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Analysis of the Relationship between Personal Values and Internship Success of High School Practical Experience Program Students

Arthur J. Pease
Western Michigan University

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ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONAL VALUES AND INTERNSHIP SUCCESS OF HIGH SCHOOL PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE PROGRAM STUDENTS

by

Arthur J Pease

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of The Graduate College in partial fulfillment of the Degree of Doctor of Education

Western Michigan University Kalamazoo, Michigan August 1974
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Arthur and Lucille never questioned my ability -- they are my parents.

Jan questioned my intent but supported me -- she is my wife.

Dr. Donald Weaver, Dr. Uldis Smidchens, and Dr. Loren Crane con-

tinually questioned my actions thereby nuturing my ability -- they are my com-

mittee members.

I acknowledge each one for faithfulness to their role during my search

for answers.

Arthur J Pease
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CHAPTER I

STUDY OVERVIEW

Introduction and Rationale

Is there a relationship between personal values and internship success of selected high school practical experience program students?

Two and one-half million students leave the formal education system of the U.S. each year without adequate preparation for careers (U.S. Dept. of H.E.W., 1970-71). The United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare also contends that it is a rare high school that equips all its students to make the choice upon graduation of entering the job market with a saleable skill or to continue their education.

According to Marland (1971), the student should be equipped "... occupationally, academically, and emotionally to spin off from the system at whatever point he chooses (p. 3)." In 1944, the Education Policies Commission stated that all youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings or attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. Barlow (1967) indicated that the school must assist students by providing on-site, practical experiences. Heathers (1959) indicated that a student could be assisted in deciding among various practical experiences if he first identified his personal preferences. Gordon (1967) stated that, "A person's values may determine to a large degree what he does or how well he performs. His immediate decisions and
his life goals are influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by his value systems (p. 1)."

There has been little consensus regarding the meaning of values. Terms such as attitudes, beliefs, values, and opinions are used interchangeably. This is especially true of the terms attitudes and values.

Rokeach (1968) maintained that attitudes and values are related but are not the same. Of the two areas Allport (1935) felt that:

The concept of attitudes is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American psychology. No other term appears more frequently in the experimental and theoretical literature (p. 798).

However, Rokeach (1968) voiced a position which has been gaining in popularity since the mid 1960's:

Several considerations lead me to place the value concept ahead of the attitude concept. First, value is clearly a more dynamic concept than attitude having a strong motivational component as well as cognitive, affective and behavioral components. Second, while attitudes and value are both widely assumed to be determinants of social behavior, value is a determinant of attitude as well as behavior. Third, if we further assume that a person possesses considerably fewer values than attitudes, then the value concept provides us with a more economical analytical tool for describing and explaining similarities and differences between persons, groups, nations, and cultures (p. 19).

Roth (1970) stated that "values serve a number of purposes in our daily lives (p. 2)." Mace (1972) indicated that values are the basis for establishing standards, and standards determine one's behavior. Gordon (1967) felt that values and value systems determine a person's decisions, goals and performance. Katzell (1967) contended that there is a relationship between personal values, job satisfaction and job behavior. He also indicated that increased congruency between
personal values and role expectations of the job result in increased satisfaction and increased satisfaction results in positive worker behavior. This would indicate that when worker behavior is satisfying to the worker and seen as a positive act by the employer, that worker is considered successful.

Perhaps the stability of values and their effect on decision-making processes places them in a prime position as predictors of professional or occupational patterns.

As a result of the recent emphasis on vocational, career, and practical education (U.S. Dept. of H.E.W., 1970-71), secondary schools throughout the country are attempting to assist students in establishing career goals and developing related skills. Students are frequently given the opportunity to participate in some practical experience of their choice. These choices are often made with little thought for selection criteria other than superficial interest at the time of selection.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine whether or not particular personal values are unique to success in particular internship categories. The personal values are: practical mindedness, achievement, variety, decisiveness, orderliness, and goal orientation. Internship categories are: technical-industrial, office-media, and personal service.

The author implemented a practical experience program providing internships for high school students. Most administrative problems encountered during implementation of the practical experience program were related to dissatisfied
interns. Such problems usually resulted in the need for spending more time with the intern by counselors, supervisors, coordinators, and administrators. Dissatisfaction among interns also required a greater length of time spent by interns before they could become involved in in-depth exploration and skill development.

Students experienced difficulties during two general time periods. One was during the selecting of an internship. The other usually occurred during the third and fourth weeks of the internship experience. In light of the literature dealing with the relationship of values to decision-making, performance, and satisfaction, the question was asked whether or not values could be identified with internship success and particular internship areas. If, in fact, personal values are related to particular internship categories, knowledge of this relationship would be helpful to counselors and administrators working with prospective high school interns. A values instrument may assist students in identifying personal values, comparing personal values with particular internship value requirements, and selecting an internship area. This instrument may identify conflicts between personal values and internship requirements.

The steps to be followed in implementing the present study were:

1. Identify successful and non-successful interns based upon the intern supervisor's responses to the Performance Evaluation Review (PER) instrument.

2. Identify personal values of interns in each of the three internship areas.

3. Determine the difference between personal values of successful and non-successful interns per internship area.
4. Determine uniqueness of personal values of interns in each of the three internship areas.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were investigated to determine if there is a relationship between personal values and internship success of high school practical experience program students.

1. Personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns.

2. Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

Definition of Terms

Value. — A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states of existence (Rokeach, 1968-69).

Operationally, values are the six personal values identified and tested by Survey of Personal Values (SPV): practical mindedness, achievement, variety, decisiveness, orderliness, and goal orientation (Gordon, 1967).

Internship. — An internship is an on-site, practical, participatory, learning experience which provides occupation exploration and skill development without renumeration.

Operationally, internships are the exploratory, skill developing

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experiences offered by Kearsley Community High School in the area of technical-industrial, office-media, and personal services.

**Attitude.** — An attitude is an enduring organization of several beliefs focused on a specific object (physical or social, concrete or abstract) or situation, disposing one to respond in some preferential manner (Rokeach, 1968).

**Belief.** — A belief is any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase, "I believe that . . ." (Rokeach, 1968).

**Standard.** — A standard is a custom, rule or code which will lead to the preservation of values (Mace, 1972).

**Success.** — Success is having accomplished some result which is satisfying to the actor and favorable to the recipient of the act.

Operationally, success is the receiving of more than 27 points on the Performance Evaluation Report.

**Technical-Industrial (T-I) internship.** — A technical-industrial internship is an internship in any of the manufacturing, maintenance, and repair fields.

**Office-media (O-M) internship.** — An office-media internship is an internship in any of the secretarial, clerical, reproduction, cataloging, accounting, and library fields.

**Personal services (PS) internships.** — A personal service internship is an internship requiring a major emphasis on inter-personal relations.

**Practical Experience Program.** — See Appendix.
Procedure

Two hundred thirteen Kearsley High School students participating in an internship experience during second semester of the school year 1973-1974 constituted the population. This population was partitioned into three sub-groups according to internship categories. There were T-I interns, O-M interns, and PS interns. The interns in each of the three sub-groups were identified as either successful or non-successful.

Successful and non-successful interns were identified through the use of the Performance Evaluation Review (PER) by General Research Corporation (1970). Nine items covering a wide range of intern performance were selected for the scale. Five point Likert scoring was applied to the items with excellent performance receiving five and unsatisfactory performance receiving one. The possible score range was nine through forty-five.

The PER was administered to intern supervisors participating in the Kearsley Practical Experience Program (PEP) during the second semester of the school year 1973-1974. Interns receiving more than 27 points on the PER were considered successful for the purpose of this study.

Hypothesis one

Personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns.

Instrument. The Survey of Personal Values (SPV) by Gordon (1967)
was used to identify and measure personal values. The object was to determine the relative importance which a person ascribes to various activities. Six values were measured. They were practical mindedness (P), achievement (A), variety (V), decisiveness (D), orderliness (O), and goal orientation (G).

A forced-choice format was employed by SPV. The instrument consisted of 30 sets of three statements or triads. For each triad the respondent indicated one statement as representing what was most important to him/her and one statement as representing what was least important.

Population. The two populations involved in the testing of this hypothesis were successful interns and non-successful interns. Each population was partitioned into three sub-groups each according to the three internship categories — T-I, O-M, and PS.

Data analysis. In order to test this hypothesis the difference in value score means between successful and non-successful interns of the three internship groups was obtained. Each of the six SPV values was dealt with separately. Each of the three internship groups was considered independently. In addition to testing for difference of means the relative importance of the six SPV values was identified by population and sub-group.

Testing the null hypotheses of no difference between independent means of two variables was accomplished through the use of the independent variable t-test formula (Glass and Stanley, 1970) as programmed in the Genesee Intermediate School District computer. Null hypotheses were rejected if the statistical analysis showed that differences observed would be likely to occur due to error.
variance only 5% or less of the time — \( p = .05 \) — if the null hypothesis of no difference between the means is true. Probability levels were reported as \( p = .05, p = .01 \), or as n.s. (not significant) if tested differences due to error variance was more than .05.

**Hypothesis two**

Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

**Instrument.** The Survey of Personal Values (SPV) by Gordon (1967) was used to identify personal value preferences.

**Population.** One population with three sub-groups was involved in the testing of this hypothesis. Successful interns will constitute the population. Successful interns partitioned by internship area will constitute the sub-groups.

**Data analysis.** In order to test this hypothesis the difference between value score means was calculated as they occurred by internship area. Each of the six SPV value scores was analyzed separately. Three value score means for the same value as found in each internship area were compared simultaneously. Statistical analysis for testing the overall difference of means for these three means was accomplished through the use of the one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The Sheffé method of multiple comparison (Glass and Stanley, 1970) was used to identify specific differences between means when null hypotheses were rejected.
Summary

Two of the current concerns in education are the need for practical experience during high school and the effect which personal values have upon decision-making for high school students. Since practical experiences (internships) in occupational areas are becoming more commonplace and since it is assumed that students are having to make critical decisions based upon personal values, the relationship between the two is of concern to those who supervise high school internships.

The objectives of the study were to: identify successful interns in the three internship areas of technical-industrial, office-media and personal services; identify the dominant values of successful and non-successful interns by internship area; determine if there is a difference between the dominant values of successful and non-successful interns by internship area; and determine if there are successful intern values unique to a particular internship area.

Overview

The intent of Chapter I was to identify the problem, describe the purpose of the study, explore briefly the theoretical basis upon which the study is to be based, develop hypotheses, and establish tests for the hypotheses.

Chapter II contains a review of literature which explores developments in value research and trends in practical experience programs.

A detailed design of the study is described in Chapter III. Instruments,
populations, data collection, and statistical treatment of the data are described in this chapter.

Chapter IV is comprised of presenting and reporting the survey findings. The format is based upon each of the two major hypotheses of the study.

Chapter V summarizes the research, presents conclusions, and raises questions for further study.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This study was based upon the hypothesis that there is a relationship between personal values and internship success of high school practical experience program students. The review of literature, therefore, has been based upon two primary areas of concern. These were the areas of values and practical experience education. Studies representing both of these basic areas have been reviewed by the researcher and presented in Chapter II.

Values

A great deal of emphasis has been placed on the study and use of values in education. In the interest of clarity and in order to present a representative sampling of information available in this subject field, the concept value has been explored in terms of three sub topic headings. These three areas were: meaning of value, roles of values and value research with its implications.

Meaning of value

There have been a number of definitive statements issued concerning the concept of value. As with other concepts these varied definitions of value have evidently been quite dependent upon the perceptions of the individuals.
doing the defining. For instance, Kluckholm (1962) has defined values as:

... a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action (p. 595).

On the other hand, Rokeach (1968) interpreted value as being a mode of conduct that is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes. These two definitions, as well as other statements defining values, have found varying degrees of general acceptance. In fact, establishing consensus as to the meaning of the term has been so difficult that it has prompted Harmin, Rath and Simon (1966) to state that "The only agreement that emerges is that a value represents something important in human existence (p. 9)."

Attitudes and beliefs are two terms that have been closely associated with the term value. In fact, according to Roth (1970), "The terms beliefs, attitudes, and values are often used interchangeably... (p. 15)." To avoid confusion, this study has borrowed Rokeach's (1968) definition of belief as "... any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase, 'I believe that... (p. 13)'."

A more difficult problem may be in differentiating between attitudes and values. For the most part however, authors have tended to distinguish between these two concepts in terms of degree or depth of feeling. For instance, Mace (1972) contends that an attitude is the weaker feeling based on the foundation of the stronger and more stable feeling called a value. Munns (1972) said that attitudes and values were sufficiently different and identifiable, but that attitudes could be used to measure values. Another point of view contributed by Froman
(1962), stated that attitude is only a predisposition of an individual to evaluate some aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Froman indicated that a predisposition often is based on a deeper underlying foundation such as a value structure. Rokeach (1968) also defined attitudes as being predispositions, but predispositions focusing on a specific object or situation causing one to respond in some preferential manner. Rokeach continued by adding that attitudes and values are related but are not the same. Of the two areas -- values and attitudes, Allport (1935) concluded:

The concept of attitudes is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American psychology. No other term appears more frequently in the experimental and theoretical literature (p. 798).

Role of value

Rokeach (1968) voiced a position which has been gaining in popularity since the mid 1960's:

Several considerations lead me to place the value concept ahead of the attitude concept. First, value is clearly a more dynamic concept than attitude having a strong motivational component as well as cognitive, affective and behavioral components. Second, while attitude and value are both widely assumed to be determinants of social behavior, value is a determinant of attitude as well as behavior. Third, if we further assume that a person possesses considerably fewer values than attitudes, then the value concept provides us with a more economical analytical tool for describing and explaining similarities and differences between persons, groups, nations, and cultures (p. 19).

It can be said therefore, that values form the foundation upon which attitudes and beliefs are based. Support for Rokeach's argument can be found in a statement by Roth (1969) when he concluded that values have enjoyed increased attention by
researchers and a greater general popularity since the mid 1960's.

Values perform a number of roles in our daily lives. One particular role in which values play an important part is in serving as standards. According to Roth (1969) values tell us how to act, what to want, and how to justify behavior. Wooten, Reynolds and Ormond (1973) supported this viewpoint by saying that standards for behavior in a particular culture are largely determined by values. Mace (1972) maintained that values are useful in setting standards that will help people to judge and to compare themselves with others.

Mace (1972) justified his position on values as standards by recalling the lesson that he gleaned by reading Lord of the Flies. He reasoned in the following way:

We can speak of these values in many words, and that doesn't matter. The clouds do not fixed forms. But they are inherently immutable, because they represent the conditions which must be met if human communities are not to degenerate or perish. We see a good example in microcosm of a human community degenerating for lack of values in William Golding's book, Lord of the Flies (p. 17).

Mace evidently felt that the destruction caused by the child inhabitants in Golding's book were attributable to the children's lack of a strong value system. Rescher (1972) also recognized the importance of values as standards when he noted:

Values are worth bothering with because they make a difference. When we know someone's values we are able to grasp "what makes him tick." We are better able to understand him and to deal with him. The possession of diverse values set people apart and shared values simplify their working together (p. 3).

Perhaps, Rokeach (1968) best summarized the position values play in establishing standards by saying that values are beneficial to man in that they may serve as a
yardstick in measuring actions, comparisons, evaluations, and justification of self and others.

Values add stability in people's lives. Rokeach (1968) has said that values may be identified by their ability to transcend a given situation. It is a stability of values which allow this transcendence capability. Froman (1962) felt that deeply entrenched values provided stability to the actions of people. The deeper the value had become entrenched within the value structure of the individual, the more consistent his actions would be, regardless of the effect of differing situations. Mace (1972) apparently adhered to a similar philosophy. He stated that "Values, in my view, do not undergo basic change. They are integrally associated with the goals of human life (p. 17)."

Although values do offer stability, it is maintained by some authors that values do not transcend all situations. Mazur (1972) felt that values were too complex to be considered totally unchanging. He maintained that values were partially "experiential and situational (p. 16)." Payne (1961), in studying changes of attitude and value orientation of university freshmen, inferred that time and situation modify values; that is, values constantly are undergoing evolutionary transformation.

How then, one may ask, can values be both stable and changeable at the same time? This inconsistency could be easily explained by saying that values are almost completely stable in the short run, but are changeable over a long period of time. Both Mazur (1972) and Payne (1961) seemed to be proponents of this viewpoint. An equally convincing argument has been offered by Rokeach.
(1968). Rokeach defined two types of values, the deepest being the terminal value. According to Rokeach, a terminal value is one that has been thoroughly developed within the individual, and it is only this type of value that can really be considered stable.

Another role which has been eluded to, but not specifically dealt with, is the contribution of values to the decision-making process. Roth (1969) concluded in his review of literature that:

... all men possess ... value systems -- the function of which is to help him choose between two alternatives and to resolve conflicts between alternatives in every day life. A person's value system may be said to represent a learned organization of rules for making choices and for resolving conflicts (p. 21).

Roth suggested that a man without values would have a very difficult time making decisions. Harmin, Rath, and Simon (1966) supported this viewpoint by noting that youth of today have a lack of commitment to anything or anyone. These authors feel that this demonstration of apathy can be particularly explained by the students' lack of values, upon which decisions can be based. Thus, these authors contend that values do indeed assist an individual in making decisions.

A further point of clarification on the role values play in the decision-making process is presented by Hoyt, Evans, Mackin, and Magnum (1972). They indicated that despite the importance of values in decision-making, values themselves do not become significant decision-making factors until a child reaches high school age.

Yet, there are subtle, but important differences expected on the basis of which vocational decisions are made at each level. In the elementary school, students tend to make decisions based largely on interest and liking.
for one activity as opposed to another. In the junior high school, students are likely to add to the interest based a dimension in which they consider relative ability and aptitude to perform various kinds of work. Upon entering senior high school, most students will add personal values as a third dimension to those developed earlier, based on interest and aptitudes (p. 107).

It appears from the above quote that values do not serve as a major decision-making tool until a person has reached a certain degree of maturation. Although Bailey and Stadt (1973) did not indicate the importance of maturity and age on the degree of influence values have on decision-making, they did differentiate between the degree of effect that values and interest had on decision-making. They indicated a position similar to that expressed by Hoyt et al. when they (Bailey & Stadt) stated the following:

One way of comparing the relationship of values and interests in occupational decision making is to think of interests as affecting the orientation or direction of a choice while values affect the degree to which the occupation (or the preference of an occupation) may be important or satisfying to the individual (p. 124).

A final point of discussion is made by some authors who contend that values are not only important in decision-making, but that decision-making ability is vital in helping one to develop values. In other words, values and decision-making are interdependent. They seem to form a symbiotic relationship. Harmin et al. (1966) have recognized this phenomenon when they insisted that one can only develop values when he is allowed to make choices. They point out that one can truly value something only if he follows the seven evaluating criteria of:

1. Choosing from alternatives.
2. Choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.
3. Choosing freely.
4. Prizing, being glad of one's choice.
5. Prizing, being willing to publicly affirm one's choice.
6. Acting upon one's choice and incorporating choice into behavior.
7. Acting upon one's choice repeatedly over a period of time (p. 259).

Bailey and Stadt (1973) also referred to this symbiotic relationship when they stated that:

New behaviors must be implemented each time a new decision is made. As the individual copes with the decision making and adjustment tasks, a self-concept emerges and assumes a greater influence on subsequent decisions (p. 75).

In summary, it can be said that values are imperative to the decision-making process. This importance increases as a person matures. Finally, it can be said that decision-making is as important in developing values as values are in helping one make decisions.

Value research and its implications

A number of studies have been compiled utilizing the concept of value. It is not the purpose of this paper to present all research in the field, but rather to present selected studies with implications directly related to values as indicators. In other words, the studies that have been presented in this paper are those in which "... values serve as criteria for selection ..." and where "... values become criteria for judgement, preference and choice (Roth, 1969, p. 20)."

Value indicators in general studies. Handy (1961) used a number of hypotheses that had been held by many researchers in the behavioral sciences. This list included the following statements:

1. Values help to organize, guide and direct behavior.
2. Many values are not explicitly or conscientiously held.
3. The value system of a culture tends to maintain itself and to change much less rapidly than any other aspects of the culture, such as its mode of economic organization.
4. Land normally is a value symbol in present societies, but not in hunting-gathering societies.
5. Values can be measured through the use of attitude scale.
6. Content-analysis of literature, the mass media, etc., can reveal the values held by social groups.
7. A person's attitude toward an event tends to be consistent with his values and the way he sees the event relative to those values.
8. The values held by a person are strongly influenced by the values he judges other people to hold (pp. 48-59).

As can be observed, Handy's collection of hypotheses demonstrated that values, attitudes and behaviors were often highly correlated. Stemming from the rationale expressed by men similar in viewpoint to Handy, a number of research projects were launched which attempted to discover which variables in a man's life were significantly influenced by values. Some of these early studies found that there were obvious similarities in values held by certain groups of people. Roth (1969) summarized these findings in the following way:

For example, men score higher on theoretical, economic, and political values; women score higher on aesthetic, social and religious values. Likewise, individuals in scientific fields have high theoretical value scores, individuals in the field of art have high aesthetic value scores, and individuals in business and commercial fields have high economic value scores (p. 25).

A particularly interesting project was undertaken by Bishop (1969) when he sought to determine the types of people who typically belonged to one political party or another. His results indicated that supporters of McCarthy and Humphrey placed a high value on both freedom and equality whereas, supporters of the republican nominees placed a high value only on freedom, and a lesser value emphasis on equality. Rokeach (1969a, 1969b) reported results from a study using a similar
format. His study, however, did not measure political preferences instead, it attempted to discover values held by frequent and infrequent church goers. The study suggested that frequent church goers were somewhat less compassionate than less frequent church goers. It also pointed out that both the values of salvation and forgiving were found to be negatively correlated to social compassion.

Another general study using values as indicators was completed by Ro­keach and Parker (1970). This study investigated the extent to which cultural differences between various levels of social-economic groups could be differentiated in terms of values. The conclusions were derived from the data collected from samples of people representing high and low social-economic groups.

The results show that persons of low status, as compared with persons of high status, are more religious, more conformist, less concerned with responsibility, more concerned with friendship than love, and less concerned with competence and self-actualization. When we move to an analysis of value differences between whites and negroes; however, we find generally fewer differences. The major difference is on the value for equality. Other value differences, such as those involved in competence and self-actualization, seem to parallel the differences found between groups of high and low status. When status is held constant, or when poor whites and negroes are compared with one another, most of the value differences previously found disappear or become minimal (p. 97).

Value indicators in educational research. Studies investigating educational phenomena may be more directly related to the hypotheses being investigated in this paper. For example, values have been found to be helpful in counseling students. McSweeney (1973) performed an analysis of correlation between value orientation and occupational choice and scores on the value inventory in relationship to terms of traditional and emergent value systems. He contended that "Attention should perhaps be transferred to students' values rather than social-economic
status or ability when predicting or advising on careers (p. 106)."

In another educational study (Boutwell, Low, Williams, & Proffitt, 1973) it was hypothesized that successful Indian students held values that were different than their less successful Indian counterparts. The results suggested that successful Indian students had developed educational values similar to, but not exactly alike, the values held by the generally more academically successful white students.

Other studies applying values in educational research have used populations not comprised of students. Ecker (1968) studied the relationship between teachers' perceptions of values and principals' perceptions of values of the administrative practices of principals. Larson (1966) used values as an integral part of his work when he measured the open-mindedness and satisfaction expressed by school board members. Finally, Hobson (1967) performed a value analysis of third grade reading textbooks adopted for the state of Texas. From inspection of the studies available utilizing values in educational research, it can be said that a knowledge of values is an integral part of the background needed for educators to be capable of making high quality decisions. Historical credence for this statement has been given by Wooton et al. (1973) when they concluded that values are and always have been a very important force within the American school system.

Values as indicators of occupational choice. Schwarzweller (1960) conducted a study of senior high school boys and girls in order to discover what values were related to occupational plans. He measured twelve value variables such as those of achievement, security, service to society, and friendship. It was found
that values held by the boys and girls were related to their occupational choices.

Singer and Steffire (1954a) compared job values and desires of high school seniors. By using value categories of leadership, esteem, power, security, self-expression, interesting experience, profit, fame, social service and independence, comparisons were made between male and female responses for each category. Boys demonstrated a greater desire for jobs offering power, profit, and independence. Girls valued occupations that offered interesting experiences.

McSweeney (1973) also investigated the use of values as an indicator of occupational choice. He conducted a study using a population of secondary high school students. Students were asked to state both the nature of their intended occupation and the reason for their choice. The values of time-orientation and achievement were found to be important in terms of occupational choice.

These vocational studies, as well as other research emphasizing values as aids in making occupational choices, were conducted by employing specific instruments designed to measure values. Probably the most widely recognized value-measuring instrument has been the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Values Scale. The scale included "theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious values and was based on Edward Spranger's concept of personality being best known through one's attitudes (Munns, 1972, p. 520)." The test has been continuously revised to meet the specific needs of the population being studied. For instance, Roth (1969) pointed out in his dissertation that many researchers have applied the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Scale. He identified Rothney (1936); Lurie (1937); Van Dusen, Wimberly, and Mosier (1939), and Maller and Glassar (1939)

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as all being past users of the instrument.

Although the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Scale has enjoyed wide acceptance, there have been other notable value research instruments developed by other talented researchers. Rokeach (1968-1969) has been directly responsible for the development of at least two value-measuring instruments -- the Two-Value Model of Politics, and The Dogmatism Scale. Schwarzweller (1960) constructed his own value instrument which contained twelve value variables. These variables were achievement, material comfort, security, hard work, mental work, creative work, work with people, individualism, service to society, familism, external conformity and friendship. One further example of a research instrument that was constructed to measure values was the analytical device supplied by Singer and Stefflre (1954a, 1954b). In both studies the value measuring tool was the Job Values and Desires Checklist.

Survey of personal values. The final instrument to be presented is the Survey of Personal Values by Gordon (1967). The SPV was selected over other value instruments for a variety of reasons. It is in use nation-wide. The format is simple which lends to ease of administration. A fewer number of values are incorporated in this instrument than the others. The reading level is appropriate for high school students and the instrument was designed for the purpose of measuring performance and occupational related values. Since the Survey of Personal Values has been the value-measuring device utilized in this study, this instrument will be more thoroughly explained than were the others.

The most comprehensive description of the Survey of Personal Values is

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A person's values may determine to a large degree what he does or how well he performs. His immediate decisions and his life goals are influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by his value system. His personal satisfaction is dependent to a large extent upon the degree to which his value system can find expression in his everyday life. The presence of strong, incompatible values within the individual, or conflict between his values and those of others, may affect his efficiency and personal adjustment.

One way to measure the individual's values is to determine the relative importance that he ascribes to various activities. By this approach, the Survey of Personal Values (SPV) attempts to provide measures within one segment of the value domain. It is designed to measure certain critical values that help determine the manner in which an individual copes with the problems of everyday living. The six values measured by the SPV are Practical Mindedness (P), Achievement (A), Variety (V), Decisiveness (D), Orderliness (O), and Goal Orientation (G).

The Survey of Personal Values is believed to be an unusually efficient instrument in that it is brief—requiring, on the average, about fifteen minutes to administer—yet has adequate reliability for individual use. Its scales were developed through the use of factor analysis. Every item is keyed on its appropriate scale; no item is keyed on more than one scale. Throughout its development, high school, college and industrial samples were used. The item content has been found to be meaningful for each of these groups; the scales have been found to have discriminating power within each of these groups.

Forced-choice format is employed in the SPV. The instrument consists of thirty sets of three statements, or triads. For each triad the respondent indicates one statement as representing what is most important to him and one statement as representing what is least important to him. Within each triad, three statements within each set were equated, to a large extent, for social desirability. In this way, the likelihood of the individual's responding to the favorableness of the statement rather than to its degree of importance to him is reduced. The forced-choice approach has been found to be minimally susceptible to faking in the measurement of personality traits (Gordon, 1951, Gordon & Stapleton, 1966, Gordon, 1960, 1963).

The scales are interpreted in terms of the items contained in them as determined by factor-analytic methods. The scales are defined by what high-scoring individuals value. There are no separate descriptions for low-scoring individuals; they simply do not value what is defined by that particular scale. Following are definitions of the scales:

P - Practical Mindedness: To always get one's money's worth, to take good care of one's property, to get full use out of one's possessions, to do things that will pay off, to be very careful with one's money.
A - Achievement: To work on difficult problems, to have a challenging job to tackle, to strive to accomplish something significant, to set the highest standards of accomplishment for oneself, to do an outstanding job in anything one tries.

V - Variety: To do things that are new and different, to have a variety of experiences, to be able to travel a great deal, to go to strange or unusual places, to experience an element of danger.

D - Decisiveness: To have strong and firm convictions, to make decisions quickly, to always come directly to the point, to make one's position on matters very clear, to come to a decision and stick to it.

O - Orderliness: To have well-organized work habits, to keep things in their proper place, to be a very orderly person, to follow a systematic approach in doing things, to do things according to a schedule.

G - Goal Orientation: To have definite goals toward which to work, to stick to a problem until it is solved, to direct one's efforts toward clear-cut objectives, to know precisely where one is headed, to keep one's goals clearly in mind (p. 1).

Gordon (1967) has indicated five applications of the Survey of Personal Values. They are:

1. Selection - The SPV scale has a high success relevance to many jobs which were recommended for experimental inclusion in industrial selection batteries.

2. Appraisal or vocational guidance - SPV may be used as a vocational guidance aid if the results are used in conjunction with other available test and information concerning the individual.

3. Counseling - Counselors may use individual SPV scale scores and overall score patterns when providing valuable insights into the personality make-up of a client.

4. Classroom demonstration - SPV has been found especially useful for demonstration purposes in psychology courses.

5. Research - Recommended research uses of PSP are the areas of relation between values and job satisfaction, value correlations of management philosophy, similarities and differences in values as they relate to marital

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adjustments, under- and overachievement predictions in school, indicators of value pattern changes by age, value differences in groups and differing experience effects on value patterns.

This study lends itself to four of the five applications recommended for SPV. These are: selection, appraisal and vocational guidance, counseling, and research. In addition to the breadth of use SPV has the qualities of brevity and ease of administration. For these reasons and others covered in Chapter III, the Survey of Personal Values was selected to study the relationship between personal values and internship success of high school students.

**Practical Experience Programs**

The second portion of this chapter has reviewed the information related to practical experience programs. The areas of information held to be most vital to this study have been arranged into three basic topics. Stated precisely, these topics have been labeled as: related terms, historical development and methods of practical experience instruction.

**Related terms**

Practical experience programs are not a new educational concept. The basic components of the program have been in existence for quite some time. The general premise upon which practical experience programs are based is that a student can often learn certain skills better if he is given time to work and observe in a job situation where these skills are employed. In the context of the Kearsley
Community School program, practical experience programs have been instituted based on the Board of Education's (1974) following resolutions:

1. District wide goals and performance objectives shall be established.

2. Every high school student shall have the opportunity of practical application of knowledge, comprehensive career exploration and service giving.

3. A placement center for both college bound and vocational bound students shall be created.

Probably the best known term related to practical experience programming is vocational education. The concept itself can be traced to ancient times.

Vocational education of an informal nature dates back to earliest civilization. Fathers taught sons, mothers instructed daughters, and the elders of the tribe trained eager youth in arts and crafts long before agriculture became established and before towns and villages were built.

Even apprenticeship, which is a form of more or less systematic or organized instruction for attaining vocational competency, can be traced to ancient times (Struck, 1958, p. 3).

Broadly defined, vocational education has been considered as being almost the same as general education, mainly in that all of education has been designed to meet the needs of all people in all occupations (Barlow, 1965).

Most authors, however, prefer not to define vocational education as being synonymous with the basic K-12 curriculum. Struck (1958) considered vocational education as being separate from, but interdependent with, general education. He claimed that:

Vocational education deals with knowledge, skills and attitude that fit in individually, wholly or in part, for a definite occupation or vocation, the pursuit of which equips him for successful living.

It is not to be inferred that general or non-vocational education is necessarily broader than vocational education. Much depends upon what
is meant by broader. Fortunately, both general and vocational education have their appropriate useful functions. It is only when they are confused that harm may be done. General and vocational education are interdependent, are related, through different aspects of the vital social processes of preparing for living and of living (p. 5).

Greene (1955) echoed this belief when he pointed out that liberal education and vocational training were "two essential and complimentary aspects of the total preparation of the individual for his total life (p. 119)." Haskew and Tumlin (1965) also felt that vocational education was not an all inclusive term. They felt that the term should be precisely defined in relationship to its two prime objectives. These objectives were to produce within a student desirable dispositions toward occupational endeavors or to equip the student with a set of occupational proficiencies which would enable him to engage skillfully in an occupation.

When vocational education is defined as more occupationally oriented rather than as a synonym for general education, then both practical experience programs and vocational education programs become closely related. Both stress the concept that Norton (1938) referred to when he titled his book on vocational education; that is, both educational programs have been primarily concerned with "education for work" (p. 1).

Another term which has been used in practical experience programming is industrial arts. The basic difference between industrial arts education and vocational education is that industrial arts education deals with vocations in an exploratory nature rather than attempting to teach proficiency or technical skill in a trade or occupation, as does vocational education. Norton (1938) contends that industrial arts education courses "are considered distinctly non-vocational in
character. Indeed, the Education Law states that they should be non-vocational, and the schools are prohibited from classifying such courses as trade, technical or vocational (p. 123)."

A more recent and comprehensive development in the area of practical experience programming is career education. Career education, as does practical experience programming, maintains that the central unifying element for education is career development. In this case, career development transcends manual occupations. According to Goldhammer and Taylor (1972) career education "is not a synonym for vocational education. It is not a reiteration of traditional and good educational goals. It retains the essentials of education, but introduces a new sense of purposefulness — career development (p. 2)." Defining career education has been a difficult task and there are nearly as many definitions as definers of the term (Hoyt et al., 1972); however, according to these authors career education is defined as:

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 into their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual (p. 1)."

North Carolina has provided another definition of career education. A 25 member state task force hammered out the following definition:

Career education consists of knowledge, understandings, skills, and attitudes aimed at enhancing the individual's abilities to cope with the problems of learning to live, learning to learn, and learning to make a living. It is an approach to learning and teaching which combines organized classroom experiences with the reality of the world in which we live and work. It provides curricular options and personal alternatives and experiences appropriate to each individual (Dillon, 1974, p. 45).
Despite the many definitions, Marland (1971) in his address before the state directors of vocational education provided a comprehensive concept of career education when he said:

It is flatly necessary to begin to construct a sound, systematized relationship between education and work, a system which will make it standard practice to teach every student about occupations and the economic enterprise, a system which will markedly increase career options open to each individual and enable us to do a better job than we have been doing of meeting the manpower needs of this country. (p. 269).

Another term which is closely associated with practical experience education is community education. This utilizes the concept of education for all people of all ages at all times.

This means that the major vocational, civic, social, economic, cultural, and ethical problems of the people are also the concern of the schools. But it also implies that the school has a program that is based upon the needs of those who live in the town or city and surrounding areas where the school is located (Byram & Wenrich, 1959, p. 5).

Quite possibly the most universally accepted definition of community education has been offered by Le Tarte and Minzey (1972):

Community education is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all of the educational needs of all its community members. It uses the local school to serve as the catalyst for bringing community resources to bear on community problems in an effort to develop a positive sense of community, improve community living, and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization (p. 19).

The essence of this definition is the identifying of needs and the providing of resources for the satisfaction of those needs. Byram and Wenrich (1959) felt that the basic premise upon which community education has been built is the two way traffic between community and school. It allows the facilities of the school to be available to community members at all times so that practical experiences of
every day living can be made available to the clientele served by the schools.

There have been a multiplicity of terms related to practical experience programming. As Barlow (1967) has concluded "Probably the most frustrating problem has been that of terminology. It is 'all mixed up' in historical record --- at times so obscure as to defy interpretation (p. 7)." The term used to describe practical experience type programs is relatively unimportant. What does seem important is that the basic impact of these many definitions has been to integrate the theoretical and practical aspects of education by providing on-the-job situations where a student can explore, practice, or perfect particular skills necessary for a successful career.

**Historical Development**

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, practical experience programs are not new. The roots of practical experience programs reach deep into the historical past. The term itself has been coined to describe the practical experience to which students are introduced, whereas the concept that this term represents has been a goal of many concerned educators throughout history.

Most of the historical emphasis for practical experience programming has stemmed from the field of vocational education. According to Roberts (1965) vocational education is a concept that is as old as civilization itself. "Man, since the beginning of time, has worked for his livelihood, and this has necessitated that he learn to work (p. 3)." Many cultures have left written records providing evidence that vocational related education has been practiced. Struck
(1958) and Barlow (1967) listed people who have at some time or another utilized the basic concept of vocational education. They concluded that various forms of vocational education were tried by the early civilizations that flourished in the valley of the Euphrates, the Tigress and in China, Greeks and Romans, peoples of the middle ages and by numerous religious groups. More recently, the Swiss and Americans have become proponents of this educational concept.

Concentrating on the recent history may be most productive for the purpose of this study, because "... while the first isolated trials in vocational education were made two to three hundred years ago, organized programs appeared first in the nineteenth century and became effective only in the twentieth (Keller, 1948, p. 45)." Swiss contributions, in particular, stem from the works of Pestalozzi and Von Fellenberg. Von Fellenberg gained prominence by instituting his academy at Hofwyl. As noted by Barlow (1967) the school's curriculum was partially vocational in nature.

Agricultural and industrial instruction were combined with some elements of literary instruction in an educational experiment with strong social implications. Manual activities were stressed for all students, but the emphasis was placed upon literary activities for well-to-do students and upon practical aspects for the poor children (p. 24).

Although Von Fellenberg's school provided manual training for only the poor, it was a pioneer in the area of formalized vocational education. The school enjoyed success in the years 1806 to 1844. Keller (1948) concluded that "For its time it was a remarkable school. Technically, socially, and pedagogically, it broke new ground and exerted a tremendous influence (p. 41)." Possibly, the best statement indicating early Swiss sentiment for vocational training was best
expressed by Pestalozzi, whose philosophy formed the basis of Von Fellenberg’s school. He often said that obtaining knowledge through experience had no substitute (Krusi, 1875).

Von Fellenberg’s Hofwyl school attracted much attention in America (Barlow, 1967). This influence had such an effect, that in 1820 a Boston committee stated that the original purpose of American high schools was to prepare youth for occupational life (Struck, 1958). Early Americans’ efforts in vocational education received major emphasis in 1862 from the Morrill Act, otherwise known as the Land-Grant Act. The Morrill Act "... donated certain public lands to the several states and territories to provide colleges of agriculture and of mechanic art (Struck 1958, p. 4)."

Not much formal support by state and federal government was given to secondary schools in the area of vocational education until shortly after 1900. During this time, however, the number of states, notably Massachusetts, California (Barlow, 1967) New York and Pennsylvania (Struck, 1958) began experimenting with vocational education at the pre-college level. Vocational education of less than college grade became a reality, however, through the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. This act:

... sought specifically to facilitate occupational choice by providing funds to the state for the promotion and development of programs of vocational education (Barlow, 1965, p. 2).

The funds amounted to ". . . approximately $7 million annually, as a permanent appropriation, for vocational education in agriculture, trades, home economics, and industry and for teacher training (Mobley & Barlow, 1965, p. 187)."
From this monumental act, the present form of vocational education started to take shape and this type of education began to become a reality in many American school districts. In fact, vocational education has enjoyed such a widespread acceptance that it has become a reality for most American school districts today. As noted by Lerwick (1974), because of the sophistication of present occupational job requirements and a need for trained people to fulfill these positions, vocational education has recently become a widely accepted educational practice. Many closely related pre-occupation preparation experience programs such as manual training, practical arts, industrial arts, industrial training, technical training, career education and practical experience education have become implemented throughout the nation.

Methods of practical experience instruction

Instructional techniques for presenting occupational information have been developing for many centuries. The earliest teaching and vocational training was organized quite simply. Quite possibly, the most elementary of these instructional approaches was the father-son relationship.

The roots of industrial education reach deep into the historical past. The mores of every culture leaving a written record have included unmistakable evidence of this fact; however, most trade education in the ancient nations was conducted in a father-son relationship (Barlow, 1967, p. 15).

Obviously, this type of education will always retain its popularity. Parents have traditionally been the child's first teacher and their lessons have frequently formed the basis upon which the child's future occupational choices are made.
The primary difference between past family vocational training and present occupational education may be explained in terms of the obvious limitations of present family training. The rapidly changing world of work has made family oriented training insufficient as a sole means of vocational training. As Evans (1971) concluded, "... when a technolotical revolution such as the substitution of agriculture for hunting or the substitution of bronze for stone tools occurred, transmission of the family heritage was no longer a satisfactory educational program for workers in the newly generated occupations (p. 10)." Naturally, the present occupations have progressed far beyond hunting and using bronze tools. Evans only used this example to make his point; that is, that present home training needs to be supplemented with additional formal education so that students will be able to adjust to today's more complicated and rapidly changing society. Perhaps Toffler (1971) best summarized this need for comprehensive educational training when he suggested that young people of today may have to make four or five career changes during their lifetime. He said technological change will make specialized skills and certain jobs obsolete much faster than it has in the past.

Vocational training gradually assumed forms other than family education. As man found that additional occupational training was needed in a progressive world, he began to use on-the-job training programs. As related by Evans (1971), on-the-job training is not a new element.

The instructor was a worker who was not necessarily a member of the family. On-the-job training (OJT) by persons other than parents occurred whenever members of more than one family were engaged in a productive activity. It had the advantage of providing for the orphan and allowed the
new worker to learn from more than one instructor, but it had the disadvantage that the trainer did not have a vested interest in seeing that the new worker was fully trained (p. 10).

Although recognizing the advantages of on-the-job training, Evans pointed out the obvious disadvantages of this form of training. He felt that on-the-job training was haphazard, characterized by trial and error teaching. Despite this disadvantage however, on-the-job training is still quite popular, especially in jobs where expensive equipment is required. Swanson and Kramer (1965) noted this advantage in the following statement:

If the training requires very expensive equipment, it will usually not be available at a public school, or, if the skill requirement is peculiar to a single industry, a public institution cannot justify a training program. An institution which accepts the responsibility of training for employment should be aware of occupational training by business, industry, and the armed services and should assist its students to take advantage of such opportunities. It should also consider supplementing such training to increase the student's prospective economic security (p. 177).

A more refined type of on-the-job training is offered by apprenticeship programs. It attempts "... to combine the best of family instruction and OJT by having experienced workers agree to teach the full range of an occupation, acting in lieu of the parent (Evans, 1971, pp. 10-11)." Apprenticeships were designed to overcome the often haphazard teaching practices of early on-the-job training programs. According to Evans, this type of occupational training is not uncommon today, but that present apprenticeships often begin later in life, last for a shorter period, and instruction is guaranteed by a group of employers rather than by a single craftsman.

Apprenticeships, sometimes called the first form of organized learning (Roberts, 1965), were defined as a period of intense training at which time a
student would work for, learn from, and often live with, an experienced worker (Evans, 1971). This arrangement was useful to both student and trainer. The student learned most aspects of the craft and the craftsman obtained free work from the student.

A modern form of this teacher-student occupational training program is the internship. This altered form of apprenticeship has been developed to meet the educational needs of the present. Recognizing the need for a more rapid system of educational training (Toffler, 1971), internships have been instituted in a number of different occupational training programs. Internships are generally considered to be a training experience, where an intern learns how to perform a job or a particular aspect of a job. Often they are only a few weeks in length, during which time the student becomes somewhat acquainted with the job role. In some cases internships may be much longer, such as medical internships, where interns often spend two or three years assisting more experienced doctors.

One example of an internship program not medically oriented can be seen in the Mott Fellowship Program which has been charged with the training of community education leaders. In carrying out its leadership training objectives, various cooperating universities offered their students many opportunities to participate in internships (National Community Education Center). In addition to orienting the students to a number of new situations, the internships were individualized to meet the educational desires of the students.
Another example of this newest occupational training method is the practical experience program offered by the Kearsley Community School System of suburban Flint, Michigan. Internships have been designed for Kearsley students in occupational areas such as bus driving, office-business, library sciences, health services, law, physical education, parks and recreation, media, and hobby areas (Pease, 1974). The basic goal of this program has been to help students in selecting and exploring a wide variety of comprehensive career areas.

Thus, it can be said that for centuries, various instructional methods have been used in occupational training areas related to practical experience programming. Progressing from the sole dependence on father-son teachings, occupational training presently utilizes additional techniques such as apprenticeships and internships in providing vocational and career experiences for today's students.

Summary

The review of literature has been divided into two basic parts -- values and practical experience program. The values portion of the study explored the areas of: meaning of value, roles of values and value research with its implications. It was concluded that values are quite stable. They tell people how to act and what to say, and can, therefore, be used as indicators of performance.

The practical experience program portion investigated the areas of related forms, historical development and methods of practical experience instructions. Examination of the literature in these areas indicate that various forms
of practical experience instruction have existed throughout the history of man. The earliest form of occupational training had been the passing of knowledge and skill from father to son. As vocational technology became more sophisticated and complex, vocational training methods expanded to meet these modern needs. Various attempts have been made in the areas of apprenticeships, on-the-job training, vocational schools, cooperative training education, and internships.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Review of the Problem

The intent of the study was to determine whether or not particular personal values are unique to success in particular internship categories as found in the Kearsley Practical Experience Program. The personal values are: practical mindedness, achievement, variety, decisiveness, orderliness, and goal orientation. Internship categories are: technical-industrial, office-media, and personal service.

The steps followed in implementing the study were:

1. Identify successful and non-successful interns based upon the interns supervisor's responses to the Performance Evaluation Review (PER) instrument.

2. Identify personal values of interns in each of the three internship areas.

3. Determine the difference between personal values of successful and non-successful interns per internship area.

4. Determine uniqueness of personal values of interns in each of the three internship areas.

The following hypotheses were investigated to determine if there is a relationship between personal values and internship success of high school practical experience program students.
1. The personal values of successful interns are different than the personal values of non-successful interns.

2. Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

Procedure

The two hundred thirteen Kearsley High School students participating in an internship experience during second semester of the school year 1973-1974 constituted the population. This population was partitioned into three sub-groups according to internship categories; thereby creating T-I interns, O-M interns, and PS interns. The interns in each of the three sub-groups were identified as either successful or non-successful.

Successful and non-successful interns were identified through the use of the Performance Evaluation Review by General Research Corporation. Nine items covering a wide range of intern performance were selected for the scale. Five point Likert scoring was applied to the items with excellent performance receiving five and unsatisfactory performance receiving one. The possible score range was nine through 45. The national norm for PER was identified as the midpoint of the total possible score.

The PER was administered to intern supervisors participating in the Kearsley Practical Experience Program (PEP) during the second semester of the school year, 1973-1974. Interns receiving more than the national norm, 27 points, on the PER were considered successful for the purpose of the study. Those...
receiving 27 points or less were considered non-successful for the purpose of the study.

Hypotheses

The study was stated in two hypotheses. Hypothesis one generated three sub-hypotheses -- one for each intern category. Each intern category sub-hypothesis, in turn, generated six sub-hypotheses -- one for each personal value. Hypothesis two had six sub-hypotheses -- one for each personal value. For each sub-hypothesis there was a respective null statement. In order to test each null hypothesis of no significant difference the .05 and .01 levels of confidence were used.

**Hypothesis one**

Hypothesis one proposed that personal values of successful interns are different from the personal values of non-successful interns.

**Instrument.** The Survey of Personal Values (SPV) by Gordon (1967) was used to identify and measure personal values. The object was to determine the relative importance which a person ascribes to various activities. Six values were measured. They were practical mindedness (P), achievement (A), variety (V), decisiveness (D), orderliness (O), and goal orientation (G).

A forced-choice format was employed by SPV. The instrument consisted of thirty sets of three statements or triads. For each triad the respondent indicated one statement as representing what was most important to him/her and one statement
as representing what was least important.

Reliability coefficients as stated in the instruction manual for the six scales were determined by the test-retest method. Reliabilities were \( (P) .80, \)  
\( (A) .87, \)  
\( (V) .92, \)  
\( (D) .74, \)  
\( (O) .83, \)  
\( (G) .84 \) (Gordon, 1967).

Validity of "the Survey of Personal Values was developed through the use of factor analysis" and determining the "reasonableness of relationships between it and other measures." (Gordon) According to the two methods as pointed out by Gordon "the SPV scales may be considered to represent reliable, discreet categories and, in this sense, can be said to have factor validity."

**Population.** Two populations were involved in testing hypothesis one. One population consisted of successful interns and the other population consisted of non-successful interns. Each population was partitioned into three sub-groups, each according to the three internship categories. These internship categories were: \( T-I, O-M, \) and \( PS. \) Of the 213 interns, 138 were identified as successful interns. Seventy-five interns were identified as non-successful or in other words, receiving a PER score equal to or less than the national norm established for that instrument. Of the 138 successful interns, 12 were \( T-I, \) 40 were \( O-M, \) and 86 were \( PS. \) The 75 non-successful interns were partitioned into three sub-groups consisting of 16 \( T-I \) interns, 24 \( O-M \) interns, and 35 \( PS \) interns.

**Instrument administration.** The SPV was administered to all fall semester 1973-1974 PEP interns. Two exceptions, however, did exist. Interns having completed less than two weeks of their internship were not included in the master list. Interns moving from the district were also deleted from the list. The master
list included the intern's name, the intern's supervisor, the intern's performance site, and the internship title and code.

The internship code was used to indicate and identify the three population sub-groups. The code, along with the intern's name, the internship site, and the intern supervisor were placed on the instruments by secretarial staff. The internship site was then used as a grouping identifier which resulted in ten groups. These groups represent the internship sites consisting of five elementary schools, one middle school, one junior high school, one high school, one administration building, and one group designated as out-of-system internship sites.

Prior to administering the instrument a total of four announcements were made through the high school public address system. These announcements indicated the forthcoming meeting of all current interns. A final announcement was made prior to the first class period of the instrument administration day. Students were instructed to report to the high school auditorium. Upon arriving, they were then instructed to sit in groups according to their internship site designation. The instruments were then distributed to the interns with the instructions to keep the instrument face down. At the signal of the administrator, the instruments were turned face up. The interns then read the instructions silently while the administrator read them aloud.

At the conclusion of the first testing session, 163 interns had completed the SPV. A second session was planned and announced for the next day. At the end of that session, an additional 33 interns had completed the SPV which then totaled 196 of the 213 interns. The remaining 17 interns were called to the
Data analysis. In order to test hypothesis one the difference between personal values means of successful interns and personal values of non-successful interns was calculated. In order to deal with the question, each of the six SPV value scores was considered a separate variable and each of the three internship groups was considered an independent population sub-group. Data analysis was thereafter facilitated by arranging data into three categories each containing six sets of double variable columns. T-I, O-M, and PS were the sub-groups which constituted the three categories and the six variable sets were successful/non-successful scores for each of the six SPV value indicators.

Hypothesis one with related sub and null hypotheses were:

\( H_1 \): Personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns.

\( H_{1A} \): Personal values of successful T-I interns are different from personal values of non-successful T-I interns.

\( H_{01A(P)} \): There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, \( \mu_{IA(P)} = \mu_{IA(P)2} \).

\( H_{01A(A)} \): There is no difference between achievement means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, \( \mu_{IA(A)} = \mu_{IA(A)2} \).

\( H_{01A(V)} \): There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, \( \mu_{IA(V)} = \mu_{IA(V)2} \).

\( H_{01A(D)} \): There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, \( \mu_{IA(D)} = \mu_{IA(D)2} \).
There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, $\mu_{IA(O)}^1 = \mu_{IA(O)}^2$.

There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful T-I interns, $\mu_{IA(G)}^1 = \mu_{IA(G)}^2$.

Personal values of successful O-M interns are different from personal values of non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(P)}^1 = \mu_{IB(P)}^2$.

There is no difference between achievement means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(A)}^1 = \mu_{IB(A)}^2$.

There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(V)}^1 = \mu_{IB(V)}^2$.

There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(D)}^1 = \mu_{IB(D)}^2$.

There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(O)}^1 = \mu_{IB(O)}^2$.

There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful O-M interns, $\mu_{IB(G)}^1 = \mu_{IB(G)}^2$.

Personal values of successful PS interns are different from personal values of non-successful PS interns.

There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful PS interns, $\mu_{IC(P)}^1 = \mu_{IC(P)}^2$.

There is no difference between achievement means of
successful and non-successful PS interns, \( \mu_{IC(A)} = \mu_{IC(A)} \).

\[ H_{0IC(V)}: \text{There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful PS interns, } \mu_{IC(V)} \neq \mu_{IC(V)}. \]

\[ H_{0IC(D)}: \text{There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful PS interns, } \mu_{IC(D)} \neq \mu_{IC(D)}. \]

\[ H_{0IC(O)}: \text{There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful PS interns, } \mu_{IC(O)} \neq \mu_{IC(O)}. \]

\[ H_{0IC(G)}: \text{There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful PS interns, } \mu_{IC(G)} \neq \mu_{IC(G)}. \]

Since two variables with interval data existed, the t-test was selected as the analytical method. Data for each null hypothesis were subjected to the t-test through the use of the Genesee Intermediate School District computer.

**Hypothesis two**

Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

**Instrument.** The Survey of Personal Values by Gordon (1967), was used to identify personal value preferences.

**Population.** One population with three sub-groups was involved in the testing of hypothesis two. Successful interns constituted the population. Successful interns partitioned by internship area constituted the sub-groups.

**Instrument administration.** The Survey of Personal Values was the same instrument used for the testing of hypothesis one; therefore, its administration
was described during the coverage of hypothesis one.

**Data analysis.** In order to test hypothesis two the difference between value score means was calculated as they occur by internship area. From this hypothesis, six sub-hypotheses were generated. Hypothesis two with the six sub-hypotheses stated in the null form were:

\[ H_{II} \: \text{Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.} \]

\[ H_{0II(P)}: \text{There is no difference between practical mindedness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(P)}A = \mu_{II(P)}B = \mu_{II(P)}C. \]

\[ H_{0II(A)}: \text{There is no difference between achievement means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(A)}A = \mu_{II(A)}B = \mu_{II(A)}C. \]

\[ H_{0II(V)}: \text{There is no difference between variety means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(V)}A = \mu_{II(V)}B = \mu_{II(V)}C. \]

\[ H_{0II(D)}: \text{There is no difference between decisiveness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(D)}A = \mu_{II(D)}B = \mu_{II(D)}C. \]

\[ H_{0II(O)}: \text{There is no difference between orderliness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(O)}A = \mu_{II(O)}B = \mu_{II(O)}C. \]

\[ H_{0II(G)}: \text{There is no difference between goal orientation means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns,} \ \mu_{II(G)}A = \mu_{II(G)}B = \mu_{II(G)}C. \]

Data analysis was facilitated by arranging the data into three categories (T-I, O-M, PS), each containing six sets (six SPV value indicators) of three variable columns (SPV value means). The object was to determine if there were differences between the three means of each of the six sets for the three categories.
Since three variables with interval data existed, the one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was selected as the hypothesis testing method. Subsequent data for hypotheses two null hypotheses were subjected to the ANOVA through the use of the Genesee Intermediate School District computer.

As a result of rejection of null hypotheses in ANOVA one knows that there is a difference between at least two means, but one knows nothing about which population means involved in the analysis differ from which other population means (Glass & Stanley, 1970). If a null hypothesis of no differences in an ANOVA was rejected, a multiple comparison procedure was used to test the specific hypothesis. Since the sub-groups of hypothesis two had unequal n's, the Sheffé method was incorporated whenever null hypotheses were rejected (Glass & Stanley, 1970).
CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to determine whether or not there is a relationship between personal values and internship success of successful high school practical experience students. From the question two major hypotheses were generated. They were:

1. Personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns.

2. Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

Each of these hypotheses in turn generated experimental hypotheses. Three sub-hypotheses each with six additional sub-hypotheses were related to hypothesis one, while six sub-hypotheses were related to hypothesis two. Hypothesis one null treatments were grouped and presented in table form for each of the three intern categories. However, treatments of the six null hypotheses of hypothesis two were presented in six separate tables.

Null hypotheses were rejected if the statistical analysis showed that differences observed would be likely to occur due to error variance only 5% or less of the time if the null hypothesis was true. Probability levels in all tables were reported as p. = .05, p. = .01, or as n.s. (not significant) if the probability
level of observing tested differences due to error variance was more than .05. All tables listed the critical ratios which must have been achieved in order to reach the .05 and .01 probability levels. These levels were determined by reference to Glass and Stanley (1970) -- t-distribution and F-distribution tables. All tables listed the critical ratios which must have been achieved in order to reach the .05 and .01 probability levels.

All 18 null hypotheses related to hypothesis one were tested through the use of the two-tail t-test for independent variables. The null hypotheses related to hypothesis two, however, were tested through the use of the one-factor analysis of variance and the S-method of multiple comparison.

Findings

Hypothesis one

Hypothesis one proposed that the personal values of successful interns are different from the personal values of non-successful interns. Of the 18 null hypotheses generated to facilitate data treatment, six were established for the T-I intern category, six for the O-M intern category, and six for the PS intern category. Each of the six null hypotheses in each intern category dealt with a different SPV value indicator. The two variables compared were SPV value score means of successful and non-successful interns as identified by intern category.

Presentation of findings regarding the null hypotheses were organized around each of the three intern categories. Null hypotheses grouped in these
areas of emphasis were stated and the findings summarized for the particular group of null hypotheses.

Data used for examining the relationship of successful T-1 intern value score means and non-successful T-1 intern value scores were gathered from 16 successful T-1 interns and 12 non-successful T-1 interns. Successful/non-successful identification was made by the intern's supervisor through the use of PER. Null hypotheses for T-1 category grouping were:

\[ H_{01A(P)} \] There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

\[ H_{01A(A)} \] There is no difference between achievement means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

\[ H_{01A(V)} \] There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

\[ H_{01A(D)} \] There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

\[ H_{01A(O)} \] There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

\[ H_{01A(G)} \] There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful T-1 interns.

Analysis of data collected to test the null hypotheses of no difference between value means scores of successful and non-successful T-1 interns as summarized in Table I indicated that:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables investigated</th>
<th>Successful interns</th>
<th>Non-successful interns</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N M S.D.</td>
<td>N M S.D. t p</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical mindedness</td>
<td>16 17.44 3.52</td>
<td>12 16.75 3.67 -1.57 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement</td>
<td>16 15.56 3.92</td>
<td>12 15.92 4.03 -0.23 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety</td>
<td>16 15.44 7.66</td>
<td>12 13.75 5.36 0.65 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decisiveness</td>
<td>26 12.44 3.10</td>
<td>12 12.08 4.32 0.22 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orderliness</td>
<td>16 15.19 4.43</td>
<td>12 13.58 4.36 0.95 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal orientation</td>
<td>16 13.94 5.05</td>
<td>12 27.00 4.35 -1.68 n.s.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Difference in practical mindedness means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01A}(P) \) was not rejected.

2. Difference in achievement means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01A}(A) \) was not rejected.

3. Difference in variety means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not rejected. \( H_{01A}(V) \) was not rejected.

4. Difference in decisiveness means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01A}(D) \) was not rejected.

5. Difference in orderliness means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01A}(O) \) was not rejected.

6. Difference in goal orientation means as scored by successful and non-successful T-L interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01A}(G) \) was not rejected.

Data used for examining the relationship of successful O-M intern value scores and non-successful O-M interns value scores were gathered from 40 successful O-M interns and 24 non-successful O-M interns. Successful/non-successful identification was made by the intern's supervisor through the use of PER. Null hypotheses for O-M category grouping were:
There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between achievement means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful O-M interns.

Results of the statistical analysis of data to test the null hypotheses of no difference between value mean scores of successful and non-successful O-M interns as summarized in Table 2 indicated that:

1. The difference in practical mindedness means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IB(P)}$ was not rejected.

2. Difference in achievement means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IB(A)}$ was not rejected.

3. Difference in variety means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IB(V)}$ was not rejected.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables investigated</th>
<th>Successful interns</th>
<th>Non-successful interns</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(P)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(P)] = \mu_{\beta}[B(Y)]^2$ practical mindedness</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.28</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(A)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(A)] \neq \mu_{\beta}[B(Y)]$ achievement</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.28</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(V)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(V)] = \mu_{\beta}[B(Y)]$ variety</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12.38</td>
<td>7.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(D)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(D)] = \mu_{\beta}[B(G)]$ decisiveness</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>5.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(O)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(O)] = \mu_{\beta}[B(G)]$ orderliness</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.03</td>
<td>6.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0\beta}[B(G)]$: $\mu_{\beta}[B(G)] = \mu_{\beta}[B(G)]$ goal orientation</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17.25</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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4. Difference in decisiveness means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was great enough to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. H_{0IB(D)} was, therefore, rejected with respective means indicating that successful O-M interns placed less emphasis on decisiveness than non-successful O-M interns placed on the same value.

5. Difference in orderliness means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was not great enough to be significant. H_{0IB(O)} was not rejected.

6. Difference in orderliness means as scored by successful and non-successful O-M interns was not great enough to be significant. H_{0IB(G)} was not rejected.

Data used for examining the relationship of successful and non-successful PS intern value scores were gathered from 86 successful PS interns and 35 non-successful PS interns. Successful/non-successful identification was made by the intern's supervisor through the use of PER. Null hypotheses for O-M category grouping were:

- H_{0IC(P)}: There is no difference between practical mindedness means of successful and non-successful PS interns.
- H_{0IC(A)}: There is no difference between achievement means of successful and non-successful PS interns.
- H_{0IC(V)}: There is no difference between variety means of successful and non-successful PS interns.
There is no difference between decisiveness means of successful and non-successful PS interns.

There is no difference between orderliness means of successful and non-successful PS interns.

There is no difference between goal orientation means of successful and non-successful PS interns.

Analysis of the statistical tests of no difference between value mean scores of successful and non-successful PS interns as summarized in Table 3 indicated that:

1. Difference in practical mindedness means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was great enough to be significant at the .01 level of confidence. $H_{0IC(P)}$ was, therefore, rejected with the respective means indicating that successful PS interns placed less emphasis on practical mindedness than non-successful PS interns placed on the same value.

2. Difference in achievement means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IC(A)}$ was not rejected.

3. Difference in variety means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IC(V)}$ was not rejected.

4. Difference in decisiveness means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was not great enough to be significant. $H_{0IC(D)}$ was not rejected.
Table 3
The Relationship of Values Between Successful and Non-successful PS Interns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables investigated</th>
<th>Successful interns</th>
<th>Non-successful interns</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(P)}$: $\mu_{IC(P)} = \mu_{IC(P)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical mindedness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(A)}$: $\mu_{IC(A)} = \mu_{IC(A)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>16.79</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(V)}$: $\mu_{IC(V)} = \mu_{IC(V)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.13</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(D)}$: $\mu_{IC(D)} = \mu_{IC(D)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.28</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decisiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(O)}$: $\mu_{IC(O)} = \mu_{IC(O)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14.41</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orderliness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0 I C(G)}$: $\mu_{IC(G)} = \mu_{IC(G)}$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Difference in decisiveness means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was great enough to be significant at the .01 level of confidence. \( H_{01C(O)} \) was, therefore, rejected with respective means indicating that successful PS interns placed more emphasis on decisiveness than non-successful PS interns placed on the same value.

6. Difference in goal orientation means as scored by successful and non-successful PS interns was not great enough to be significant. \( H_{01C(G)} \) was not rejected.

Hypothesis two

Hypothesis two suggested that successful interns possess personal values which are unique to their particular internship area. Six null hypotheses were generated to facilitate data treatment. Each null hypothesis dealt with three variables which were the means of a particular SPV personal value as computed for the three intern categories. The data was then partitioned according to the six value indicators.

Data used for examining the relationship between personal values and intern category were gathered from interns who were identified by their supervisor as being successful. There were 16 T-I interns, 40 O-M interns, and 86 PS interns.

Table 4 contains a summary of the results of the ANOVA used to compute \( H_{01I(P)} \) that there is no difference between practical mindedness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.
Table 4
Relationship of Practical Mindedness Means of T-I, O-M, and PS Interns

\[ H_{0II}(P): \mu_{II}(P)A = \mu_{II}(P)B = \mu_{II}(P)C \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practical Mindedness</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.44</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14.28</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>0.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>0.517</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>203.375</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>101.688</td>
<td>4.742</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>2,980.836</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>21.444</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,184.211</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An examination of the results indicated a significant difference between at least two of the T-I, O-M, and PS intern practical mindedness means. Therefore, \( H_{0II}(P) \) was rejected. T-I interns were identified through the S-method of multiple comparisons as being different from O-M and PS interns. An observation of O-M and PS intern means revealed little difference. It should also be noted that T-I interns placed more emphasis on practical mindedness than O-M and PS interns placed on the same value. The variance found was significant at the .01 level of confidence which indicates that results of this nature could be expected by chance only five times out of one hundred.
Contained within Table 5 is a summary of the results of the ANOVA used to compute $H_{0II}(A)$ that there is no difference between achievement means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship of Achievement Means of T-I, O-M, and PS Interns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_{0II}(A)$: $\mu_{II}(A)A = \mu_{II}(A)B = \mu_{II}(A)C$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.563</td>
<td>3.915</td>
<td>0.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.275</td>
<td>5.373</td>
<td>0.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.791</td>
<td>4.645</td>
<td>0.501</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>22.125</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.063</td>
<td>0.499</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>3,083.020</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>22.170</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,105.145</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results indicated that there were no significant findings. In fact, an examination of the achievement means of the three intern groups revealed that there was little difference among them. However, the means suggested that achievement ranked high in comparison to the remaining five SPV values. Although not significant, it should be noted that O-M interns placed greater emphasis on achievement than T-I and PS interns placed on the same value.
Table 6 offers the results of the ANOVA used to test $H_{0II(V)}$ that there is no difference between variety means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.

### Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variety</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.437</td>
<td>7.659</td>
<td>1.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12.375</td>
<td>7.113</td>
<td>1.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.128</td>
<td>7.530</td>
<td>0.812</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>82.859</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>41.430</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>8,067.633</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>58.041</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,150.493</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspection of the findings indicated that there was no significant difference between variety means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns. However, even though not significantly different, of the three intern groups, T-I interns placed the greater emphasis on variety.

Table 7 illustrates the results of ANOVA used to test $H_{0II(D)}$ that there is no difference between decisiveness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.
Table 7

Relationship of Decisiveness Means of T-I, O-M, and PS Interns

\[ H_{0III(D)}: \mu_{II(D)A} = \mu_{II(D)B} = \mu_{II(D)C} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decisiveness</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.437</td>
<td>3.910</td>
<td>0.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13.000</td>
<td>5.013</td>
<td>0.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.280</td>
<td>4.629</td>
<td>0.499</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>205.504</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>102.752</td>
<td>4.697</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>3,041.004</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>21.878</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,246.508</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From an examination of the data, it was evident that there was a significant difference between at least two of the T-I, O-M, PS intern decisiveness means at the .01 level of confidence. Therefore, \( H_{0III(D)} \) was rejected. The resulting S-method of multiple comparisons identified PS interns as being the one differing group. This difference identified decisiveness as a major value unique to PS interns since the decisiveness mean was larger for PS interns than T-I and O-M means.

Exhibited within Table 8 is a summary of the results of the ANOVA used to test the \( H_{0III(O)} \) that there is no difference between orderliness means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.
Table 8

Relationship of Orderliness Means of T-I, O-M, and PS Interns

\[ H_{0II(O)}: \mu_{II(O)}A = \mu_{II(O)}B = \mu_{II(O)}C \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables investigated</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.188</td>
<td>4.430</td>
<td>1.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15.625</td>
<td>6.404</td>
<td>1.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14.407</td>
<td>5.457</td>
<td>0.588</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>42.668</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21.334</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>4,424.359</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>31.830</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,467.027</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When data were analyzed, no difference was found between T-I, O-M, and PS intern means. In fact, very little variance existed. However, the means indicated that orderliness ranked high in comparison to the remaining five SPV values.

Displayed within Table 9 is a summary of the data regarding \( H_{0II(G)} \) that there is no difference between goal orientation means of T-I, O-M, and PS interns.

An examination of the results suggested that the difference between T-I, O-M, and PS goal orientation means was not significant at the .05 or .01
Table 9

Relationship of Goal Orientation Means of T-I, O-M, and PS Interns

\[ H_0: \mu_{I(G)} = \mu_{II(G)} = \mu_{III(G)} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables investigated</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T-I interns</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.938</td>
<td>5.052</td>
<td>1.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-M interns</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17.250</td>
<td>4.567</td>
<td>0.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS interns</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>16.965</td>
<td>5.160</td>
<td>0.556</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>147.152</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>73.576</td>
<td>2.745</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>3,725.523</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>26.802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,872.675</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, two situations must be noted — the difference would be significant at the .07 level and goal orientation means were larger as scored by O-M and PS interns than most other SPV value means.

Summary

**Hypothesis one**

T-I interns. All six null hypotheses dealing with the relationship of values between successful and non-successful T-I interns yielded no significant findings. Examination of means indicated no identifiable mean trends. The order
of importance T-I interns placed on the six SPV values was: practical mindedness, $M = 17.44$; achievement, $M = 15.56$; variety, $M = 15.44$; orderliness, $M = 15.19$; goal orientation, $M = 13.94$; and decisiveness, $M = 12.44$.

O-M interns. One of the six null hypotheses dealing with the relationship of values between successful and non-successful O-M interns yielded a significant finding. Decisiveness was considered to be of less value to successful O-M interns than non-successful O-M interns. In addition, decisiveness value had a mean score which indicated a low position of importance. The order of importance O-M interns placed on the six SPV values was: goal orientation, $M = 17.25$; achievement, $M = 16.28$; orderliness, $M = 15.68$; practical mindedness, $M = 14.28$; decisiveness, $M = 13.00$; and variety, $M = 12.38$.

PS interns. Analysis of the relationship of values between successful and non-successful PS interns resulted in two differences which were significant. Of successful and non-successful PS interns, successful PS interns placed significantly less emphasis on practical mindedness and significantly more emphasis on decisiveness. Significance in both cases was at the .01 level. It should be noted however, that practical mindedness and decisiveness value means for successful PS interns were neither the highest nor the lowest of the six SPV value means. Mean scores listed from the highest to lowest were: goal orientation, $M = 16.97$; achievement, $M = 16.79$; decisiveness, $M = 15.28$; orderliness, $M = 14.41$; practical mindedness, $M = 13.56$; and variety, $M = 13.13$. 

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Hypothesis two

Practical mindedness. Practical mindedness was identified as a value of major importance to T-I interns. The mean was high in comparison to all other SPV means and was significantly different at the .01 level from O-M and PS intern practical mindedness means.

Achievement. Achievement was not a value unique to a particular category. However, T-I, O-M, and PS interns placed a relatively high importance on the value of achievement.

Variety. Variety was not unique to a particular intern category at the .05 or .01 level of significance. It was observed, however, that T-I interns' variety mean was notably higher than variety means achieved by O-M and PS interns.

Decisiveness. Decisiveness, as a high rated value, was unique to PS interns. The difference was significant at the .01 level. T-I and O-M interns gave decisiveness a low rating.

Orderliness. No significant differences were found between T-I, O-M, and PS intern orderliness means. Orderliness was, therefore, not a value unique to a particular intern category. Of the three groups, T-I and O-M interns considered orderliness one of the more important values.

Goal orientation. Goal orientation was not significantly unique to an intern category at the .05 or .01 level of confidence. Mean differences were sufficiently different, however, to note that O-M and PS interns had a strong
leaning toward goal orientation. T-I interns indicated a minor concern for goal orientation.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter will: (1) provide a brief description of the purpose and design of the study, (2) summarize and discuss the findings, (3) present conclusions drawn from the findings, and (4) present a brief discussion of the implications of the findings.

Summary

The specific purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between personal values and internship success of high school practical experience students.

Two and one-half million students leave school each year without adequate preparation for careers. This flood of inadequately prepared manpower has been a major source of economic, political, and social instability. Perplexed by the emotionalism which has been generated concerning the school's role for career preparation, educators have long sought to discover a solution to adequate career preparation.

A review of literature indicated that the problem of inadequate career preparation of high school graduates may be attributed to a deficiency in occupational and decision-making skills. Various authors have made specific comments regarding these two areas and their relationship. According to Marland (1971),

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the student should be equipped "... occupationally, academically, and emotionally to spin off from the system at whatever point he chooses (p. 3)." The Education Policies Commission (1944) stated that all youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings or attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. Barlow (1967) indicated that the school must assist students by providing on-site, practical experiences. Heathers (1959) indicated that the student could be assisted in deciding among various practical experiences if he first identified his personal preferences. Gordon (1967) stated that, "A person's values may determine to a large degree what he does or how well he performs. His immediate decisions and his life goals are influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by his value systems (p. 1)."

In an effort to test the above mentioned ideas, the author established a practical experience program in the Kearsley Community School District, Flint, Michigan. The program (Appendix A) incorporated career internships and value based decision-making. At the conclusion of the first program year, this study was initiated to test the relationship between personal values and internship success.

The two hypotheses generated were:

1. Personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns.

2. Successful interns possess personal values which are unique to an internship area.

Each of these hypotheses in turn generated various null hypotheses. Eighteen
null hypotheses were related to hypothesis two.

The subjects for this study consisted of all 213, 1973-1974 winter semester Kearsley Practical Experience Program interns and their respective supervisors. Interns were partitioned into three groups according to type of internship — Technical-Industrial (T-I), Office-Media (O-M), and Personal Service (PS). Intern supervisors categorized successful and non-successful interns through the use of the Performance Evaluation Review (General Research Corporation, 1970). Intern personal values were identified by the Survey of Personal Values (Gordon, 1967). The six values were: practical mindedness, achievement, variety, decisiveness, orderliness, and goal orientation. Once the data were gathered they were analyzed through the use of the Genesee Intermediate School District computer. The statistical tests used to analyze the data consisted of the t-test for hypothesis one and the one-way analysis of variance for hypothesis two.

General Findings

Hypothesis one

Hypothesis one with its 18 inherent null hypotheses proposed that personal values of successful interns are different from personal values of non-successful interns. Six of the null hypotheses compared the six SPV values of T-I interns, six compared values of O-M interns, and six compared values of PS interns. Data for hypothesis one were analyzed and findings organized according to intern category.
T-I interns. No significant differences were found between successful T-I interns and non-successful T-I interns with regard to each of the six SPV personal values. Examination of the means, however indicated the order of importance T-I interns placed on each of the SPV values. That ordering was: practical mindedness, 17.44; achievement, 15.56; variety, 15.44; orderliness, 15.19; goal orientation, 13.94; and decisiveness, 12.44. T-I interns appeared to favor practical mindedness, achievement, and variety.

O-M interns. Decisiveness was the only value for which a significant difference existed between successful and non-successful O-M interns. Decisiveness was of less value to successful interns than non-successful interns. It also appeared that successful O-M interns placed relatively low value on decisiveness. The order of importance placed on the six SPV values was: goal orientation, 17.25; achievement, 16.28; orderliness, 15.03; practical mindedness, 14.28; decisiveness, 13.00; variety, 12.38. These means indicated that O-M interns value goal orientation, achievement, and orderliness.

PS interns. Analysis of the relationship of values between successful and non-successful PS interns resulted in two differences which were significant. Of the two PS intern groups successful PS interns placed significantly less emphasis on practical mindedness and significantly more emphasis on decisiveness. Significance in both cases was at the .01 level. It should be noted however, that practical mindedness and decisiveness value means for successful PS interns were neither the highest nor the lowest of the six SPV value means. Mean scores from highest to lowest were: goal orientation, 16.97; achievement, 16.79; decisiveness,
15.28; orderliness, 14.41; practical mindedness, 13.56; and variety, 13.13. PS interns appeared to value goal orientation, achievement, and decisiveness more than orderliness, practical mindedness, and variety.

**Hypothesis two**

Hypothesis two with its six related null hypotheses suggested that successful interns possess personal values which are unique to a particular internship area. Each of the six null statements referred to one of the six SPV values as compared between the three intern groups.

**Practical mindedness.** Practical mindedness was identified as a value of major importance to T-I interns. The mean was high in comparison to all other SPV means and was significantly different at the .01 level from O-M and PS intern practical mindedness means.

**Achievement.** Achievement was not a value unique to a particular intern category. However, T-I, O-M and PS interns placed a relatively high importance on the value of achievement.

**Variety.** Variety was not unique to a particular intern category at the .05 or .01 level of significance. It was observed, however, that T-I interns' variety mean was notably higher than variety means achieved by O-M and PS interns.

**Decisiveness.** Decisiveness, as a high rated value, was unique to PS interns. The difference was significant at the .01 level. T-I and O-M interns gave decisiveness a low rating.
Orderliness. No significant differences were found between T-l, O-M, and PS intern orderliness means. Orderliness was, therefore, not a value unique to a particular intern category. Of the three groups, T-l and O-M interns considered orderliness one of the more important values.

Goal orientation. Goal orientation was not significantly unique to an intern category at the .05 or .01 level of confidence. Mean differences were sufficiently different, however, to note that O-M and PS interns had a strong leaning toward goal orientation. T-l interns indicated a minor concern for goal orientation.

Conclusions

Hypothesis one

1. It would appear, from the findings, that in the majority of cases there is little or no SPV value difference between successful and non-successful Kearsley Practical Experience Program interns.

2. Less value seems to be placed on decisiveness by successful O-M interns than by non-successful O-M interns.

3. Successful and non-successful interns differ in their tendencies toward practical mindedness. Successful O-M interns appear to be less practical minded than non-successful O-M interns.

4. Decisiveness plays a greater role in the lives of successful PS interns than in the lives of non-successful PS interns.
5. T-l interns seem to place much value on practical mindedness. They also tend to desire achievement, variety, and orderliness.

6. Goal orientation plays a major role in the lives of successful O-M interns. Achievement and orderliness, even though less important than goal orientation, appear to influence successful O-M interns.

7. Goal orientation and achievement seem to be of similarly high importance to successful PS interns. Decisiveness also appears to play an influential role in the lives of successful PS interns even though it is less than goal orientation and achievement.

**Hypothesis two**

1. Practical mindedness appears to be of major importance to successful T-l interns and not to successful O-M and PS interns. T-l interns desire to take good care of property, get full use out of possessions, and get money's worth.

2. Achievement, based upon the findings, is not unique to any particular intern group. However, all three intern groups apparently place a relatively high importance on the value. Achievement oriented interns enjoy working on difficult problems, desire a challenge, and strive to accomplish something significant. The favorable achievement rating by the three intern groups may indicate that an internship represented a challenge, etc., and therefore attracted achievement oriented students.

3. Variety is not significantly unique to a particular intern group even though the successful T-l intern variety mean was notably higher than variety
means achieved by successful O-M and PS interns.

4. Decisiveness, as a high rated value, is unique to successful PS interns. Successful T-I and O-M interns place little value on decisiveness. PS interns seem to have strong convictions, come to the point, and make their position clear. They desire people related work and some type of leadership role.

5. Orderliness is not unique to any particular intern group.

6. Goal orientation is not unique to any particular intern group. However, successful O-M and PS interns exhibit favorable tendencies toward goal orientation while successful T-I interns indicate a minor concern for this value.

General conclusions

In general, this study identified few differences in SPV values between successful and non-successful interns. However, some SPV values were found to be unique to a particular internship area. Four areas of concern related to these findings may be considered.

The first consideration is based upon the relationship of values to successful performance. Gordon, Katzell, and others maintain that job satisfaction and how well a person performs are directly related to the person's values. However, it would appear from the findings of this study that there are few cases where there is significant relationship between SPV values and successful internship performance as evaluated by intern supervisors. It would seem then that values have little bearing on internship success and non-success or, additional variables and or different research designs should be incorporated in this type of research.
The second consideration is based upon the theoretical definitions and states of values. Rokeach, Roth, Mace, and others indicate that values are constant. However, Payne, Mazur, and others contend that values are in a continual state of flux and particularly so during one's formative years. The findings related to hypothesis two which state that there are values unique to a particular internship area may relate to both of the above mentioned positions on values. T-I and PS internship groups have at least one value unique to their particular group; O-M interns don't. This may indicate that values are becoming fixed and constant during the high school years, but are still somewhat flexible.

The third consideration is one of study design. The cut-off point between successful and non-successful interns may have an effect on the results of the study. It is possible that a raising or lowering of this point may reveal statistically significant differences.

The fourth consideration may also be one of design. Three internship categories were used. These may have been too broad and caused an overlapping of internship (occupational) characteristics. The United States Office of Education suggests 15 occupational clusters. Perhaps the use of these 15 clusters would significantly effect research findings.

It is the opinion of the author that based upon the findings of this study little can be said about the relationship between values and successful and non-successful intern performance. However, the findings dealing with uniqueness of values to internship area may be causiously used in the student decision-making and counseling for internship exploration. It is also believed that further research
based upon the suggestions of this study may identify additional differences between successful and non-successful interns and may indicate additional areas of uniqueness between values and internship categories.

Implications

This study provides educational leaders with the results of an empirical investigation of personal values and success of high school practical experience program interns. The findings should have implications for future education program establishment and research.

This study implies that students may be assisted in selecting an internship through the administration and discussion of the Survey of Personal Values. These findings also imply that an intern threatened with a non-successful experience may be assisted in recognizing value-performance conflicts through the administration of the SPV.

An awareness of the possible effects of values on decision-making and performance may indicate to educational leaders a need for facilitating student value clarification and decision-making.

This study implies that there is a need for further research in the area of the value and internship performance relationship. Some relationships have been identified. However, various questions arise that need to be answered. Will the results differ if the study is replicated with different populations? Will the results differ if the success/non-success criteria are changed? What effect would occur with the addition of variables such as age, G.P.A., grade level, parent
occupation, race, socioeconomic level, and parent education level?
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REFERENCES


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Kearsley Practical Experience Program is more than teacher aids and co-operative education. It is a multi-component program which involves college bound and non-college bound students in selecting, exploring and participating in a wide variety of comprehensive career areas. Ninth through twelfth grade students are trying on-site life activities.

The District

Kearsley Community School District (suburban Flint) has a student enrollment of over 5,400 students of which 1,427 are high school students. The district has one high school, one junior high school, one middle school and five elementary schools. The growth pattern of the district is stable. The district is predominately populated by people who are white, who have migrated from the Southern United States and depend on the General Motors plants of the Flint area for their livelihood. The community is basically conservative and supports the school system. Thirty percent of the graduates enter college or some form of post high school training while 70% of the graduates enter the job market.
Assessment and Resolutions

Recent district surveys of current and graduated high school student opinions led to the conclusion that:

- Students do not feel that their high school education has been relevant to their post high school needs
- Students feel that they have limited opportunity to practically apply their academic knowledge
- Students feel that there are too few opportunities for people of all types to come together in serving one another
- Students feel inadequate in making appropriate decisions prior to and upon high school graduation

Desiree Wellsted, student senate president and office intern, summed up general student body feeling when she said, "The classroom and books are fine and needed; however, we also need the opportunity to get out and obtain different applicable experiences that will help us determine the career we desire. In many instances students lose interest and drop out of high school because we are not obtaining these experiences. We feel that high school is a time that should provide the opportunity for us to make mistakes and decisions before they cause us any future financial loss."

Kearsley Superintendent, Edward Hintz, recommended that the Board of Education take a long hard look at the educational process within the district. From the resulting assessment the Board agreed on the following resolutions:

- District-wide goals and performance objectives shall be established
- Every high school student shall have the opportunity of practical application of knowledge, comprehensive career exploration and service giving
A placement center for both college bound and vocational bound students shall be created.

A committee was established to examine the curriculum. This examination showed that in order to accomplish the task at hand, goals would have to be established throughout all levels of curriculum. Goals and performance objectives were formulated and are being integrated into the total educative process.

P.E.P. Components

Practical experience program components were identified and constructed using the goals as a guide. These components are: internships, career seminars, day-on-the-job, part-time work experience with credit, cooperative training education (co-op), and placement center service.

Internship and Extracurricular Activity

An internship (one of two phases) is an on-site, practical, participatory, service-learning experience which relates to a particular career area. Students earn credits outside the classroom on an equal-time, equal-credit basis as classroom participation. Grading is on a pass/fail basis. Students are able to "test out" self and various career areas while learning and before graduation. Students have practical experience in: interviewing, meeting employer standards, working with people, being evaluated by an employer, and evaluating self. Supervisor evaluations and student evaluations are maintained in the student’s file. Future job placement recommendations will be made from this file by the district placement bureau counselor.
The following are some possible internships:

Teaching and related Administration - Management
Mechanics Landscaping
Bus Driving Physical Education
Office - Business Parks & Recreation
Library Science Media
Health Services Hobby Areas
Law Others of student choice

Extracurricular activities participation is the second phase of the internship program. The extracurricular activity is chosen by the student to broaden his/her background. An extracurricular activity may be any activity which:

- Involves more people than self (group)
- Exhibits some organizational structure (planning)
- Does not pay a wage or salary (no income)
- Assists in improving self image (success)

Interns may participate in extracurricular activities at almost any time or any place. They may or may not be connected directly with school. The activity; however, must take place during the internship semester.

All 9th through 12th grade students may apply for internships. Lists of available internships are provided by the school. This does not; however, keep the student from searching out other internships. The student then fills out an application form which goes to the PEP counselors. That application is examined by the counselor while the counselor rates the student according to a pre-established interview form. After the interview the counselor and student discuss the rating. The next interview by the student is with a prospective agency representative and supervisor. At this time the student is again rated during the interview and an indication is made on the interview form whether or not the student is acceptable.
for an internship. The form is returned to the counselor. The student checks with the counselor to see whether or not he/she was accepted. In almost all cases students are accepted for internships. In those rare situations where they are not, the student is invited to work with the counselor to determine the weaknesses that may have caused that student not to be accepted and then encouraged to apply for an internship the next semester.

The student receives pass/fail credit based upon three criteria. They are:

Regular internship attendance (80% minimum)

Participation in extracurricular activity(s) (proposal and report)

Journal maintenance (daily and weekly entries demonstrating analytical and critical thinking)

Internships are generally available during the school day, but may be before or after the school day or even during the summer, if such a need arises. They will generally be:

A two period bloc per day (180 hours per semester)
Five days per week
One semester

Second and third internships may be available.

Internships are available within the school system and with various community agencies. Transportation is provided by the district for in-system interns. Out-of-system interns provide their own transportation at this time.

Supervision for students involved in internships is provided by one full-time counselor, five teachers (coordinators) released from class three hours per week and the supervisor to whom the intern is assigned. Intern problems are worked out

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in most cases by the intern and that intern's supervisor. In-school-system interns will be assisted by the building principal when a problem becomes too complex for the intern and supervisor. Coordinators visit interns and supervisors, read and respond to journals, assist principals with intern problems for in-system interns and work directly with out-of-system interns and work directly with out-of-system intern supervisor. The counselor places interns and works with those having extreme difficulties.

A student with extreme difficulties may choose to transfer to a new internship or drop the internship program completely. If the need is sufficient and is manifest early enough in the semester, the student may transfer to a regular class and still earn credit during the semester. If it is late in the semester, however, and the student cannot be assisted in salvaging the internship, the student is transferred to a study hall, losing credit.

Three competency levels of internships are available to students. Level one is for freshmen and sophomores. These students may register for multiple experience exploration internships. These internships are for the purpose of exploring two or three different occupational areas. The selection of those occupational areas will be made at the beginning of the semester. Level two is for juniors and some seniors. These students may select the single experience exploration which is for in-depth exploration and participation in one occupational area. Level three is for seniors who have satisfied their credit requirements and who demonstrate maturity. They may be allowed the opportunity to register for a full time one semester internship. This allows a student who is desirous of developing a high
level of skills in an occupational area to do so.

One hundred fifty-five students registered for internships during the first semester of the program. One hundred fifty students finished with 145 students receiving credit. Two hundred twenty-five students registered for internships during the second semester. It is projected that 350 students will register for internships the first semester of the second program year.

Kearsley district has responded to the apparent needs of the community and time. One criterion of success is the comments of the persons involved. Some students' comments are:

"One major good point about the internship is it gives me the chance to find out more about myself and what I might wish to do or not do in later life. It gives me a chance to experience something I might have never guessed I would like."

"I've got a lot more confidence in myself when talking in front of large groups."

"After my teaching internship I have definitely made up my mind on not being a teacher. I like the internship because it:

1. Keeps me coming to school
2. Helps me realize what I'd like to do later in life
3. Makes me feel useful
4. Makes me responsible"

A typical parent comment is: "I've seen a completely different attitude in my daughter since she started her internship. I want her to have another one".

Career seminars are available on all grade levels throughout the district. They are basically established so that role models may come into the school representing various occupations.

Day on the job is designed to allow students to examine an occupation through
media and then spend a day on such a job site.

Part-time work experience may provide students with one half credit per semester if the student completes a minimum of 300 hours, keeps a journal with daily entries and weekly summaries and examines that job through the use of a prepared instrument.

Co-op students spend time at a job receiving pay and credit. A related class is required in order to provide pre-vocational training.

Placement assistance is provided for students during their high school years and also after graduation. Two counselors assist the students with placement.

IT'S UP TO US

The possibilities of practical experiences appear to be limitless. PEP has the flexibility to adapt to students' needs. Its growth and effectiveness will be limited only by our abilities to put it to use.

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