job better	33 (20)

* Some teacher educators responded to more than one of the above and others didn't respond to any of the above

Risking the ire of the feminist movement and large city teachers, one teacher educator commented:

> I really don't know, but I think they (teachers below collegiate level) feel that the convention is dominated by NABTE. Aside from the convention, I think it is lack of professional attitude. Maybe the teacher training institutions aren't imbuing their graduates with the proper spirit of professionalism. Also, too many secondary teachers in large city systems are interested only in their pay checks and what the union can do for them. Too many women first teach a while to put their husband through school or to supplement family income to have more luxuries

Concerned that perhaps the federal largesse has "spoiled" business educators, one respondent asked:

> Has the Vocational Education Act "spoiled" business teachers so they won't attend meetings unless their expenses are paid for them? After all, many teachers were paid to attend workshops, etc. so they perhaps "got in the habit" of being paid rather than assuming the responsibility as other professional persons do. Are teachers really "professional" any more?

Perhaps the single notation ruefully noted by one teacher educator summarizes the frustration of many: "I really cannot answer for them."

STANDARD OF ADMISSION

Many professional organizations establish standards of admission and practice consisting of a common body of knowledge, certification requirements, a code of ethics, and accreditation requirements. When asked if NBEA should establish similar standards, the business teacher educator respondents indicated that NBEA should:

1. Identify a common body of knowledge that must be a part of the preparation of business teachers (81 percent)
2. Lobby for the purpose of influencing legislation to establish uniform business teacher certification requirements (68 percent)
3. Establish and attempt to enforce a code of ethics for business teachers (62 percent)
4. Accredit individual departments of business teacher education (52 percent)

The question caused considerable comment by the respondents, a number of whom pointed out that implementation of any of these choices might dramatically alter the direction of NBEA.

In general, the appended comments centered on two views of thought. One group expressed concern that such activities would be "breaking away" from the professional concept of NBEA. Their sentiments are typified by one teacher educator who believed that while standards of admission and practice were lauditory, NBEA should:

> Set these forth, but not make them mandatory. I do not see NBEA as a policies type of operation. Its role should be information providing, direction giving, etc. Let the individual institutions make the decisions. Ours is a broad field with dual objectives making it difficult to identify a common body.

A second group of respondents believed that vigorous and concerted action must be taken in charting new paths, as evidenced by one who stated:

> You are now on dangerous, but necessary, grounds. This is exactly what NBEA should do, this is how other associations have gained strength. Witness AACSB.

NBEA RESEARCH CENTER

A recent NBEA *Forum* article discussed the need for a national NBEA research center and headquarters building. When asked to indicate their degree of approval of establishing a research center, 41 percent (66) of the teacher educators strongly approved, 35 percent (56) moderately approved, 14 percent (22) did not approve, and 9 percent (14) had no basis for judgment (3 persons did not respond). Respondents were less enthusiastic about constructing a headquarters building. Only 25 percent (41) strongly approved of a new building, 30 percent (48) moderately approved, 17 percent (27) did not approve, and 25 percent (40) had no basis for judgment (5 persons did not respond).

The question stirred considerable write-in comments with many respondents combining their reactions about the research center and the headquarters building. Expressing the sentiments of those business teacher educators who endorsed the proposed facilities, one teacher educator stated:

> The development of a research base for our business education and business teacher education programs throughout the country institutes an urgent need. We need to develop more expertise in research in order to move programs forward and to be able to demonstrate the effectiveness of curricula

An opposite viewpoint was expressed by one respondent who sharply recounted:

> Because I think it will simply be aggrandizement for a select few officers who either do not have the competence or the ability to lobby or conduct research.

The teacher educator respondents were asked to

react to certain services the research center might provide, should it be established. An overwhelming majority (86 percent) believed that the center should disseminate research findings (apparently believing that the current reporting of research is too superficial and lacking in detail essential for evaluation). Other suggested services included:

1. Contract with various individuals to conduct NBEA supported research (66 percent)
2. Develop proposals for submission to various funding agencies (65 percent)
3. Perform in-house research (64 percent)

In discussing the activities of a potential research center, one teacher educator urged that the center, ". . . coordinate with existing centers and complement the efforts, not duplicate them," while another pleaded that the research center, ". . . could assist lone business educators in writing proposals and getting funding."

Because a research center and headquarters building would obviously require additional sources of revenue for construction and operation, the teacher educators were asked if they believed that the NBEA members would be willing to increase their annual dues by at least 50 percent to support these facilities. In general, the teacher educators were not enthusiastic about this possibility; 59 percent (95) concluded that the NBEA members would not be willing to increase their dues to support these projects. 32 percent (51) believed the projects would receive support through an increase in dues (15 persons did not respond).

While many of the teacher educators indicated a deep concern for research, a typical comment made by a number of the respondents was:

> Research can be performed and is performed by colleges and universities through NABTE. What we need is a voice in legislative action and we are not getting it.

Supporting the need for a research center and the headquarters building, one teacher educator pointed out: "If you are going to be first class, you must pay the price. This can be done by research and autonomy."

One respondent expressed the concern of many regarding the necessary financial support of these projected facilities:

> Financing is too difficult to support [highly qualified] researchers. Other "self-defined" research people may not be worth supporting. An NBEA headquarters building should be all-inclusive and the best example—hence most expensive—who would want just an "adequate" building! How can we get the "best"?

A large number of the teacher educators stated they had no basis for making a judgment regarding either of the facilities. As one stated: "So much depends on the rationale for both of these. Until I know what is likely to take place in these facilities, I cannot make a judgment."

If, in truth, the business teacher educator respondents—a group perhaps better informed than other randomly selected NBEA members—have no basis for judgment, it would seem paramount that the NBEA leadership undertake a massive communication program to inform the membership how these facilities would better direct the national effort (though as one teacher educator pointed out: "Since we have purchased land and are committed to build a headquarters building, the question is academic.")

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Charting the future of a unified organization of professional business educators is heady business. New educational and societal issues—some now obscure, some already complex—will obviously demand new NBEA committment and direction. Education is changing; the attitudes and expectations of professional educators are changing. So must NBEA.

While this paper has attempted to measure a number of perceptions and concerns of business teacher educators, other unasked questions and interpretations may be far more significant. However, a careful reading of the comments appended to this questionnaire makes strinkingly clear the frustrations of teacher educators in identifying professional zeal among many business teachers. Many make the point that NBEA has done a good job in the past, but the past is little indication of what must be accomplished now if the organization is to make an important educational contribution.

The teacher educators indicate the need for new leverage to be exerted, old purposes to be reviewed, and new strategies to be developed.

We strongly urge that the present NBEA leadership form a task force including members with *divergent viewpoints* along with respected educational consultants to assess future NBEA commitment and direction—commitment and direction that will serve as a fulcrum point for NBEA action.

AN INVESTIGATION OF WHAT IS MEASURED BY TEACHER EVAULATIONS IN ECONOMICS

Marilyn Kourilsky

University of California
Los Angeles, California

Douglas Cords

California State University
Fresno, California

PROBLEM

To some instructors, student ratings of teaching performance are relatively meaningless. These individuals probably have either received low student ratings in the past or find the entire practice irrelevant to their concerns. Many instructors, however, praise student ratings of teachers as excellent indicators of professional educational prowess, regarding high student ratings as proof of effectiveness in the classroom. No doubt the individual faculty member's response to this kind of question is strongly influenced by how high (s)he scores in the ratings.

Educators continue to give much attention to the question of how to measure effectiveness in the classroom. Many instruments have appeared which purport to measure the success of a given class. The problem perhaps lies in the definition of success. Is a teacher successful if the students like him or her? Is the instructor successful if the students achieve what (s)he intended for them to achieve? Is (s)he successful if the students obtain high scores in the subject matter as measured by standardized tests? Perhaps all of the above variables are related to success and may even be related to one another.

Decisions regarding promotion, dismissal, salary advancement, tenure, and teaching skill are centered around the results of evaluations of instructors by their students, by their fellow professionals, and by their administrators. Precious little empirical evidence has been offered, however, as to what these instruments actually measure, if anything. Their validity and accuracy have been questioned over the years, but with results that were either insignificant, highly doubtful, or unimplemented. Instructional ratings, if they are to continue in use regarding such serious matters as promotion, tenure, and the like must be thoroughly investigated, and either pronounced effective or ineffective for their stated purposes.

It was the purpose of this study to ascertain what information is conveyed through student evaluation instruments. Specifically, the study was designed to investigate the following major questions:

(1) To what extent is the student's perception of the *ethos* of the instructor a predictor of how that student will rate the instructor and the course in terms of overall performance?

(2) To what extent is the student's perception of the *pedagogical style* of the instructor a predictor of how the student will rate the instructor and the course in terms of overall performance?

(3) To what extent is the *student's scholastic aptitude*, as measured by the Intelligence Quotient Score, a predictor of how that student will rate the instructor and the course in terms of overall performance?

(4) To what extent is the *student's academic performance* in the classroom, as measured by a standardized testing instrument, a predictor of how that student will rate the instructor and the course in terms of overall performance?

Other questions that were also investigated included:

(5) To what extent is the *sex* of the student related to the student's rating of the instructor with respect to the overall effectiveness of the instructor and the course?

(6) To what extent is the *formal explication of instructional objectives* related to the overall effectiveness of the instructor and the course?

(7) To what extent is the *expectancy level of the instructor*, the level of difficulty of the materials which will be imparted to the student, related to the student's rating of the instructor and the course?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The study included 180 students from six elementary one-semester economics classes in the California State University and College System. The subjects consisted of 129 men and 51 women and represented such majors as Agricultural Science, Business, Education, Engineering, Humanities, Natural Sciences, Professional Studies, and Social Sciences. The field of economics was chosen because its tools of analysis and inquiry are generally agreed upon by most economists, and the subject matter covered in most college classes on macroeconomics is basically homogeneous, based on textbooks utilized by instructors and course specifications submitted by instructors. Also, economics is an area in which increased national attention has been devoted to instructional improvement. At least 120 Centers for Economic Education have been organized throughout the country, all of which would be interested in information pertaining to the teaching of economics.

Instruments

The instruments utilized to test the subjects included (1) Test of Economic Understanding in College

Economics, (2) The Wonderlic Personnel Test, (3) The Student Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness, (4) The Ethos Inventory, and (5) The Inventory of Pedagogical Style.

The Test of Understanding in College Economics was developed through the Joint Council on Economic Education under the supervision of such leading economists as George L. Bach and Paul Samuelson. Both content and construct validity as well as reliability were determined in 1968-69.

The primary purpose of the Wonderlic Personnel Test is to measure the mental ability levels of adults. The reliability coefficient for the form utilized in this study is .94 over a series of tests given to 26,545 college and university students.

The Instructor Ethos Inventory, an attitude instrument, focuses on the seven following major areas: student perception of personality of the instructor, fairness of the instructor, instructor's ability to stimulate student interest, instructor's consideration of differing points of view, instructor's interest and enthusiasm, instructor's personal interest in the students, and the instructor's willingness to help the student.

The Inventory of Pedagogical Style, an attitude instrument, focuses on the five following major areas: student perception of the instructor's knowledge of the subject, the organization of the course, the instructor's emphasis and balance regarding course materials, the instructor's classroom presentation and his/her speech and enunciation skills.

The three attitude instruments were tested at the California State University, Fresno in the School of Business and the School of Social Science in 109 classes and were demonstrated to have item consistency.

Scoring

The three attitude inventories, the Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness, the Ethos Inventory, and the Inventory of Pedagogical Style were scored on a 1-9 basis with 1 representing a highly negative response and 9 indicating a highly positive response. The questions on each index were averaged to obtain a total score for that particular measure.

The Test of Economic Understanding in College Economics was scored on a residualized gains basis because a test with a finite scoring range is inherently biased against both those subjects with high pre-test scores who raise their scores on the post-test and those subjects with the low pre-test scores who lower their scores on the post-test.*

Only those questions in the Test of Economic Understanding in College Economics that related to the instructor's goals were scored. However, three of the professors held themselves accountable for all questions except for those dealing with investment and capital formation. We believe that a test which holds students accountable for material that an instructor does not wish to convey is certainly a poor measure of the instructor's ability to impart knowledge. Rather the performance score of the student should be measured in terms of the student's achievement of the instructor's pre-specified objectives.

The Wonderlic Personnel Test was scored according to the number of correct responses and was then converted mathematically into IQ scores by a professional testing service.

Procedure

The following procedural steps were followed in the field research:

(1) The educational specifications of the Test of Understanding in College Economics (macroeconomics) were converted to student behavioral (operational) objectives.

(2) These operational objectives were sent to each of the instructors of college economics who participated in the study, accompanied by explanatory statements regarding the utilization of criterion-referenced instruction.

(3) These objectives were then returned by the instructor participants, accompanied by their notation of those objectives they believed should be accomplished by students enrolled in their course. These objectives, as previously stated, were then utilized in establishing the criteria for grading the academic performance of each of the instructor's students.

Instructors also indicated at which level of economic sophistication they aspired to have their students understand the economic principles and concepts. Their expectancies were then sent to and rated by two leading economists on a scale of one-to-five, with five the highest possible expectancy score. The ratings of the two economists, which showed an interscorer reliability of ninety-two percent were then averaged, giving an expectancy level rating for each participating instructor. The levels of sophistication included student recall, student application, and student evaluation.

(4) During the first week of the fall semester, the Test of Understanding in College Economics (Form A, Part I) and the Wonderlic Personnel Test were administered to the students.

(5) Instruction in the course proceeded through the normal semester. Through a random process one-half of the classes were selected to receive formal notification, either orally or in writing, or both, of the instructor's behavioral objectives. This notification was given prior to the introduction of each new unit of study. In the remaining half of the classes, students received *no* formal notification of instructorial objectives, and were expected to extrapolate on their own those areas that were deemed important by the instructor. The goals of the instructors in the latter classes were implicit rather than explicit.

(6) During the last week of the course, the students were administered the Test of Understanding in College Economics (Form A, Part II) and three attitude instruments, the Student Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness, the Instructor Ethos Inventory and the Inventory of Pedagogical Style.

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* Residualized Gain Score $= \frac{T_2 - T_1}{S_{max}}$ if $T_2 - T_1 \geq 0$

or

$\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 - S_{min}}$ if $T_2 - T_1 < 0$

Where T_1 = score on pre-test, T_2 = score on post-test, S_{max} = maximum score possible on test, and S_{min} = minimum score possible on test.

RESULTS

Four major variables were considered to be the most likely predictors of Teaching Effectiveness. They are as follows:

1. Student Score on the Wonderlic Personnel Inventory
2. Student academic performance score, the gain or loss which was recorded at the end of the class for each student, measuring the residualized difference between pre-test and post-test scores. This is the variable that measured student learning.
3. Ethos of the instructor, which is, in brief, the image conveyed by the instructor to the students, a personality gestalt.
4. Pedagogical expertise of the instructor, the measure of the teacher's professorial abilities.

Mean scores and standard deviations for these variables are presented in Table I. These data are based upon the responses of 180 students from six classrooms. A distinction, although indirectly apparent, should be noted here. The Wonderlic score and Student Academic Performance are measures of student ability and achievement, whereas Student Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness, Ethos, and Pedagogical Expertise represent student perceptions of their individual teachers. Although Wonderlic (I.Q.) scores and perhaps Student Academic Performance to some degree have been shown to be relatively stable (Saunders, 1973), ratings of teachers would be expected to vary depending upon which teacher a student was rating. Thus, it was believed that a control for differences among teachers would be necessary. Table II presents dependent and predictor variables by classroom (teacher). The dependent variable is Teaching Effectiveness.

Tests for significant differences among teachers were not performed, but observation of mean scores indicates fluctuation. It became necessary to control for all teacher differences by utilizing the technique of within cells correlation matrix as input to the Multiple Regression procedure. This procedure involves transforming scores on all variables as follows:

$$X_{ij} = Y_{ij} - \overline{Y}_j$$

where X_{ij} is the transformed score, Y_{ij} is the original score and Y_j is the cell mean.

Individual cells represent teacher participants, and to the extent that teacher differences are minimal, the resulting deviation scores will resemble original scores. However, to the extent that teachers differ, the transformation has the effect of moving extreme scores closer to the middle range of scores.

After the transformation of scores was completed, a stepwise multiple regression calculation was performed on the data. The general model is as follows:

$$Y = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3 + X_3 + B_4X_4 + E$$

where:

Y	—Dependent variable (Teaching Effectiveness)
B_0	—constant
$B_1 - B_4$	—regression coefficients associated with a particular independent or predictor variable
$X_1 - X_4$	—independent variables (Intelligence Quotient, Student Performance Score, Ethos of Instructor, Pedagogical Expertise of Instructor)
E	—residual

TABLE I

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION SCORES OF STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

(N = 180)

Variable Studied	Mean	Standard Deviation
Teaching Effectiveness	5.95	1.84
Scholastic Aptitude	112.33	11.60
Student Academic Performance	0.31	0.19
Ethos of Instructor	6.68	1.25
Pedagogical Expertise of Instructor	6.49	1.32

TABLE II

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS BY TEACHERS

Criteria	Teacher 1		Teacher 2		Teacher 3		Teacher 4		Teacher 5		Teacher 6	
	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.	$\overline{X}$	S.D.
Teaching Effectiveness	6.91	1.18	6.60	1.41	5.44	1.41	5.00	1.76	7.11	1.49	5.12	2.04
Intelligence Quotient	110.36	17.01	108.32	11.60	118.20	12.03	108.24	8.74	111.00	8.74	113.89	11.60
Performance Score	0.48	0.33	0.32	0.23	0.29	0.17	0.22	0.13	0.32	0.18	0.29	0.16
Ethos	7.26	1.37	6.58	1.11	6.16	1.20	6.31	1.28	7.41	1.08	6.52	1.20
Pedagogy	6.78	1.00	6.53	1.25	5.70	1.04	5.58	1.47	7.55	0.96	6.47	1.16
	(n = 11)		(n = 28)		(n = 33)		(n = 21)		(n = 40)		(n = 47)	

The results of this regression are shown in Table III.

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ON TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS RATING

Step Number	Variable	Multiple R	R Square	RSQ Change	F	Beta
1	I Q	0 78	0 60	0 00	0 07	−0 00
2	Performance	0 79	0 62	0 00	0.06	0 33
3	Ethos	0 73	0 53	0.53	49 38*	0 65
4	Pedagogy	0 78	0 60	0 07	30 98*	0.58

* p ≤ 05

Data Regarding the Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis Number One, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the student's evaluation of the ethos level of the instructor," was rejected according to the findings of the study. The *f* value computed to test the significance of the regression portion of the stepwise regression model was significant at the .05 level. In fact, it was discovered that the single most powerful predictor of teaching effectiveness was ethos, accounting for 53 percent of the variance. (See Table III)

Hypothesis Number Two, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the student's evaluation of the pedagogical expertise of the instructor," was also rejected according to the findings. The variable Pedagogy was found to be a predictor of teaching effectiveness which was also significant at the .05 level of confidence. Pedagogy, accounting for 7 percent of the variance, entered the equation at Step 4. (See Table III)

Hypothesis Number Three, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the student's scholastic aptitude, as measured by the Wonderlic Personnel Inventory," was accepted according to the findings. Scholastic aptitude, although not contributing significantly to the amount of variance, entered the equation at Step 1, with a tolerance level purposely set at the low level of 0.0001. First order partial correlation coefficients were computed for this variable, the results of which are presented in Table IV, along with the simple correlation coefficients for each set of variables.

In all cases, little differences between the simple and partial coefficients controlling for scholastic aptitude were discovered. Teaching Effectiveness, the dependent variable in the multiple regression model, did not differ appreciably in its correlation with each of the independent variables when the effect of Intelligence Quotient scores was partitioned. The interrelationships among the independent variables did not change,

TABLE IV

PARTIAL CORRELATIONS FOR INTELLIGECE QUOTIENT

Variable Pair	Zero Order Coefficients	First Order Coefficients
Teaching Effectiveness with Performance	0.00	0.01
Teaching Effectiveness with Ethos	0.74*	0.74*
Teaching Effectiveness with Pedagogy	0.73*	0.73*
Ethos with Student Performance Score	−0.03	−0.03
Ethos with Pedagogy	0.75*	0.75*
Student Performance Score with Pedagogy	−0.03	−0.53

* p ≤ (two-tail test)

indicating that the scholastic aptitude of the students appears to be minimally, if at all, related to the manner in which they perceive their teacher in effectively or ineffectively executing his function in the classroom.

Hypothesis Number Four, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the student's performance score in the classroom, as measured by a standardized testing instrument," was accepted according to the findings. It was discovered that academic performance of students as measured by the testing only of concepts stipulated as instructorial goals, was not a predictor of the student's rating of teacher effectiveness. In fact, academic performance score did not enter the equation, since the minimum tolerance level for inclusion was not attained.

Hypothesis Number Five, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the sex of the students participating in the treatment groups," was rejected according to the findings. Since the solution of the multiple regression equation is somewhat dependent upon the predictor variable being interval in scaling, an assessment of the value of the sex as a predictor of teaching effectiveness in combination with the other variables was not possible. An estimate of its effect was possible, however, by examining the resulting value when male and female responses were compared. The

TABLE V

RATING OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS DIFFERENCES BY SEX

	Mean	Standard Deviation	*t*
Male Students (n = 129)	6 30	1 76	
Female Students (n = 51)	5.48	1.97	2.17*

*t ≤ .05

results were found to be significant at the .05 level. By examination of mean scores, it can be observed that male students tended to rate teachers higher than did female students. (See Table V—page 72)

Hypothesis Number Six, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness for instructors in groups where instructorial objectives were formally explicated and in groups where instructorial objectives were not formally explicated," was accepted. The same procedural steps employed in the measurement of sex differences were utilized for the analysis of the effect that explication of objectives had on student perception of teaching effectiveness. A *t* test was computed, and the mean scores indicated that those students who received explicated objectives tended to rate their teachers higher than did those students not receiving the explicated objectives. However, a significant difference between the two groups was not found. (See Table VI)

TABLE VI
RATING OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS DIFFERENCES BY EXPLICATION OF OBJECTIVES

	Mean	Standard Deviation	*t*
Students Who Received Explicated Objectives (n = 72)	6.12	1.50	
Students Who Did Not Receive Explicated Objectives (n = 108)	5.83	2.04	1.05

Hypothesis Number Seven, "No significant difference will be observed between the student's rating of teaching effectiveness and the expectancy level of the instructor for materials which will be imparted to students during the course of study," was accepted. An analysis of the effect of teacher expectancy as a predictor of teaching effectiveness did not yield significant results. However, an examination of Table VII indicates that, on a nine-point scale, there exists a tendency to give the lowest expectancy teachers a rating of five, and the highest expectancy teachers a rating of seven, suggesting that, given a choice between the two expectancy levels, a student would rate the high expectancy teacher at a higher level than the low expectancy teacher.

TABLE VII
RATING OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS DIFFERENCES BY TEACHER EXPECTANCY

Expectancy Level	Mean	Standard Deviation	n
1	5.00	1.76	21
2	6.69	1.34	39
3	5.45	1.41	33
4	5.12	2.04	47
5	7.11	1.49	40

Expectancy Levels: 1 low expectancy level
5 high expectancy level

Summary of Data Findings

In summary, the two most important predictors of the student's rating of teaching effectiveness are Ethos of the Instructor and Pedagogical Expertise of the Instructor, together accounting for some 60 percent of the variance. Other variables such as student academic performance in the classroom and scholastic aptitude, while thought to be predictors, failed to achieve significant results in the study. Student sex was also a predictor of how the student will rate the instructor, with students of the male sex rating their instructors higher than students of the female sex. Variables, such as instructors explication of behavioral objectives and how demanding the instructor was in terms of instructor expectancy, and his/her expectancy level of students, were not statistically significant as predictors of student ratings of teaching effectiveness.

Discussion and Conclusion

This research provides evidence that the academic performance of a student is not necessarily a predictor of how a student views teaching effectiveness. Rather the results indicate that the major predictors of teaching and course effectiveness are the student's perceptions of the instructor's ethos and pedagogical style.

One tenable explanation for such findings is that students view economics instruction more as a consumption good than as an investment good. Many educators and economists in analyzing the value of education stipulate that individuals take classes in order to enhance their capabilities as producers and consumers. They invest in themselves through education in the same way as they invest in physical capital—to increase their worth. Thus, to the degree that a student viewed a course as an investment experience, he would probably rate an instructor higher if he had learned more subject matter and consequently believed his worth as human capital had been increased.

It is our belief that the students in this study—none of whom were economics majors—perceived their education in this course as consumption rather than investment. Consequently, they rated its value on the basis of parameters related to general satisfaction. If prospective plumbers in a class on plumbing were to rate their instructor, we predict that they would have put more value on the amount learned because their expectations would be those of investors rather than consumers.

The major findings of this study may also be viewed in terms of cognitive versus affective goals. An instructor allegedly attempts not only to impart knowledge about his subject but also to instill favorable attitudes toward it. Perhaps a positive attitude toward the instructor's ethos and pedagogical style is more conducive to producing favorable attitudes toward the subject than accumulation of knowledge about the subject matter.

Our study covered one semester of instruction. It could be hypothesized that an important goal of the

first course in a field is to create a favorable psychological set toward the subject matter so that students in the future will be receptive to information concerning that area.

Still another explanation for our results is that students are poor judges of good teaching. This explanation, however, begs the question of what is meant by good teaching.

Our findings with respect to sex differences in the rating of economics instruction are perplexing. Perhaps women were more reluctant to give high ratings to their instructors because they tend to be more discerning. A more plausible explanation, however, is that women tend to do less well in economics and often have mental blocks toward the discipline (Dietz, 1964; Sanders, 1973). This unfavorable disposition toward the discipline might indeed affect their ratings. Another explanation might be that male teachers in a school of business tacitly downgrade women's potential.

Numerous speculations emerge from our findings. Since other research in the field has both supported and contradicted our results, it is apparent that further study is needed in order to clarify what is measured by ratings of teaching effectiveness.

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SECTION THREE

THE ACCOUNTABILITY PROBLEM AS IT RELATES TO BUSINESS EDUCATION

Many problems beset business education these days and we as business educators must be aware of, face up to, and attempt to provide solutions to them. Some of these problems were the concern of the 1973 Convention of the National Association for Business Teacher Education. Among the issues and problems treated at that Convention were accountability in business education; new approaches to clinical experiences in business teacher education; building business teacher competencies; strategies for coping with, strengthening, and funding business teacher education programs; current controversy in business teacher certification; and those problems and issues and practices relating to graduate programs in business teacher education, including the preparation of teachers for postsecondary institutions.

Educators from different sections of the United States, having different backgrounds and experiences and hence bringing to the Convention different views and perspectives, dealt with the issues and problems that the above topics suggest. All recognized the complexity, scope, and urgency of the problems and the need to devote time and attention to their solutions.

It would, indeed, be of interest and help if in a publication of this nature the entire proceedings of the NABTE Convention could be published; however, limitations on space and funds do not permit this approach. Therefore, only selected presentations are included in this Section of the second volume of the *NABTE Review*. Dean Harry J. Hartley's stimulating discussion at the NABTE General Session of Program Planning and Budgeting System and its implications for business education was particularly well received. Dean Hartley makes clear the meaning of accountability and PPBS, where PPBS stands nationally, and the best approach for implementing PPBS. He emphasizes that PPBS is one accountability model being widely used throughout the United States, and it should be of interest and help to business educators.

Dr. Fred Cook and his research team from Wayne State University deal with the accountability concept as applied to business teacher education, and J. Dale Oliver discusses techniques found helpful in his project of evaluating vocational education programs in Virginia. Drs. Gary Fenstermacher and Harry Huffman talk about change in teacher education and in American schooling and the effect of these changes on business education. Dr. Theodore Ivarie suggests strategies for strenthening business education programs, and Dr. Donald Tate deals with issues and problems in preparing teachers for postsecondary institutions.

In addition to the above-named speakers whose papers are presented in this Section, some sixty of the nation's business teacher educators appeared on the three-day NABTE program attended by over 1,000 business educators. Only through the continued active interest and participation of NABTE's membership will we be able to share ideas and practices and to attack and solve successfully the many problems facing business education today.

—Dean R. Malsbary

ACCOUNTABILITY WITH PPBS—THREAT OR CHALLENGE

Harry J. Hartley

Dean, School of Education
University of Connecticut
Storrs, Connecticut

I have organized my comments around four major themes. First is a brief operational definition of the word "accountability." What is accountability in an operational sense? Secondly, I would like to provide a concise description of one accountability model that is actually helping educators in a number of states—and that is the Planning, Programming, Budgeting System, or PPBS. What it is, where is it being used, and what are the results. The third theme is a status report on PPBS. Where does it stand in 1973? The second speaker today will describe a specific application of PPBS in one subject area—business education—and for the most part in one school district or state in which he has worked. So my presentation will be the national posture of PPBS; and his will be a specific implementation of it. Fourth, I will describe a procedure for implementing PPBS in your organization.

Section I

What is accountability? My own feeling is that most educators react in one of two ways when they hear this term: threatened or challenged. The term is not new, for we have been hearing it with increasing intensity for the last four or five years. But I find that on one hand there are those that regard it as a threat, a threat to their professional existence or survival, and there are those that view it as a challenge. We hear charges levied that the schools could do better, or that we are spending too much, or that we are not adequately justifying our expenditures. Maybe there is enough blame for all of us to share and perhaps we can do a somewhat better job of responding. In that first category, there are a lot of people who have found themselves threatened by things like voucher systems, performance-based evaluation, and performance contracting. In many cases, these concepts are being tossed at educators in what amounts to being an adversary style. These are models designed to get teachers to provide instant accountability for people who very often possess an anti-education bias. When you examine the motives underlying the desires for moving towards voucher systems or towards performance contracting, it appears that critics are saying that education has become too important to be left to educators. Educators are responding to some of the lay critics who are trying to deinstitutionalize education. So perhaps the defensive posture we struck was justified and our opposition was timely. But I do not think we are going to generate much additional public support by setting up defenses.

It seems to me that accountability is a challenge—a challenge to business educators, and to the total educational profession to do a better job of describing our accomplishments and the programs that we are proposing. It is a challenge to specify the changes that are recommended, to identify evaluation criteria, and make a case for further investment of scarce funds for public education. I am attacking this issue from a positive standpoint. I am saying that I can present a model to you by which you can do a better job in your internal planning in business education and also make a case for external funding by people who are looking at education as well as every other public sector—welfare, transportation, health, and defense.

One of the key problems in a topic like accountability is that there are almost as many definitions as there are advocates, so you have the difficulty of not knowing exactly what the term means or what a speaker means when he uses the term. My own feeling is that there are essentially three major categories by which the definitions of accountability can be stated, and I'd like to describe these rather briefly.

The first category is an attempt to relate the level of educational expenditures to educational accomplishments. Now in effect, this is what I would call the *economic model.* We are hearing things like benefit-cost analysis, input-output analysis; that education itself can do a better job in justifying why more money should be spent than the 91 billion dollars expended this year on formal education. We are becoming the largest single industry in the country if you look at the proportion of the gross national product spent on education. But I do not think it is enough. I think we must justify additional funding for business education largely in terms of increase in accomplishment—the services we are going to deliver in the various programs that comprise the business education curriculum. An example of a model here would be benefit-cost analysis. This model would be a response to the economic definition of accountability. Newspapers use slogans like "more bang for the buck" when they attempt to justify more funding for public education. But that is simply one part of the definition.

A second approach is the responsibility of educators to parents for their children's learning. It is another way of defining accountability, the responsibility that we all have in explaining what we are doing to youngsters at the various educational levels, up to and including graduate school. This is essentially a *consumer model.* What are we doing to the ultimate receiver of the benefits of educational investment? Some examples of accountability models here I think would be community control and decentralization attempts, particularly in the urban centers such as

New York City. In effect, an attempt is made to place decision-making authority at the level of the persons who are paying taxes. But it is based on the responsibility of the parents.

There is then a third classification which helps to support the definition of accountability. This is the area in which we are developing standards of teaching conduct that are acceptable to professionals—to employers such as schools, colleges, community colleges, and the like, and to community groups. This is a model that is really based on attempting to make more explicit what our competency factors are. An actual model we are using in this area, for example, would be a performance-based or competency-based model of teacher evaluation. This form of teacher evaluation that a number of states and universities are moving towards attempts to get away simply from courses as preparation and more toward developing observable competencies. What I am really trying to indicate in defining accountability is that it is a type of three-pronged concept. When people in general use the term, you have to press them for their definition in order to understand their comments. Now, I view PPBS as contributing to all three of these definitions, but mostly to the first one—the economic model—as a way of integrating curriculum planning and resource allocations.

Section II

What is PPBS? Planning, Programming, Budgeting Systems (It is quite a mouthful—PPBS is a short way of referring to it) has been used in education for about five or six years. If you are interested in the history of it, it really started in the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Defense in the early 1960's, due largely to the work by Rand Corporation. But it arrived on the scene in education in the late 1960's. In a very short period of time it has had substantial impact on educational planning, from local classroom planning all the way to national programs as a part of the National Institute of Education.

Very simply, then, PPBS is an attempt to use curricular programs as a basis for budget formulation and get away from the old concept of the tail (budget) wagging the dog (curriculum) in education. The old philosophy would start with a budget and then try to figure out whether anything could be done in the curriculum sense—planning the school programs. If we can reverse that and begin with curricular programs, define them explicitly, develop a system of priorities for a school system, we can then assist in the budgeting task of determining what dollars should be allocated to which programs. This approach represents a very simple, very subtle, but very substantial departure from conventional school budgeting and conventional curriculum planning in education. The typical local school district budget lists only the things you have to purchase. The categories include items such as administration, instruction, transportation, capital outlay, food service, debt service, and so on. But if you stop to think, those are things we have to buy in order to do something. The questions that are left unanswered are what is the something that we are trying to do, and for what purpose is a local school system spending 30 million dollars? We are not spending money only to buy teachers' salaries, which is, of course, the way the budget is structured. This outmoded budget format provides one reason why we are having so much difficulty generating public support for school budgets these days. The public is not interested in paying more money for teachers' salaries. What Program Budgeting suggests is to recast that budget in the form of curricular programs so we can see what goes into the language arts, into business education, into special education, into industrial arts, and into various other programs.

This approach is a very simple difference, but it makes all the difference in an era of accountability. Can you describe where the dollars in you organization are going in terms of *programs you are trying to accomplish* rather than in terms of *things you are trying to buy?* All this essentially is the definition of Program Budgeting.

Now, the principles underlying PPBS focus on planning educational programs in terms of goals and objectives, considering the relative costs and anticipated benefits of alternative programs, and basing decisions for the future upon these kinds of programs. You have here a very simple definition of PPBS, but you will notice it covers just about everything that we are doing in education. It is a response to books like Silberman's *Crisis in the Classroom* that say that first of all schools suffer from "mindlessness" and "lack of purpose." Or writers like Illich who would like to de-institutionalize society, de-school society, and who claim that we do not need formal institutions, such as schools. I would say that we do have a purpose. Not only do we have a purpose, but that purpose can be translated in terms of programs—programs that reveal human priorities, and priorities to accomplish the purpose, or purposes.

In a way, PPBS is like a play having two major acts. *Act I is Program Budgeting*, and that is essentially what I have described above. But *Act II* of the play is *Program Planning*. Now Act I of the play is essentially the financial emphasis, what the business office is doing in trying to keep track of costs. We will use cost accounting to show the direct costs of programs, we will probably use some computer-based programs to maintain expenditure control and so on. Also, there are analytical models of fiscal control that can be built into it. All of these components fall under this broad concept called program budgeting. Act II, Program Planning, is the curricular part, the intensive analysis of programs that we will attach dollars to over the year. After you have determined the cost of the program and exposed it to the cold figure of the dollar, the next questions asked are these: What are you doing? How well are you accomplishing it? What are you proposing for the next three years? What are the alternative methods you are using to accomplish the stated objectives? Are you using your funds in the most

efficient manner? What are the new programs in the proposal? What kind of diagnostic aid do you have for individual youngsters? What kinds of evaluation standards have you accepted to judge a program? Are you going to use standards based on data? Are you moving towards criterion-referenced instruction? All of these questions fall within Act II of the play—the Program Planning phase. As in the theatre, for this act to be successful, both acts have to be accomplished. When people ask me how well PPBS is working in the many local schools I have visited personally, I indicate that I observe that success depends largely on the *artistry of the user*. If you have an intelligent person who is willing to do the work, who does not have an anti-education bias, who is willing to work with people in a tough process of organization developmental innovation, I think PPBS can make and has made substantial strides, and it has helped schools answer accountability-based questions. But if you have incompetent people, people who have a bias against education, who do not choose to work within the organization, PBBS probably will not make a difference. The key answer, then, to whether it can or cannot be helpful to schools in the artistry of the user, what he does with the information, and what he chooses to report to the public that asks the questions. PPBS is, in summary, a play with two main acts.

One of the problems relating to the interpretation of PPBS or the description of its various concepts, is that it is often described or interpreted in terms of the interest or bias of the speaker or writer. If that person happens to be an assistant superintendent of business of a local school, he will probably overemphasize data processing, budget coding, or expenditure control, and will not even mention that curriculum objectives and evaluation are part of the process. The reason is that from his perspective, it is essentially a budget tool. On the other hand, you may find curriculum people who will interpret PPBS as only a model for defining behavioral objectives, or for developing criterion-referenced testing, with no notion that maybe they also can help generate funds for education. What I am trying to say is one should make certain that both acts of the play and all those scenes within the acts are properly viewed.

Advantages of PPBS. Now, what are some of the advantages and characteristics of PPB System for you, the business educator, I shall summarize these below:

1. A PPB System will help you formulate goals, objectives, learning skills, and evaluative criteria. Certainly this has been our experience with schools that have been in PPBS for at least two years or more

2. It will help you design curricular programs to achieve stated objectives—not implied objectives, not inferred objectives, not objectives that include such obscure phrases as "meet the needs" that are essentially useless—rather, objectives that can be related specifically to individualized learning for youngsters within program categories.

3. It will help you analyze more systematically the feasible alternatives. Think of a program like reading which has become a number one priority in most schools, colleges, and universities. A typical school program may be running five different reading programs concurrently, taking a phonetic approach, a basal approach, or some other approach, but with no notion whether any one of these is better than the others. We simply use different approaches assuming variety is desirable. What PPBS would require is better evidence as to whether one of the methods is more appropriate in terms of what happens to the youngster, than another. It assesses alternatives by means of system analysis.

4. It provides the instructional staff with better planning information and resources in terms of both curriculum and budgeting. My own feeling about budgeting is that most schools' budgets are developed following the rules of mushroom growing. That is, we keep them in the dark and feed them with manure. And then wonder why we get no support. PPBS says open up the budget, let the teacher understand it, don't go to the public and simply show that the budget is a listing of higher teacher's salaries, because that is a self-defeating start. Who cares how much more they have to give you next year for your salary. The reason we have teachers' salaries is that we have curricular programs that do have objectives and that do have evaluation criteria. And when you take money out of the budget, you are just hurting class size and the number of preparation periods and number of teachers, you are taking out instructional programs and identifiable instructional services for youngsters.

One of our major problems is that the public possesses *infinite expectations* of what we in education should do; and then it gives us *finite resources*. Every program in a school is competing with every other program. One of the interesting things about PPBS is that it is neutral on preference of programs versus other programs. It simply gives the same opportunity for business education to compete with special education and art education and music education for the limited resources available. And the way you respond to it is the key as to whether or not you will compete favorably. Some programs have been reduced nationally; counseling is one example. In many schools, counseling is unable to justify why it should exist. On the other hand, I think business education can justify why it should exist. For you, PPBS will increase teacher involvement in the decision making. It will identify the direct instructional process in a Program Budgeting System. It will specify your priorities. For the first time you are going to be able to see the organizational values when you develop your first program budget. Where is business education? Now I mentioned values in only one way, and that is in terms of dollars. I realize that dollars are a crude measure, but they are one indication of values when a school system hires one more teacher in art, or establishes one more curricular program in music. Which program gets the dollars and why? Finally, PPBS will increase public understanding of what the schools are doing, and support for what the schools require in the way of resources.

There is no question in my mind that we are *not* doing a very good job in responding to an accountability-conscious public by continuing to give them

line-item budgets. The public is asking for output information. What happens to the tax dollars in terms of pupil accomplishment? The schools continue to respond with input information: class size, number of teachers, preparation periods, teacher salaries, etc. These input factors do not explain what happens to the youngster. I think with PPBS, we are going to be asking questions that will generate the kind of *output* information that is desired.

Section III

Where does PPBS stand nationally in 1973? I shall share some of my observations in the form of a very concise status report. It is difficult to determine exactly how many states have mandated some form of PPBS in education, but it would appear that twenty states have mandated some form of the PPB System. Now, first of all *PPBS is a mode of thinking*, and it is very difficult to mandate the way a person thinks. We want you to think in terms of curricular programs and in terms of program budgeting. The reason I point this out is that when a state says it will mandate PPBS, it generally takes the legislature two or three years to figure out what was mandated, and how educators can respond to an undefined mandate. What can they generally mandate? States certainly can mandate the way your school system files its financial expenditures to the State Education Department, or the way your state university responds to the State Comptroller, but generally it is *Act I* of the play described earlier. The mandate is usually in the program budgeting, cost accounting, developmental information systems area. Very few states have tried to mandate the program planning stage. A few states have tried to come in through new tenure plans or have tried to come in through a behavioral objectives mandate; others have tried to mandate comprehensive achievement monitoring and criterion-referenced testing. But those are only pellets representing a very small part of the total PPBS mosaic. If you ask how many school systems have developed PPBS procedures, I would estimate that the figure is somewhere between two and three thousand. That is an amazing figure when there are only about 18,000 local school systems in the country. Therefore, in a period of about five years or so, we have had substantial development in a very pragmatic sense among those schools. Now I must admit that the rates of progress have been very uneven. The way Brookline, Mass., the way Portland, Maine, the way Santa Rosa, California, and the way Greenwich, Conn., have developed may vary quite a bit. But we have made substantial progress.

Another question that may be asked is what are the achievements, what are the accomplishments of PPBS? For one thing, we have learned that it is very easy for schools and colleges to develop program budgeting. You can see programs in operation and we know that program budgeting is possible. But, for the complete PPBS, I think the jury is still out. It is much easier for local school systems to develop program budgets than it is to develop and agree upon goals, objectives, and evaluation measures. In each curricular program you are able to do this, so we are making progess. But you know the difficulties in trying to impose external evaluation criteria on programs. That is *not* the best way to do it. It should come from within. We have accomplished Act I of the play. Act II is still in its developmental stage.

When program budgeting was first developed by the federal government and was being used by the states, we were in a period of growth and expansion. PPBS was being used to help local schools plan and implement new programs. Unfortunately, things have changed and we are now in a period of contraction, and we are using the same models to determine which programs must be changed and on what basis you eliminate programs. But I still think the same planning model is equally appropriate in either atmosphere, *expansion* or *contraction*. I would hope decisions are made on a rational basis, rather than on a practical basis. We all hope that there will again be further support for public education, and that we can return to a period of expansion.

I would make another observation. There is a very short attention span by educators concerning any innovation. I have seen a lot of people who do not stay with any given innovation more than a year. It is difficult to sustain interest in a topic like PPBS for six years when there is no longer innovation in many schools. For example, in 1968 we emphasized differentiated staffing, in 1969 it was modular scheduling, in 1970 it was performance contracting, in 1971 it was the British infant schools and open education, and so on. The point I'm making is that for administrators the attention span is only about one year. That, however, has not been the case with PPBS. After several years, the number of districts and educators utilizing PPBS has continued to rise. There are misconceptions, as I indicated before, about PPBS. I continue to encounter the predictable but incorrect use of PPBS almost everywhere I go. For one thing, people will say it is simply a cost accounting tool; therefore, who needs it. Or it is simply a mechanistic tool created by technicians—most of whom are business educators, of course. It is designed to destroy humanistic learning. It is decision making by computer. Or it is a model based on the "cult of efficiency." Or the only criteria we should use is making decisions about educational programs is one of cost. All this indicates some of the reasons that we have so much difficulty with people who have these misconceptions about PPBS. We can answer them if given the opportunity.

Permit me one other observation. From my standpoint, the number one problem in implementing a PPB System is not that we do not understand it; it is not that we lack the will, or that we are not intelligent; it is that *we do not have the time*. Department chairmen and administrators do not have sufficient

time. As a result, in most schools it is done in spurts of activity. They do it in a curriculum workshop when they have a couple of weeks off. This means poor results. In some states, particularly in urban centers, I am ever more pessimistic because the teachers' contracts say that no extra staff time can be utilized, because after 2 o'clock they must be paid overtime or even double time. Now the question I would like to ask, and this is true for any innovation, is *who* will do the planning? Who will determine the goals? Who will develop the evaluation criteria? Assuming the teachers do not have the free time, assuming the schools do not have the money to pay the teachers extra, are we moving into an era in which *we cannot afford to plan*? This seems to be clearly the case in both association and individual contracts. It is frustrating and I am not sure how we can deal with it. Also, there seems to be a lack of sharing of information among users of PPBS. When we go to California, Connecticut, or Puerto Rico, we find that none of these organizations is exchanging PPBS implementation information. They all start at base zero, and begin writing objectives, developing evaluation criteria, developing program budgeting, as if they are reinventing the wheel. Somebody should be coordinating these efforts. The objectives are not going to be that much different, so perhaps we should adapt different aspects or different emphases for our own unique problems. If we only could exchange documentation examples and discuss the "people problems," how much easier it would all be.

Section IV

What is the best approach for implementing PPBS? Let's assume your school system wants to initiate PPBS. What would I advise as the most pragmatic implementation strategy to use? My approach is to keep the process as simple as possible. I suggest *three major steps*. *Step number one* is that the organization define its *program structure*. I do not care whether it is a public school, junior college, college, university, YMCA, United Funds, or the Department of Defense, because PPBS is being used in all of these organizations. All these organizations have one thing in common—they have programs that can be shown in program structure. Also, they want to have a better notion of the value of their performance. So as Step No. 1: *Define your programs*. This is called the program structure.

Is business education a program in your school? Does it have subprograms that can be clearly specified and articulated? How would you designate them? We call that a program structure.

Step No. 2: Develop a *program budget*. Take the existing line-item budget for your school or department and convert it to a program budget. The reason I am saying "school" is that it is better if your whole organization moves into PPBS rather than just your department. Sometimes you can be penalized by showing cost information to the wrong people and then having them use the information against you. So Step 2 is to develop a program budget. Include only those *direct costs* of your programs: teacher salaries, teacher benefits, equipment, supplies, field trips, equipment repairs, and anything else that constitutes a reasonable direct cost of your program. We are *not* trying to prorate the cost of electricity for the business education program; that would be part of another program called utilities or operation maintenance. We are including only those things that are directly attributable to your program. That is a program budget and it is not very difficult to develop. Yes, you will be maintaining concurrent budgets (object budget and program budget) for a couple of years.

Step No. 3: Identify a couple of target programs for detailed *program analysis*. For a local school system, for example select a couple programs (business education could certainly be one, or special education, or reading programs, or transportation), and see if you have the ability to identify the goals of that program, the structure of that program, the objectives, the evaluation criteria, the accomplishments of the program, your projections, alternative methods, and so on. There are about ten categories of information that are needed and these categories will determine the cost of your program. The reason that I am saying that you will want only one or two programs to be analyzed initially is that you can have a prototype that you can share with all the other programs in your organization. Make sure that it was helpful for one program to do PPBS before you implement it across the board. I find that too many administrators get so excited about the idea that they say we are going to apply PPBS to all of our programs simultaneously. They get teacher resistance, teacher opposition, and they do not know what they are doing. So I say, be pragmatic, apply it to one or two programs. Apply it to one specific program and then determine if it was helpful. You can then use it, and share it among all the programs in the school.

My final observation is one that there is always the possibility of an excess of paperwork with PPBS. Keep it as a simple method of thinking. Do not be inclined to require people to turn in more paperwork than is necessary. It will not be read. It will become dysfunctional. The question a teacher should ask is, "Does PPBS make life simpler once it is implemented?" My answer is *Yes*, if it is done well. We are not trying to create mountains of paperwork—we are trying to simplify the process. My impression is that in a good school system you are already doing about 70 percent of what PPBS calls for anyway. Somebody certainly has objectives. Somebody certainly has evaluated students. Somebody has diagnostic data. Somebody has been preparing line-item budgets all these years. But the problem is that we do not coordinate it all; and it is usually six different peo-

ple within the organization that are doing these things. So I am saying let PPBS be a simplifier instead of a complicator so as to bring this information together into one administrative planning model.

Another problem of PPBS is the turnover rate of administrators. I am a bit distressed that many people use PPBS as a means of moving to the next higher position. They become highly marketable. They move on to become superintendents, and so on. They start in a small district with PPBS, do an excellent job and use it as a basis for becoming a superintendent in a much larger district. The result is a very high turnover rate among administrators who have been using PPBS in organizations. So I think what I am calling for is to make certain that the concept has been internalized within the organization so that when one person leaves, the whole concept does not come to the end. We must internalize the process.

In conclusion, I have tried to give you a general view of what PPBS is and I have defined accountability from a *challenge* point of view. My purpose was to indicate that with PPBS you can do a better job of relating curriculum planning to program budgeting and objectives.

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CLINICAL EXPERIENCES IN BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION

Gary D. Fenstermacher

Teacher Education Laboratory
U.C.L.A. Graduate School of Education
Los Angeles, California

I am going to discuss change in teacher education, change in American schooling, and how change in teacher education and American schooling come together. I hope that one of the purposes in saying the things that I would like to say to all of you will be to give you some idea of how pre-service and in-service education can be merged. In this day of declining budgets for teacher education and increasing accountability, one of the strongest rationales for merging pre-service and in-service teacher education is the impact educators can have on in-service education, staff development, and school renewal. It is my personal belief that, if we cannot justify pre-service teacher training in terms of in-service education activities, the budgets will continue to decline and the standards for accountability will become so high that we will be forced out of existence.

I think the analogy between medical training and teacher training is overworked, but I would like to try it one more time just to set my own remarks in context. Imagine medical school training students in the year 1973 with the latest knowledge: the best applied practice stemming from that knowledge: the best tools, techniques, and machines. Then it comes time for these medical students to begin their internship. They do their internship in a hospital that has no pathology laboratory, no intensive-care units, no radioactive isotope tracers, no pulmonary respirators, no board-certified surgeons, no transplant specialists. The interns return to the dean of the training school and complain that the hospital in which they are doing their internship bears no relationship whatsoever to the school in which they did their training. It seems the dean has four or five possible answers, and I will present them to you as multiple choice questions. You can guess the most nearly correct answer.

1. The Dean could say, "Look son, our task is to prepare the best possible doctors we can prepare. We don't take any responsibility for the way the hospitals are. Do the best job you can, let the medical and surgi-

cal staff work your problems out with the hospital administration, but don't bother me."

2. The Dean can be very sympathetic and say, "Look, I know that's the way things are, but we're not training you for 1973. We're training you for 1990. Even though things are bad now, they'll get better. You come back and see me in ten years. Tell me then if you feel as bad about your training as you do now."

3. The Dean could agree with the students, saying that he has tried very hard to work with the hospital, but with no success. Meantime the school has a responsibility to provide the students with all that it knows, whether or not all that it knows exists in the hospitals.

4. The Dean could say nothing and reach over and wake up Ernie. Now I'd like to tell you about waking up Ernie, and I apologize to any of you who may have heard the story before.

> Johnny Carson was looking for something to pep up his late night show. Somebody gave him the idea that what he ought to have on the show were common people to give it the common touch and the spice of life. So Johnny thought that one of the things that would really be terrific would be to have a truck driver, a real garden-variety, every-day tractor-trailer driver. So he got this fellow on the show.
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> The interview was falling to pieces, and he didn't know what to do. Finally, he posed a problem for the truck driver, figuring this would get things going again. He said, "Look, what would you do if you were driving your tractor-trailer up a hill on a two-lane highway. There was a big cliff on the left and a big cliff on the right. Another tractor-trailer truck was coming down, and you were just about to get along side when another tractor-trailer pulled out behind the one coming down. There you were coming up the highway, and two big tractor trailers were blocking the road, both lanes.
>
> The truck driver thought for a minute and said. "Well, I guess I would wake up Ernie." And Johnny said, "Ernie! Who is Ernie?" "Ernie's my relief driver." "Well, why would you wake up Ernie?" "Oh," said the truck driver, "Ernie's from the country. He's never seen an accident like that would be!"

When I became involved in teacher education a few years ago, I found things like competency-based or performance-based teacher education, micro-teaching, criterion-referenced tests, selection of optimum training environments, diagnosis and prescription, instructional paradigms, clinical professors, and so much more. As I looked at these things, I thought these phenomena to be among the things I really must learn about because this is the way these people are talking. Then I went through the stage where I thought these things were "emperor's clothes" and that there was really nothing to them at all. Now, I believe I've reached the stage where all of these ideas are worthy ideas; they make sense, and they will promote quality in pre-service education. But when it comes to doing anything about the state of schooling in America, their effect is little more than waking up Ernie.

I think that professors of education, whether it be business education or any other kind, are cursed with the view that the best way to train teachers is to provide them with the best instructional skills and the best curricular skill we can. We forget that one of the tasks in which we are involved is change, and change is more than simply providing the best instructional skills or the best curricular skills, because even though these are available, the schools like the hospital mentioned earlier still do not seem to be using them.

What we are trying to do at UCLA, and it is going on at other institutions, is to provide the kind of pre-service training that promotes in-service education, staff development, and school renewal. Every time we consider adopting an innovation in pre-service teacher education, we ask, "How will this help us promote in-service training, staff development, and school renewal?" Our efforts can be viewed as the application of three basic rules. You might find one of them familiar and perhaps two of them surprises.

1. Provide the student with a training environment which he will promote as a classroom teacher.

2. Equip the student teacher with those professional skills which distinguish him as a teacher.

3. Merge the pre-service training of teachers into the in-service training of teachers for the purpose of promoting school renewal.

We put these three rules to work in the following ways.

1. Student Autonomy

We have broken our faculty down into teams, each team representing a different philosophy of teaching. We have an experience-based, humanistic team; a performance-based team; an inquiry, problem-solving team; and a clinical-based team that works primarily on the diagnosis and prescription model. We have a large team. It's eclectic. It is made up of staff from each of the other smaller teams. It is called the Standard, or "S" team.

The students, when they are admitted to the teacher education program, are given a list of these teams, and we say to them: "Choose the team in which you want to be involved." We hold an orientation for them and give them a full description of the teams. Once they choose a team, they may switch into another team if they like, but the standard practice is to stay with that team through their whole training career.

In the four small, experimental teams that I have mentioned, the maximum student population is thirty. There are three professors of education and two or three clinical persons on each team. This same staff shares in the work of the big "S" team. We have tried to maintain a low staff to student ratio throughout the program.

Reviewers gave us a lot of static when they first saw this arrangement. They said, "Hey, what's the big idea of just educating persons to performance-based education? Isn't it a good idea to expose all students to all the different models?" Well, all we could reply to that was, "Your reviews represent the great idealism that characterizes the liberal arts education. But it never seems to succeed."

We are trying to provide the student with a training ground which matches his interests and his own personal development as a human being. When it comes time to do student teaching, we provide the students with big, three-ringed notebooks that say, "Here are selective student teaching environments, all of which we will be profitable to you. You decide where you want to go."

In your case, it would amount to having, for example, ten students in business education. You go out and find twenty education environments in which they can student teach and say, "Now choose the ones you like." The students go out and they talk to the training teachers. They come back and they say, "I don't like it." We say, "Fine, find another one." Or they come back and say, "I like it." We say, "Hold on, we'll check if the teachers did." If the teachers like the student, there is an agreement. If they don't, no agreement. If the student gets into it, and finds he made a mistake, he has a right, a written, guaranteed right to get out of it and we find another assignment for that student. Now that may strike you as being kind of unprofessional, but we know that personality clashes are one of the primary reasons for difficulty in the student teaching experience. We don't punish the student for being the kind of person he is. If there is any punishment to be given, it should be done on the basis of skills and competencies, or the lack of skills and competencies, and not on the kind of person the student happens to be.

Finally, we try to release the student from the implicit, authoritarian relationship that often exists between a single training teacher and a single student teacher. We do this by teaming two or more training teachers with two or more student teachers. This way, when one training teacher wants student teacher X to do Y, he generally checks with the other training teacher. This back and forth interaction between training teachers tends to soften the shock of the experience of practice teaching. Being able to talk with other student teachers in the same environment also promotes a cooperative, nonauthoritarian relationship.

When I took over my job as head of student teaching two years ago, I wasn't supposed to start until June 1. However, as soon as people found out that I was the new head, I had 85 students complaining about their student teaching experiences. We have very few complaints any more. When we do, the first question we ask is, "Why do you think you have such difficulties? You are the person who chose to be where you are." That response usually nips a great many problems in the bud.

2. Integration of Pre-Education Service Education

Now here, I think, is where some of the novelty begins for the impact of pre-service education on school renewal. We know from five years of research done by the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (I.D.E.A.) that one of the greatest impediments to change in American education is the isolation characteristics of the self-contained classroom teacher. Being self-contained and isolated promotes a certain kind of psychological and sociological development which, while not fully explained, fosters a great deal of resistance to innovation and change. We're working on the hypothesis that if we are to introduce change into American education, we've got to chip away at the isolation that characterizes the self-contained classroom teacher.

We took one step in the beginning at which most everybody laughed. We had 40 or 50 schools in which we were doing training. We cut the list down to 12 in one fell swoop. Then we said to the teachers in those 12 schools, "We'd like to work with you, but if you want to work with us you have to do a few things. First, you have to get together with another teacher in this school and write up the training program that you would like to provide for student teachers." We said, "Get together with a colleague on an instructional problem or curriculum problem that is of interest to both of you. Describe it. Then invite student teachers to come and participate as resources to your attempts to resolve that problem." We did not ask or tell the teachers what problems to develop. Rather, we said, "You decide on the problem, we'll provide the student teachers and ourselves as resources."

It is something of a novelty to consider student teachers as resources. Everybody looks at them as a kind of burden. That's what training teachers always told us. And we said, "No, they're manpower; we look at them that way, and we hope you will." Well, the effect of this procedure has been to bring the teachers out of their self-contained environments and working together in groups. As groups, they formulate tasks and then participate with our student teachers in the accomplishment of these tasks.

Getting our goals for student autonomy together with our goals for in-service training has created some difficulty because some teachers do get out of their self-contained environments, develop nifty plans, but no student teacher elects to join in. This is tough for us to explain to training teachers. It is probably one of our most difficult problems at this point. But when we talk to the training teachers, they are generally understanding of the student teachers' need to select environments where they feel they can succeed.

We are trying to work with our training teachers instead of paying them. We said to them, "Look, we'll continue to pay you if you like but if you want, we will credit what you would earn as a training teacher to vouchers in our education extension program at UCLA. If you will take two courses that we offer first, from there on out you can take anything you want by cashing in your vouchers." This arrangement has proved to be very attractive because the training teacher payment usually only goes to the teachers twice a year. After taxes, retirement, etc., have been deducted, they are never very tickled with the pittance they receive. Whereas, if you give it to them in university credit courses, it comes to a substantial sum of money, and it is often beneficial to their salary increments. In our extension course, we try to teach the

training teachers problem-solving techniques and methods. We devote five weeks out of a ten-week quarter to what we think they ought to know, and then they get five weeks during which we find the resources to tell them what they say they want to know.

We are working on the assumption that the school is the basic unit of change in American education. Work with the school not with the district, not with the classroom, not with the individual teacher, not with the region, not with the state. Work with the school, the people in the building. Work with the adult social system of a school.

Let me take a few minutes to summarize. I want to give you what I consider to be some sacred shibboleths in American teacher education, and tell you how what I've just talked about effects those shibboleths.

One is that we must find the best master teachers and the best training schools we can for our students. This is not true if you work where I teach. As a matter of fact, we try to find some of the worst schools we can as long as they're willing to try our procedures. If they're bad and content with that state of affairs, we stay out. But if they are having trouble and they're not so hot, but they are willing to participate, that's when we become anxious to join forces with them. When it comes to master teachers, yes, it is good to have good master teachers. But what's the sense of working only with the good teachers, helping the good to get better while the poor get poorer? By teaming training teachers, we try to select a good teacher to be the pivot, and then get two or three other people who are not so good to merge into a team of training teachers. We do go looking for weakness, not only strength, because if you wish to justify a change strategy, it is better to improve a weak condition, rather than take credit for making an already good situation better.

Another sacred shibboleth is that the students must have more time in student teaching. Out of one side of our mouths we talk about individualized instruction and out of the other side of our mouths we talk about minimum time in student teaching, as if the time factor were the sole criterion for success. For truly individualized instruction, it ought to be possible to certify a competent student teacher in 50 hours of time in the classroom. If he is not competent in 50 hours, you go up to a ceiling of 300 hours. If he is not competent after that, you throw him out. The market's flooded. There's no need to keep potentially poor teachers in the program.

A third shibboleth is that we must have the best clinical supervisors we can find. Well, clinical professors are probably, in the literature anyway, overrated. Those of you who have served in clinical capacities please forgive me. I am not about to recommend doing away with your job, but I would like to alter it a bit. We talk about subject matter specialists, clinical professors in instruction; again, driving away at curriculum and instruction as the way to improve. But nobody seems to listen to these clinicians. At least if we attend to Kohl, and Kozol, and Silberman, and others, nobody seems to listen. What we need to do is to turn these clinical people into change agents. We know, for example, again from I.D.E.A. research, that 90 percent of the things the teachers say they need but don't have, already exist within their schools or districts. They just don't know how to access them. The change agent is the person who helps another individual access what that individual needs. There is no reason for us to develop fantastic clinical people in subject skills or instruction if these capabilities are already in the school.

A final sacred belief is that we must help to get our master teachers to increase their understanding of what it is to train student teachers. Again, I think this notion is overrated. I am staying at the Conrad Hilton where the AACTE meetings are taking place, and there are just mountains of literature on student teaching. All of it has to do with improving the relationship between the student teacher and the training teacher for the purpose of improving pre-service education. I imagine if we went out and looked at it empirically, the results would be very disappointing in terms of the contributions of this effort to the schools. Our task is to find ways to use pre-service education to assist training teachers in becoming better classroom teachers, and in the process, assist in the development of new teachers.

In conclusion, I hope the time is coming when we can look at Ernie and say, "Go back to sleep, Ernie. There is not going to be any accident."

CLINICAL EXPERIENCES IN BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION

Harry Huffman

Department of Vocational Education
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, Colorado

A major factor hampering the expansion of vocational education programs is the inadequate supply of teachers who are willing and competent to teach disadvantaged youth. *Designs for the Preparation of Vocational and Technical Teachers of Socioeconomically Disadvantaged Youth* [1] is a manual, the product of a federally funded project concerned with this problem. The basic assumption of this project is that, if stereotypes and misconceptions about disadvantaged people can be overcome, many prospective teachers will be eager to teach in schools serving the disadvantaged community. The manual features 20 clinical experiences to be used in pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. These clinical experiences provide an opportunity to become familiar with the disadvantaged community and to work with disadvantaged youth. It is believed that, through such exposure, student teachers will want to teach the disadvantaged and will be more effective in doing so.

The manual is divided into five groups of experiences. Groups A, B, and C represent a deductive approach to familiarizing the student teacher with the disadvantaged student and the poverty community.

Group A
1. Using newspapers
2. Reading and discussing books

Group B
3. Taking an automobile tour through the inner city
4. Taking a walking tour through the inner city
5. Visiting a community agency
6. Working with a community agency
7. Visiting courts and hospitals
8. Making a comparison shopping study
9. Visiting missions and churches

Group C
10. Involving college students themselves with inner-city students
11. Learning the communications' problem
12. Spending a whole day with a disadvantaged student
13. Visiting a home of a disadvantaged student with a counselor or social worker

Group D represents an inductive approach to helping the student gain accurate knowledge of and perception about the disadvantaged.
14. Tutoring
15. Visiting a home where a student is being tutored
16. Instructing a small class in an Upward Bound Program.
17. Working with a training program in a department store where the store is trying to absorb inner-city people into its sales force
18. Tutoring in a Manpower Development Training Act Center

The last group of experiences, Group E, is designed to be used with both the deductive and inductive approach.
19. Learning problems—the school as an institution in the disadvantaged community
20. Orienting students to the world of work

There are five plans designed for using these 20 clinical experiences in vocational education programs. Each plan is looked upon as an intervention in the present program. Only three of the plans were tried out. The two plans which were not field tested are:
1. Prior to official acceptance into the business teacher education program, require students to complete certain clinical experiences.
2. Within psychology, sociology, and the behavioral sciences, incorporate clinical experiences as an interdisciplinary activity.

The three remaining plans became a pilot study at three universities. Each tested the feasibility of incorporating clinical experiences in vocational teacher education by a different plan.
3. Temple University incorporated clinical experiences in a methods course prior to student teaching.
4. Colorado State University provided clinical and field experiences during the student teaching quarter, prior to the student's actual teaching in the classroom.
5. Southern Illinois University developed a new clinical experiences course to be used as pre-service education after student teaching in a school not classified as serving disadvantaged youth.

Based on this pilot study, it was found that the utilization of each clinical experience initially requires approximately five hours of planning time on the part of the teacher-educator. Subsequent use of each clinical experience will likely require only two or three hours of planning time.

Three potential education consequences are likely to result when this manual is used. First, it is anticipated that prospective teachers who participate in the various intervention plans will actively seek and accept positions in inner cities and ghetto areas and that they will be moderately to considerably successful in teaching. On the basis of the pilot study, about three-fourths of the cases fall in this category. Second, it is

[1] Harry Huffman and Clyde W. Weber, *Designs for the Preparation of Vocational and Technical Teachers of Socioeconomically Disadvantaged Youth*. Washington, DC 20402: Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office (Catalog #HE 5.2: D63/6-$2.25).

also anticipated that some teacher-education students will definitely conclude that they do not have the interest and ability to teach in the inner city and ghetto areas and thus will not seek and accept such positions. A number of cases in the pilot study fell in this category. Third, it is further believed that when teacher-education institutions establish such programs and operate them for five or 10 years, youth who before shunned teacher education programs will be attracted to them.

Project Tomorrow

Currently, in the last three years, I have been involved in the project called, "Project Tomorrow." It is totally an in-service program. We are working with all kinds of vocational teachers and business teachers. The major goal, in line with the recommendation of President Nixon's National Advisory Counsel on Vocational Education, is to keep students who are unhappy with school in the mainstream rather than permit them to be shunted off into store-front schools. Therefore, we have a staff working on this project, trying to see what we can develop.

It is using the concept of prescriptive education as a thrust. Three steps are being set up in our schools. In many instances, business teachers are getting involved.

1. A diagnostic team looks at the young people who have special needs. This is itself a clinical experience because the team uses counselors, administrators, vocational people, psychologists, and others. They try to spot students who are having difficulties or will have difficulties. This is in line again with the President's Advisory Counsel—to serve a broader and more expanded youth population in our junior and senior high schools.
2. For each of these youth, specific performance objectives are written.
3. Teachers are assisted in modifying programs to meet the needs of these young people.

Our mission is to help business teachers and vocational teachers to be advocates of young people. We try to find out the student's needs, establish goals, and then modify the program.

At the moment, we have, in each of two schools, a person who is devoting full time to demonstrating the implementation of such a program. He is called a counselor, but his position is more extensive. His job includes in-service education. He works with a large number of the staff in the school. His objective is to find out, to learn about youth with special problems, determine their problems, and then modify their school programs so as to keep them in the mainstream of the total program, to be sure they are not shut off. Young people who are in the mainstream must know how to identify. This is what we are doing now. It does apply to the regular teacher because we need a large number of teachers who understand the broad perspective of youth in our nation today.

A COMPETENCY-BASED BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Fred S. Cook
Charlotte L. Neuhauser
Rita C. Richey

Department of Vocational and Applied Arts Education
Wayne State University
Detroit, Michigan

Background

Competency or performance-based instructional programs are being widely discussed and implemented in teacher education programs (Elam, 1971). The following model describes a systems approach to teacher education which utilizes the tenets of competency-based instruction. This system has been developed and is operating in the Department of Vocational and Applied Arts Education at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan. Wayne State is an urban university, the sixth largest university in the United States and has the third largest graduate school. The development of this competency-based teacher education (CBTE) program was funded July, 1971, as a three-year project, by the Michigan Department of Education as an initial phase of its effort to establish competency-based teacher certification procedures. This funding provided for an eight person Systems Staff to do the developmental work.

The Department of Vocational and Applied Arts Education, or VAE, is a new unit with over 1,100 students and 18 full-time faculty. This unit was formed with the merger of Business and Distributive Education, Family Life Education, and Industrial Education, in January, 1971. And it was this merger which provided the impetus to develop a new curriculum using a systems approach to the preparation of teachers, supervisors, and administrators of Vocational and Applied Arts.

The VAE System has two major components: (1) an instructional system, and (2) a management information system. The fact that there are these two components is somewhat unique. Most CBTE programs give little or no attention to the development of a supporting management information system. However, the traditional management processes usually do not provide for the systematic collection and distribution of

data for feedback to keep a CBTE system functioning properly. The system demands an Instructional System which is supported by and meshed with a Management Information System—two facets working towards one end, the attainment of teacher competencies.

Instructional System

The instructional program has five elements—competencies, performance objectives, needs assessment, delivery systems, and evaluation. Each component is closely related to the others and together they form the bases of programs which provide for accountability.*

Competency

The distinction between "performance" and "competency" is elusive. The literature and even groups actually working on competency-related projects were unable to provide a definition. Thus, a functional definition of "competency" was devised.

> DEFINITION A competency is the knowledge, skills, and judgment which the student will demonstrate at a predetermined proficiency level before initial and or continuing certification

Our initial list of competencies was based upon the first Cotrell (1971) list of 255 competencies which resulted from a project at the Ohio State Center for Vocational and Technical Education. However, this list was substantially modified by the Wayne State VAE faculty to reflect the emphases and concerns of our program. Our pre-certification list now has 75 competencies.

These competencies have been evaluated by over 3,000 people representing business and industry, vocational program graduates, school administrators, and teachers. These data have provided input for competency revision as well as a starting point for identifying competencies for our graduate program.

Performance Objectives

It was necessary to analyze each competency and identify its component parts. These parts became the specific performance objectives for each facet of our competency-based teacher education system. ("Performance Objectives" is used synonymously with behavioral objectives, performance goals, and instructional objectives.)

Our 264 performance objectives are the vehicles by which the competencies are embedded in the actual instruction. Our performance objectives are written in terms of learning content only. They are not intended to specify the delivery systems a professor must use to achieve these objectives. By eliminating mention of anything related to the teaching process, the behavioral objectives form the curriculum parameters of a competency-based system without infringing upon the rights of the professor to alter means of achieving the specified ends. Thus, the variables of student characteristics, faculty expertise, and available facilities, as well as a desire to try something new can still be recognized. The objectives become the common thread throughout each course offering, regardless of the instructor, or when the course is taught. In this way specified objectives of the graduating students are always established, but the variety of approaches, an asset of a diverse faculty, is still maintained.

Relationship Between Competencies and Performance Objectives

Competencies and performance objectives are related. The mastery of several performance objectives would enable the student to demonstrate a competency. To illustrate, listed below is one of the competencies of an effective VAE teacher, and at least two of the performance objectives that must be mastered to demonstrate this competency.

COMPETENCY:

The Teacher will:
teach a lesson

PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE:

02049 The student will demonstrate his skill in applying:
- a. a behavioral objective
- b. a seven-step structure

These skills will be applied in two ten-minute teaching episodes. One is in a 1 to 1 format and the other in a 1 to 3 grouping. The attached checklist will be used for critiquing.

04107 Given an observation checklist, the student will evaluate a series of lessons taught by his peers. The checklist will have a scale of 1 to 7 with 7 as the highest point on the scale. Attention will be focused on the following areas of the lesson presentation:
- a. beginning of the lesson
- b. clarity of presentation
- c. pacing of the lesson
- d. pupil participation
- e. ending the lesson
- f. selection of content
- g. selection and use of supplementary materials
- h. evaluation procedures utilized
- i. relationship of planning and performance

Thus, the competency is general and program-related and the performance objectives are specific and course related. Both competencies and performance objectives can be changed to reflect new trends, emphases, or even just to improve the statements. However, the changes must be made according to a specified process devised and approved by the faculty. This process allows for the examination of the entire program to determine the effect of the proposed change. And all

* The general design of the VAE Instructional System parallels the Accountability Model of the Michigan Department of Education

changes are to be made with the full knowledge and approval of each faculty member.

Needs Assessment

Needs assessment in this design will include testing of both exit and prerequisite skills. The exit test, given before instruction, can determine which performance objectives the student has already mastered. If the student can demonstrate a portion of the skills, instruction will be provided for the remaining skills. If the student demonstrates his mastery of all of the objectives, then he can immediately exit from that part of the system and receive credit without putting in "seat time."

The test of prerequisite skills is the next major category of pre-instruction diagnosis. Before a student begins any portion of the instruction sequence he must demonstrate that he possesses those skills upon which the instruction is based. The prerequisite skills are identified through a process of:

1. sequencing the course objectives, and
2. conducting a task analysis to break down each behavior into the major component parts.

Delivery System

No attempt is being made to standardize the delivery system to be used in the instructional program. These are the prerogative of the individual professors. The design of this instructional system allows the continued use of many modes of instruction. However, the faculty has agreed implicitly and explicitly that the competencies need *not* be attained through formal courses.

At this time, several new delivery systems are being tried out. Some professors are managing their classes on an individualized basis using self-instructional learning modules they have developed. Some professors are combining the individualized approach with some large group class meetings for discussion and interaction. New emphasis is being placed upon field experiences throughout the entire program, and there is increased use of microteaching techniques.

Evaluation

Evaluation consists of three major processes:

1. exit test at the end of instruction to determine if the student has mastered each performance objective
2. a follow-up of the student as he demonstrates these skills on the job, and
3. a follow-up of the students of our graduates.

All exit tests in the instructional system are criterion-referenced. The tests for each set of objectives (i.e., course) are divided into two parts: (1) written, and (2) performance. But the effort is to have as many of the items on a performance basis as possible. One of the unique aspects of the testing program is the examination being developed for intern teaching. This is a test which is administered, for the most part, in an actual school setting where the student demonstrates his teaching skills.

Tests when completed will include not only the test items themselves, but also the directions for administering the test, directions to the student who is taking the test, scoring directions, and necessary forms.

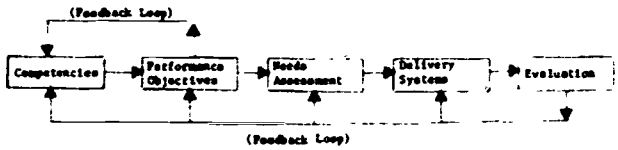
The follow-up studies are being initiated by the College of Education's Assessment and Renewal Unit, which is collecting the base data. Further design of the follow-up procedures and total program evaluation will be contracted to an outside source.

Summary of Instructional System

Figure 1 below illustrates an overview of the entire instructional system design.

Figure 1

A COMPETENCY-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM



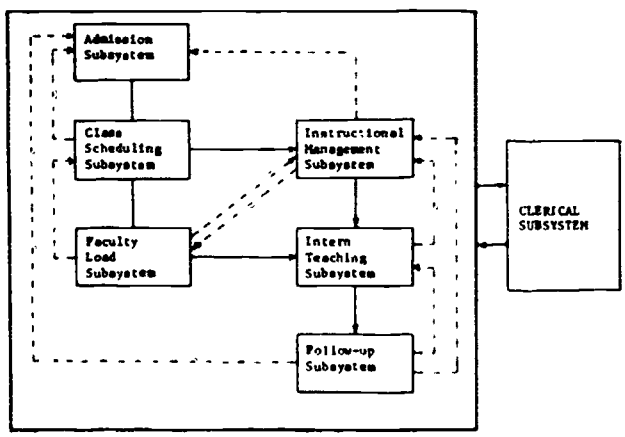
Management Information System

The major purpose of the VAE Management Information System (MIS) is to select, store, process, and transmit information to the faculty at a time when it can most efficiently be used, enabling them to make better decisions.

The MIS consists of seven subsystems—Admissions, Class Scheduling, Faculty Load, Instruction Management, Intern Teaching, and Follow-up Subsystem with the Clerical Subsystem facilitating the functioning of the other subsystems. Figure 2 shows the relationship and feedback circuitry of the VAE subsystem:

Figure 2

A MODEL OF THE MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM



Although the MIS is a computer-based system, every effort has been made to insure that the most efficient procedure is formulated, while keeping within the constraints placed upon it by the philosophy of the faculty and the availability of staff.

The development of the VAE system followed these steps:

1. Defined system goals
2. Identified subsystems
   a. Specified goal for each subsystem
   b. Established system contraints
   c. Designed summary procedure (flowchart)
   d. Identified needed data to accomplish goal
   e. Identified data source
   f. Identified data update procedures
   g. Identified retention of data
   h. Identified end use of data
3. Compared steps a-h for all subsystems for duplication or possible applicability to more than one subsystem.
4. Eliminated duplicate data requirements
5. Evaluated the data items for frequency of need and value of the data to the subsystem versus various means and costs of gathering the data.
6. Designed collection and management of data procedures
7. Developed step-by-step procedure (detailed flowcharts).
8. Developed software (forms or computer programs).
9. Documented subsystem on a preliminary basis.
10. Trained appropriate personnel.
11. Pilot tested the subsystem.
12. Implemented the subsystem.
13. Documented subsystem in final form.

Data Bank

The data bank consists of several computerized files containing the following data:

1. Student profile data such as address, age, honor point average, total credit hours, etc.
2. Student transcripts: courses taken, data taken, grade received, courses currently being taken
3. Plan of work for each student: the courses student is scheduled to take in his program and when he will take them.
4. Objectives covered in each course and the competencies with which they are matched.
5. Student's objective record, objectives completed, date of completion, length of time to complete the objective, the exit test score, and the number of times exit test was taken.
6. Evaluation of intern teacher performance.
7. Faculty load data: classes taught, committee work, research and developmental work.

From these data a variety of reports are easily accessible by the faculty. Figure 3 shows the major types of reports that are available.

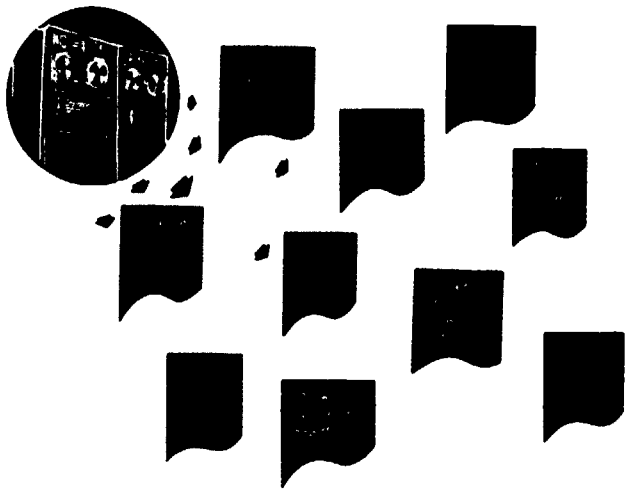


FIGURE 3
KINDS OF MAJOR REPORTS AVAILABLE FROM DATA BANK

Documentation

The key to the successful operation of the system is the documentation manuals. The major criteria in the preparation of the manuals have been (1) ease in reading and comprehending, and (2) easy and immediate access to the needed information. There are six manuals being developed:

1. Faculty Manual: includes policies and procedures important to faculty members.
2. Instructional System Manual: includes the development of the system, and the syllabus for each course, including handouts and student performance models.
3. Referral Manual: includes all necessary information to process a student through the admissions subsystem.
4. Computer Operations Manual: includes explanation of computer operations.
5. Equipment Operations Manual: includes location of equipment and instructions for use.
6. Clerical Manual: includes analysis of all clerical tasks.

These manuals include flowcharts of the major processes, both summary and detailed, specifications of all data files, hardware specifications, software, performance specifications where appropriate, performance schedules, system modification procedures, decision structure tables, departmental policies, and a complete digest of the Instructional and Management Information Systems design.

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TECHNIQUES IN EVALUATING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN VIRGINIA

J. Dale Oliver

Division of Vocational and Technical Education
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Blacksburg, Virginia

The evaluation of vocational education is an important activity in Virginia. For the past two years a major research effort, known as the Vocational Education Evaluation Project (VEEP), has been underway. This project is sponsored by the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University and the Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education. VEEP is a rather comprehensive evaluation effort which has been divided into several components. Each of these will be examined in detail to show the techniques that are being used.

OBJECTIVES OF VEEP

The primary objective of VEEP is to develop a management information system that will provide the data needed in evaluating, planning, and programming secondary vocational education programs. Four contributory objectives are:

1. To develop a planning system which will include a computer-assisted system for gathering data on vocational education in Virginia
2. To develop a system to upgrade planning and evaluation in the classroom
3. To identify process and product variables and collect and analyze information on the effect of process variables on the product variables
4. To develop a cost-effectiveness index which would supply information on the effectiveness of a vocational program for the resources expended on the program.

The management information system being developed contains two subsystems, the macro-subsystem concerned with information at the state level and the micro-subsystem designed to provide information to local decision-makers. Evaluation at the state level and at the local level are not mutually exclusive; therefore, the two sub-systems are not considered mutually exclusive in this project.

MACRO-SUBSYSTEM

The major purpose of the macro-subsystem is to supply the necessary data for evaluating, planning, and budgeting vocational education programs at the state level. This can be accomplished by developing a systematic, computer-assisted procedure to collect, process, and reduce data to a desirable form. It is envisioned that the state-wide system will contain components to furnish information on:

1. Student enrollment by programs
2. Follow-up of former students
3. Facilities and equipment available
4. Personnel resources
5. Financial resources
6. Labor supply-demand forecasts
7. Student needs and interests

The above is not intended to be an exhaustive list. Other components will be added as information needs dictate.

Developmental efforts thus far have been concentrated on the first two components which deal with enrollment and follow-up information. These components have been combined into what is called the Vocational Education Reporting System (VERS). This new reporting system has been field tested and is being implemented in the Virginia secondary schools during the current school year. VERS is designed to collect uniform and accurate data about vocational programs, and about current and former students of these programs. To reduce the work of teachers and increase the reliability of information on students, most of the data will be collected directly from the students and will be processed and analyzed by high speed electronic data processing equipment.

VERS is comprised of five basic steps. The first step deals with the collection of information about enrollees and vocational education programs. Student characteristics, addresses, and program information are obtained from the students and instructors using optical scanning forms. The major portion of this information is provided by the student under the direction of the teacher. The forms are completed on or about September 30, with forms for each new student who enrolls after that date being completed and submitted later. An optical scanning device will be used in processing the forms and storing the information on a computer tape.

In step two, the data processing routines draw from the computer tape the information needed to develop lists of students with their names and identification numbers. A list is developed for each vocational course in each school in the state.

The third step begins with the returning of student lists to teachers in May. The teachers then examine the lists and note changes in the status of the students. Those who have withdrawn from the program or who have completed the program requirements are so indicated on the lists. The computer tape is updated by adding this information to the students' records.

Thus, at the end of the school year, the computer tape contains up-to-date information on all students who were enrolled in each program during the year

Step four involves a follow-up of students who completed the program requirements or who terminated their training but have a marketable skill. These are identified in step three, and the follow-up questionnaires are mailed directly to the students.

Step five is an analysis of the follow-up survey. The completed follow-up questionnaires are key punched on data cards and the necessary information compiled. Follow-up data, along with the other information on the computer tape, will be analyzed and compiled in the format desired by those who will use the data.

The only exception to the above procedure is in regard to adult vocational programs. Summary enrollment information for adult programs is provided by the teacher upon completion of each course.

The operation of the reporting system is supervised by the coordinator of vocational education research and statistical information, State Department of Education. This individual works with reporting system coordinators in each school division of the state. The coordinators receive the forms and instructions, distribute them to schools and teachers, collect the completed forms and forward them to the State Department of Education, and disseminate the analysis of the results of local school personnel. Data processing is being done in the Division of Educational Research and Statistics, State Department of Education.

Work is underway to develop the labor supply-demand forecast component. After this has been finished and the other components have been developed, the final phase of the macro-subsystem involves the development of a planning system. This system will provide a way to utilize the management information in making planning decisions. The main constituent of a planning system is a planning model. In this project a planning model is a descriptive tool to aid in determining the ingredients necessary for planning

MICRO-SUBSYSTEM

The micro-subsystem is designed to provide information to local decision-makers for assessing, planning, and programming individual vocational education programs at local schools. Emphasis will be on behavioral objectives, process-product relationships, and cost-effectiveness.

Program Effectiveness Component

The purpose of this component is to develop a series of tests which will predict eventual job success of students. This series will include both achievement tests and attitudinal tests. To accomplish this purpose, work is being conducted in the following areas:

1. Identification and selection of variables that should be included in a definition of "job success." This definition is extremely important since it provides the anchors against which to validate the achievement tests (this involves not only content validation but also predictive and construct validation)
2. Development of instruments that will measure job success. These measures will serve as the criterion scores for predicting job success.
3. Development of achievement and attitudinal tests which will predict job success (as operationally defined by the measures developed in step 2). This is the most difficult part of the program effectiveness component and is thus receiving the major effort at this point. The achievement and attitude tests are being developed as follows
   a. The subject matter in each option within the various vocational services has been broken into 2-4 week blocks of instruction. These are being called "units" by the project staff.
   b. The units which are the most generalizable and job-related have been selected for development by the state supervisors of the vocational services.
   c. Selected vocational education teachers are being trained to write behavioral objectives and test items. Each of the participating teachers prepares two units from their vocational area. Each unit contains.
      (1) An outline of the content to be covered.
      (2) A statement of the goals for the unit
      (3) A justification for the unit
      (4) A complete list of general and specific objectives.
      (5) A suggested table of specifications which recommends the amount of class time to be spent on each part of the unit.
      (6) An end-of-unit test constructed from the specific objectives and the table of specifications.
   d. Each unit is being edited by the project staff to help insure its measurement quality.
   e. The aggregate of units will be reviewed by employers and content specialists to insure that all areas of importance are being covered and to eliminate unimportant objectives.
   f. If there are important areas not covered, additional teachers will be trained to prepare units to cover these areas
   g. The aggregate of objectives and test items will be set up in a computer bank. This will permit the construction of "computer-generated" tests through random selection of items from given objectives.
4. Field testing of the test instruments to maximize their predictive potential. The tests will be considered valuable only to the extent that they predict the success to be attained by the graduates of the program.

A major by-product of the above work will be BOOST, Behavioral Objectives Organized in a System for Teachers. Basically, BOOST is a system which is designed to upgrade planning and evaluation in the classroom. It will make the units of instruction available to teachers for use in selecting the behavioral objectives for their classes. The advantage of using behavioral objectives to form a blueprint for successful teaching has been widely documented. With the BOOST units available teachers will be spared the time-consuming task of writing the objectives. Instead, they will receive the units that relate to the materials they want to teach, and then select, from a variety of objectives, those that they feel are most

appropriate for their classes and situation. The objectives should be of higher technical quality than most teacher-made sets, and the approach being followed of listing a comprehensive set of general objectives for teaching and a sampling of specific objectives for evaluation should improve the value of the objectives.

Several test items are being written for each objective in the BOOST units. These will be set up in a computer item bank. Each of the items will be widely tested, both to assure quality and to provide norms against which teachers may compare the progress of their classes. Teachers will be able to request custom-made end-of-unit tests for their classes, based upon the objectives toward which they have taught. Such tests will insure that the teacher's stated objectives are congruent with his operational objectives. The end-of-unit tests will be composed from the items in the computer bank, and sufficient copies will be sent to teachers to test their classes. These tests can be returned to the testing center after administration to be machine-scored, and then returned, along with norming information, to the teachers. Such a procedure should greatly reduce the time involved in test construction and scoring.

Thus far, 113 teachers have participated in this component of the project. About 200 units have been developed and these contain around 8,000 specific objectives. An attempt is being made to cooperate with other states that are preparing objectives. When objectives are obtained from other states, they will be reviewed by teachers to determine if they are comprehensive. They will also be reviewed by employers to eliminate those which are necessary.

Process and Product Component

The concern of this component is the identification of both process variables and product outcomes, and the relationship between them. It is anticipated that the achievement tests developed in the program effectiveness component will, when used on a pre- and post-test basis, form one basis for determining product development. The identification of significant process variables, and their relationship to optimum product gains, should follow from the administration of these tests in a wide variety of program types. Job success is another measure of product development and can be determined in large part by conducting extensive follow-up studies of former students and their employers.

Cost-Effectiveness Component

This component will supply information on the effectiveness of a program as weighed against the resources expended for it. A major problem to be faced here is the determination of a viable cost-effectiveness index. Putting a dollar and cents label on the value to society of a training program is an issue which has been long ignored in education. It is intended that a fair basis for this determination be an outgrowth of this component. Once this has been done, the combination of this work with that of the other two components in the micro-subsystem will give local educational administrators a fair basis for evaluating the quality of the programs in their school districts.

After the project was initiated, a need was recognized for providing instruments and procedures that may be used in conducting an overall evaluation of local programs. Work is underway to meet this need.

Finally, the various components of the project make up the Vocational Education Management Information System for Virginia. The system should provide the information needed for improved decision-making and thus improvement in the quality of vocational education in Virginia.

STRATEGIES FOR STRENGTHENING BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Ted Ivarie

Head, Business Education and Office Administration
Utah State University
Logan, Utah

Effective educational programs do not just happen; they reflect carefully developed combinations of curriculum, faculty, facilities, supporting services, and financial resources. The availability of these resources is dependent upon characteristics of the institutions and patron (societal) support.

The status of business education programs, especially in four-year colleges and universities, appears to be in a relative state of flux. One all too frequently learns of decisions that lead to the elimination of programs. Other institutions report administrative reorganization affecting business education. Occasionally, newly emerging programs achieve national visibility. Infrequently strong, viable programs are deemphasized; more frequently diminution occurs when programs have lost their effectiveness in terms of institutional goals. Lack of flexibility is sometimes attributable to unchanging philosophic postures of faculty and, subsequently, curriculum.

What is business teacher education? How should it be defined if it is to be a healthy, enduring program? There is, of course, no specific response to those questions that will apply to a particular situation. As a general principle, however, a more broadly defined program has more options through which modification and flexibility can occur. (The cost of accepting this postulate is the possibility of spreading resources over too many activities.) Consideration should be given to including within business teacher education the preparation and in-service experiences needed for distributive education as well as business and office education. Identity with both vocational teacher education and "general" teacher education has merit. Where feasible other components of the program should include vocational-technical training in distributive and business and office education.

A comprehensive definition of business teacher education has several desirable qualities. First, there is a likelihood that a program with a large base of activities will have a large base of resources which in turn can provide the potential for more internal flexibility. Differentiated staffing becomes a possibility. Opportunity for development and experimentation with innovative models at the technical and professional levels is more likely. Teacher education students have the opportunity for actual teaching experience in the technical education classrooms. Faculty with specialization in either distributive education or business and office education can contribute teaching effort to the general or "across-the-board" offerings. And, the prospect of attracting external financial resources from a greater variety of sources is enhanced. A more diversified financial resource, in turn, allows for more creative budget management.

The "critical" factors determining the strength or effectiveness of a program can be identified as curriculum, faculty, facilities, and supporting services. The scope of these factors and their interaction is defined largely by financial resources and administrative posture. The most significant of all the factors is the quality and quantity of faculty. Budgetarily, a vast majority of resource is committed to faculty salaries. The nature of the faculty influences curriculum just as curriculum configuration dictates faculty utilization. Physical facilities are influencial upon the scope and quality of offerings, especially if facets of the program are equipment oriented. Supporting services such as secretarial, telephone, office equipment and supplies, and travel must be kept in balance with the above for optimum effectiveness.

The most immediate and directly influential element of the administrative structure is the department head. This person has a challenging task to perform, if taken seriously. To the faculty he (or she) should serve as a facilitator—one who is to apply the grease to keep the wheels of progress moving. As faculty decisions are made, he has the obligation to assure immediate and effective implementation. To his superiors he is ultimately responsible for what happens within the department. He is frequently perceived as a stabilizing and guiding force who sees that the job gets done regardless of calamities and restraints. It is the department head who follows up and follows through on everything from policy formulation and implementation to the minutiae of daily activities. Given all these responsibilities, it is the department head more than anyone else who provides the leadership to keep the total operation pushing at the "cutting edge" of the profession. The department head must assume an optimistic and realistic "can do" atitude.

If the above sounds difficult, perhaps there is good reason. In addition to the usual problems, the nature of higher education administration is changing. Dr. G. Homer Durham, Commissioner for the Utah State Board of Higher Education summarized the situation when he stated:

> . . . the challenge the department chairman has in the '70's in contrast to the '40's, the '50's, and the '60's is to learn to innovate, to add meaningful programs *not by addition*, new funds, bigger budget, new staff,

larger staff, keeping the old and adding on the new—but by very careful screening, consolidation, elimination of that which is less significant, less valuable for that which needs to be innovative for the future.

All of the above must be done in a time of leveling or declining enrollment, declining financial support, and declining public interest

Decentralized decision making is essential if a department is to maximize its opportunities. Stated simply, decentralized decision making requires that all decisions be made as close as possible to the point of concern within the organization. Obviously, this suggests that broad institutional goals and parameters have been articulated. Implicit to this plan is the assumption that those closest to the problem are equipped best to solve it. Thus, the departmental unit has the authority to act on all matters except those on which there exists a policy or law. In the words of Dr. George S. Odiorne, Dean of the College of Business at the University of Utah, "this is an energy-releasing system that facilitates turning loose that huge reservoir of energy, talent, drive, desire, and goodwill that all to frequently go untapped." Decentralized decision allows considerable latitude and a corresponding degree of responsibility. If flexibility for a large measure of self determination exists, how can a department achieve its goals most effectively? A primary consideration is the worthiness or validity of the goals *and* the commitment of the departmental group to those ends. Institutional and college/school/division goals must be perceived and evaluated as departmental goals are developed. Optimization of goal fulfillment requires relative harmony among institutional components. If institutional or college/school/division goals are not stated, an effort should be made to determine as accurately as possible what they *seem* to be.

Departmental goal setting must be a total faculty effort. Essential to good goal development is productive faculty interaction. This interaction should be characterized by mutual trust, professional respect, good listening skills, objectivity, sincere self expression, and an individual feeling of commitment to the group as well as a feeling of commitment of the group to each person. At times the emotional tone of serious dialogue can become tense. Care should be taken to consider the feelings and reactions of all concerned. Faculty harmony must be a top priority if the benefits of well-developed goals are to be reaped. The outcome of departmental goal development should have the feeling of "we" rather than "me" or "I" did this.

Goals should be general enough for flexibility and specific enough to generate discussion. Once general department or program goals are generated, specific, enabling objectives should be identified. Responsibility for specific goals should be assigned in an equitable manner and related resource support should be made available.

Once departmental goals have been agreed upon, individual faculty goals and objectives should be developed. Each faculty member should be given a high degree of flexibility in determination of his professional goals, but the goals must be consistent with those adopted for the department. Once an individual has reduced to writing the goals or underlying reasons for his activities, evaluation of his performance becomes possible—and desirable. Interim self and supervisor evaluation increases the possibility of better job performance and corresponding rewards. Interestingly, when a person finds out how his performance is going to be measured in terms of results, his performance will improve from just that knowledge and from *no* other action on anyone's part. Group sharing of each person's goals is very stimulating and reinforcing. It, too, facilitates better understanding by all of each other's aspirations and activities.

Strong, effective programs for business teacher education do not just happen. Administrative support and faculty dedication for doing a job in the best manner possible can combine to give students excellent learning experiences, generate significant research productivity, and serve society, in general.

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS— THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE

Donald J. Tate

Department of Business Education
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona

To prepare teachers for community-junior colleges one might assume that "this institution" has a distinctive identity. In some ways I suppose it does. On the other hand, ask three people to define the community-junior college and you'll get at least three different descriptions.

To illustrate, a short attitude test on the nature and purpose of a community-junior college is included on the following pages. Certainly numerous inferences can be drawn from this instrument by those who propose to structure a curriculum for preparing teachers who want to teach in the community-junior college.

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER COLLEGE PRE-POST ATTITUDE TEST

THE NATURE AND PURPOSES OF OUR COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

CODE: SA—Strongly agree
A—Agree
N—Not sure
D—Disagree
SD—Strongly disagree

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					

THE NATURE AND PURPOSES OF OUR COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

	SA	A	N	D	SD
11. Our institution should be comprehensive and meet as many of the advanced education needs as possible of its constituent students					
12. Our community may reasonably expect the presence of a community-junior college to raise the general educational level in the community					
13. This community-junior college should provide realistic programs for a variety of social and economic levels.					
14. Community service and participation is not an individual staff obligation.					
15. Our community-junior college must be concerned with the social and academic acceptance in its programs of students from all socioeconomic classes.					
16. A community-junior college is more of a local ornament than visible guarantee that more youngsters in the community will receive a college education.					
17. Our community-junior college is nearer secondary school than higher education in outlook and program.					
18. The adult education program offered in this college is an indication of institutional orientation to community service.					
19. The vocational and technical manpower needs of this community are the concern of our community-junior college and should be reflected in its programs.					
20. A community-junior college is primarily a "teaching institution," therefore faculty research has a much lower priority than in the senior college or university.					
21. Our community-junior college is primarily an educational institution and should not become involved in special services to the student (e.g., job placement and assistance with personal problems).					
22. The wide variety of programs available in our institution offers the student who does not succeed in one a good chance of finding another better suited to his talents and interests.					
23. Vocational, technical, and liberal arts programs located in the same institution provide an opportunity for a student to more readily and realistically adjust his goals.					
24. Remedial courses for the deficient student are not a legitimate concern of our institution.					
25. We find our standards lowered by the mixture of academically and otherwise oriented students.					
26. Student academic counseling by individual instructors is both possible and highly desirable in this community-junior college.					
27. Our community-junior college is available for those who cannot qualify at other institutions.					
28. Learning opportunities for students not motivated toward the usual academic subjects are an appropriate part of our curriculum.					
29. Proximity of our instruction to students' homes reduces financial burden and sometimes makes education available that would be inaccessible otherwise.					
30. Intercollegiate athletics has no place in a community-junior college.					

THE NATURE AND PURPOSES OF OUR COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

SA	A	N	D	SD

31. The implementation of innovative technology in administration and instruction should be a responsibility of the comprehensive junior college.
32. Vocational guidance by professionally trained counselors is more important in a community-junior college than in any other institution of higher education.
33. Academic advising should be done by trained counselors who have adequate preparation and time to spend studying the continually changing vocational and educational world.
34. Course selection is basically the students' responsibility in a community-junior college and, therefore, the college need not make extensive provisions for aiding the student in this area.
35. Conducting research and pilot programs in the uses of new media and technology in education is a function of the comprehensive junior college.

To become more specific about the curriculum for educating these teachers, we need to ask ourselves four questions:

1. Who will be teaching in the community-junior college?
2. Who will be attending the two-year college?
3. What types of programs will the college offer?
4. What will the college be like?

I. Who Will Be Teaching?

1. Teachers will tend to be subject matter generalists in their fields of specialization. They will be supported by a core of specialists. For example, a survey in California identified desirable business teachers as being those with a master's degree consisting of a mix of business content courses and business education courses—the *what* and the *how*.

Other two-year colleges perhaps prefer instructors with more concentration in accounting or other business courses.

The specialists who will support the generalists are known as:

Instructional Assistance Specialists
Instructional Resource Specialists
Media Specialists
Computer Assisted Instructors

These specialists know how to help the generalist achieve certain objectives related to specific subject matter. These specialists will be more sharply identified as "separate, equal, and necessary components of an effective teaching staff." They may serve as in-house consultants. They may work as team teachers with the generalists.

The *Curriculum Specialist* will assist the generalist in developing courses and programs that challenge the diverse student bodies found in community-junior colleges.

The open-door philosophy of community-junior colleges makes necessary a core of learning specialists who can communicate with the heterogenous student bodies—this group of specialists are classified as *Remedial and/or Developmental Specialists*.

The *Research Specialist* in the community-junior college is emerging. Even though teaching is given the major priority in the community-junior college scheme, administrators are voicing the opinion that in-house researchers are necessary to provide "pertinent data on what is being retained in the classroom, evaluation of innovative approaches, and accumulations of an on-going data bank for all staff members to use.

2. The major source of teachers for community-junior colleges will shift to the graduate school from the high school. Significantly, teachers to be recruited in the years ahead will have had almost no teaching experience. These teachers with almost no teaching experience will be recruited from married women, age 35-50, retired military personnel, and Ph.D.'s who would have formerly by-passed the two-year school.

3. The age of teachers in the community-junior colleges will span a wide range of ages. The California study previously alluded to shows that 20 percent of the respondents said candidates between 27 and 55 were in the ideal range. Perhaps these administrators are setting the predicted trend!

4. Advanced degrees held by teachers in the community-junior colleges will be acceptable. Frequently we hear that the community-junior college regards holders of doctorates as undesirable. However, the California study indicates that it is not possible to be over-qualified because of a teaching degree. Perhaps the over-supply of doctorates in some fields makes holders of doctorates available within budgeting limits. One might surmise that the law of supply and demand will influence employment of those with doctorates.

5. Those attracted to teaching in the community-junior colleges will be a diverse group. Aside from its special teaching situations offered by two-year institutions, a wide variety of people are attracted to these institutions. Some say emphatically that the make-up of the average two-year college faculty is far different from that found in most four-year colleges and universities. In fact, for sheer variety, the backgrounds of the professors at a two-year school nearly match those of the students they teach.

II. Who Will Be Attending the Community-Junior Colleges?

1. One large group are those labeled as transfer students. Already some four-year institutions have junior classes as large as their freshmen classes. Transfer students are the reason. The time is nearing when a majority of students who enter higher education for the first time will enter via the two-year college. In some states a majority of *all* students in post-secondary institutions are in two-year colleges.

2. What is the nature of the students in the two-year school? We have already mentioned the college bound. The educationally disadvantaged probably will form a larger proportion of the student body in public community colleges.

Nationally, the community-junior college is a rural institution. However, the movement does serve substantial segments of the disadvantaged population.

3. More part-time students will be attending classes. This group is neglected. Half of them may be new to the college each semester. They come and go. Colleges do not know why they come or why they leave.

Even so, their numbers increase—housewives, urban minorities, technicians, and veterans—all desiring to sharpen their skills or improve themselves generally.

In the future, we may see workers whose union contracts include educational reimbursement, teachers' aides wanting associate degrees, supervisors in local plants who want better jobs, and other diverse groups.

III. What Types of Programs Will Be Offered?

1. Career and occupational programs will make up the largest proportion of the offering. The AAJC *Bulletin of Occupational Education* recently listed these programs, new to at least one or more institutions.

Environmental Technology
Institute in Leadership
Mental Health
Bio-medical Technology
Human and Community Services
X-ray and Nuclear Maintenance
Cooperative Secretarial
Medical Records Technology
Diesel Mechanics
Cosmetology
Occupational Safety
Job Training Center
Plant Operations
Vocational Technical Orientation Seminar
Interdisciplinary Approach to Studies in Home Construction
Medical Assisting
Law Enforcement
Broadcasting
Agri-Business Systems Analysis and Design
Light Horse Management
Agriculture Journalism, Radio and TV Program
Resort Management

Of course, business curricula have always been common to community-junior colleges.

2. Special courses, curricula and programs for adults under the aegis of a *continuing* education concept will keep pace with career efforts.

3-4. A realignment of the major functions of the community college will occur.

In some colleges the career/occupational functions overshadow the transfer function.

5. The community service function of the comprehensive community college will assume increasing importance.

The establishment of a National Council on Community Services by the AAJC has given such services a distinct administrative function. The focus has changed from adult evening classes to broad community development.

6. Junior college transfer programs will be more clearly linked with counterparts in four-year colleges.

7. Career and occupational programs will be more extensively linked with industry, labor, and certain professional areas.

IV. What Will The Community-Junior College Be Like?

The community-junior college will have these characteristics:

1. It will be a part of every metropolitan area.
2. The multi-campus concept will expand.
3. Class size will increase.
4. Attendance patterns will change dramatically. Students will enter and exit as they see relevancy for further education.
5. The two-year college will be the subject of research to discover teaching/learning strategies since it is teaching oriented.

Conclusion

Because of the evolving patterns of faculty, students, programs, and general make-up of community-junior college, we can safely assume that patterns for training teachers should also be evolving. Those who definitely say "this" or "that" pattern of teacher education should be following probably are generalizing on a limited experience.

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