

Journal of Vocational and Technical Education

Description of *JVTE*

The *Journal of Vocational and Technical Education*, (*JVTE*) is a non-profit, refereed national publication of Omicron Tau Theta. Manuscripts submitted for consideration should focus on vocational education philosophy, theory, or practice. Comprehensive reviews of literature and reports of research and methodology will be considered. All articles should relate to current issues, cite appropriate literature, and have direct implications for vocational educators. It is possible to use *JVTE* as a forum for discussion of issues in vocational education. Manuscripts should not have been published or be under current consideration for publication by another journal.

The *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, Third Edition (1983), is the standard of style for *JVTE*. Five double-spaced copies of each manuscript to be considered should be sent to the editor without the author's name or affiliation. Articles should be no longer than 20 manuscript pages, including references, tables, and figures. A separate title page should contain: (1) title, (2) institution, and (3) the complete address and telephone number for each author. Footnotes should be avoided. Usually, the content of a footnote can be worked into the text.

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Each manuscript should be accompanied by an annotation not to exceed 150 words. The annotation should be a succinct description of the article.

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Tables should provide only information essential to understanding the article. Reporting the same information in both text and tables should be avoided. In the preparation of tables, the APA guidelines should be followed, including a notation of where in the text the tables should appear. The author is responsible for providing a typed, camera-ready copy of each figure or table on a separate 8 1/2" by 11" sheet of paper. Tables should not be photo-reduced or placed on foldout sheets.

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Editing a professional journal is, of course, challenging and interesting. On the one hand, the editor corresponds with authors – first about the fact that copies of manuscripts have been sent to reviewers, then about the editor's decision (most often to reject with the suggestion to resubmit with revisions and often to accept with minor revisions) and finally about rejection or acceptance for a specific issue. On the other hand, the editor corresponds with reviewers – usually routinely but often about agreed upon deadlines. Perhaps the most demanding task is preparing manuscripts for sending to the publisher. I feel obligated to edit narratives and Mary Jean Evers-Lush checks my work, APA format, etc. before sending an issue to the printer.

Editing three of my four issues has brought to mind some of the same clues I have shared with authors while serving in various other editorial capacities:

Use the same tense throughout unless you have good reason for knowingly changing to another tense.

Do not use a thesaurus to find synonyms. Rather, use nouns, verbs, and modifiers consistently no matter how repetitive. Scholarly writing is not meant to entertain and often must, from the standpoints of lay persons, be boring. Precision, not amusement, is the goal.

Use plurals unless you have just cause to use singulars. Plurals are most often correct because the narrative is not about specific individuals. And plural nouns have the advantage of not requiring singular objects such as he, him, she or her. Plurals are the best tool available for avoiding sexist expression on the one hand and improper grammar (singular noun and plural object) on the other.

If you are not certain that you can write without sex bias, have a competent editor check your stuff.

Use the definitive article *the* only if you are writing about one, singular person, place or thing. Otherwise use a or an or some other construction that does not imply precision you do not mean to imply. (Researchers who say, "I investigated *the* variables which affect ..." appear to be omnipotent. They should delete the and thus imply that only some variables were examined.)

Avoid overstatements by inserting precautions. For example, begin with introductory phrases such as "In only some instances did it seem ..." Numerical or qualitative data must be interpreted cautiously in scholarly writing.

As is true of most issues, this issue contains a wide array of articles. Hillison describes the coalition of unlikely allies who worked together to gain passage of the Smith-Hughes Act and posits that contemporary supporters of workforce education may benefit from similar collaborations. Lakes describes how social welfare reformers in Cincinnati influenced policy makers to establish industrial training programs for females in the Progressive era and posits that contemporary educators should deal head on with inequities in work and school. Shecket reports a study of career plateauing among several categories of technical college employees. Hillis describes different approaches to manufacturing management and parallel insights into educational needs of persons seeking careers in manufacturing. McCannon and Stitt-Gohdes report and analyze secondary business teachers' perceptions of their abilities and motivations, students, teaching environments, professional roles and practices, and teacher preparation.

Please be aware that manuscripts should be submitted to Ron Stadt, Workforce Education and Development, Southern Illinois University, Mail Code 4605, Carbondale, IL 62901-4605.

The Coalition That Supported the Smith-Hughes Act or a Case for Strange Bedfellows

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Synopsis

It took a powerful coalition of unlikely allies to support and gain passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. This coalition had labor interests, manufacturers interests, a professional educators' organization, two political parties, agricultural interests, and home economics interests. It had powerful and interesting individual personalities. The coalition was held together by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, a forerunner of the American Vocational Association. Because of natural antagonisms, the coalition lasted long enough to pass the Act and then disintegrated very quickly. When the selfish differences of the coalition members were put aside, strong Federal vocational legislation was achieved. Contemporary supporters may learn a great deal from such accomplishments.

Many organizations and individuals played influential roles in the coalition that supported passage of the Smith-Hughes Act. An examination of their points of view demonstrated many initially antagonistic perspectives. This article examines the historical perspectives of the prominent agencies and individuals involved and notes how differing points of view were compromised and altered. Several positions had to be moderated in order to establish a successful coalition. If these conflicts, both real and potential, had not been resolved, the Smith-Hughes Act would not have become a reality in 1917.

From 1900 to 1917 a great deal of activity occurred with reference to Federal vocational legislation. More than 30 bills introduced in Congress had implications for vocational education. By 1912 the Page-Wilson Bill proposed support for cooperative extension services and vocational education. By 1914 these were separated with passage of the Smith-Lever Act and creation of the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education. By 1914 it had become obvious that passing a bill providing federal support for vocational education would not be simple. Strong leadership in the Congress, a supportive President, and a powerful coalition were needed.

Members of the Coalition

National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (NSPIE)

The NSPIE was founded in 1906 for the purpose of bringing together the forces interested in supporting passage of federal legislation supporting vocational education (Richards, 1906). Richards went on to report that the organization's members consisted of "... prominent men of affairs, employers, representatives of labor, social students, and educators." Charles Prosser became executive secretary of the NSPIE in 1912 and later served as a member of the 1914 Commission on Aid to Vocational Education. The organization proved to be very politically astute and provided the glue that held the coalition together long enough to ensure passage of the Smith-Hughes Act. After its primary objective

was accomplished, the NSPIE and became a forerunner of the American Vocational Association. The NSPIE was the most important part of the coalition, and in one sense, a microcosm of it.

American Federation of Labor (AFL)

A primary interest of the AFL was to maintain a modestly elitist status for its members, as most were employed in skilled occupations. They wanted to have similar opportunities for their own children. If their children dropped out of school before obtaining high school diplomas, they would probably not be able to obtain skilled jobs. If their children went on to college, they would probably find professional jobs and join the intellectual elite – a group typical AFL members did not trust. A high school education was just right for the typical member's child, and vocational education would encourage that child to stay in school and assist with the development of desired technical skills.

Because of mistrust of private trade school vocational education, leaders of the AFL believed that vocational education should be part of the public school system. Part of the union's concern was that manufacturers might gain control of private trade schools (Lazerson & Grubb, 1974). In 1907 the AFL passed a resolution showing distaste for private trade schools, “... having in mind the experience of many of our national unions with the so-called trade school, which attempted to teach a short cut to trade and which on some occasions was used as a weapon against the trade union movement do not favor any movement having this ulterior object view” (Report of Proceedings, 1907, p. 173).

The AFL passed a resolution at its 1907 convention which stated: “Resolved that we do endorse any policy, or any society or association having for its object the raising of the standard of Industrial Education and the teaching of the higher technique of our various industries” (Report of Proceedings, 1907, p. 173).

Samuel Gompers, the feisty and diminutive president of the AFL, was a strong supporter of vocational education. He wrote editorials supporting it in the *American Federalist* and testified before Congress. In addition, the NSPIE was prepared to have Gompers visit President Woodrow Wilson as soon as any legislation was passed, ensuring the President's support (Minutes, 1915). In order to accomplish all of this support and become a part of the coalition, the AFL had to overcome a natural antagonism with such other coalition members as the United States Chamber of Commerce and the National Association of Manufacturers.

National Education Association (NEA)

Early on the NEA had speakers at its national convention making points such as: “Generally speaking, one-third of our menfolk are in agriculture, and one-third in the non-agricultural productive areas; while two-thirds of our women are in the vocation of homemaking” (Hayes, 1908, p. 1).

As early as 1896, the National Education Association had a department of business education (Wirth, 1980). During its 1907 convention, a committee was appointed to make recommendations at its next annual convention for manual training (Journal, 1910). The Secretary of NEA, D. W. Springer, testified to the 1914 Commission on Vocational Education stating the organization's support of Federal legislation on vocational education (Report, 1914). While publicly supporting the Smith-Hughes Act, the NEA had misgivings about the possibility of a dual school system. In fact, in 1918 the NEA called for repeal of the Smith-Hughes Act if it meant the establishment of a dual school system (“War Platform,” 1918). An even earlier concern was that no educators were appointed as members of the 1914 Commission.

National Association of Manufactures (NAM)

Members of NAM were concerned about the quality and ability level of new employees. In general, the membership considered their new employees to be poorly trained. Both NAM

and its members viewed vocational education as a way of better educating and training new employees.

Eleven years before passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, NAM was asking important questions about industrial education. An example came from the 1907 convention:

Here is an exceedingly important part of the general labor question. Industrial education will transform children's work into play, and at the same time equip the children to do the highly skilled and high salaried work for which we manufacturers now, in a large degree, rely on foreigners, our apprentice system having been virtually abolished in many trades by the labor unions. (Proceedings, 1907, P. 41)

A publication endorsing the Page-Wilson Bill of 1912 made several points about the advantages of Federal support for vocational education. The NAM publication made statements such as: "The whole country is awakening to the imperative need of industrial education" (Federal Aid, 1912, P. 1) and "This country cannot prosper nor be socially sound with only individual states or communities giving proper education. The whole country must give it" (Federal Aid, 1912, p. 1). NAM had to overcome its natural mistrust of Samuel Gompers and the AFL to support publicly funded vocational education.

U. S. Chamber of Commerce

The United States Chamber of Commerce was interested in having a well prepared workforce that would enhance industrial efficiency. As early as 1913, the Chamber passed a resolution supporting Federal support for vocational education.

At its first annual meeting, in January 1913, resolutions were adopted by the National Chamber endorsing Federal aid and encouragement in the establishment of vocational schools of manufacturing, commerce, agriculture, and home economics. The resolutions also endorsed the Page bill in its essential provisions and urged enactment (Referendum, 1916).

In 1916 leaders of the U. S. Chamber conducted a national survey of its membership to determine their thoughts on the topic of Federal support for vocational education. An example was the statement, "The committee recommends liberal Federal appropriations for promotion of vocational education in the United States" (Referendum, 1916, p. 1). The vote on the statement was 831 1/2 votes in favor and 109 1/2 against. The committee concluded that the Chamber was committed to all of the questions submitted to the membership as more than one-third of the members voted and more than two-thirds of the votes cast were in favor of federal support for vocational education (Referendum, 1916).

National Democratic Party

The Democratic Party supported Federal funding for vocational education in delegate-endorsed platform planks at both the 1912 and 1916 conventions. "The Democratic convention passed a strong declaration for national grants to agricultural education, household arts, and industrial training" (Minutes, 1912).

Although Senator Carroll Page of Vermont, a Republican and strong supporter of Federal support for vocational education, introduced what was to be called the Page-Wilson Bill, he was not successful in obtaining support in the U. S. Senate. Page eventually had to trust and turn over Senate leadership to Hoke Smith, a Democrat from Georgia. As a result of Democratic success in the election of 1916, Smith assumed a greater leadership role in the Senate and was more likely to succeed as a member of the majority party. The Smith-Hughes Act was also endorsed by and signed into law by a Democratic President, Woodrow Wilson.

Progressive (Bullmoose) Party

"The Progressive Party endorsed the idea of part-time and continuation schools and favored agricultural education, ..." (Minutes, 1912). The champion of the Bullmoose Party

and its presidential standard-bearer in 1912, Teddy Roosevelt, was a strong supporter of vocational education. While serving as President (and a member of the Republican Party at the time), Roosevelt stated, "Our school system has hitherto been well-nigh wholly lacking on the side of industrial training, of the training which fits a man for the shop and the farm" (Roosevelt, 1907, p. 3). While a member of the Republican Party, Teddy Roosevelt appointed the Country Life Commission which brought further attention to vocational education when it suggested, "... the public schools were asked to incorporate courses in vocational agriculture and nature study in the curricula" (Ellsworth, 1960, p. 168).

American Home Economics Association (AHEA)

The American Home Economics Association was founded for the purpose of securing recognition of subjects related to the home in the curriculum of existing schools and colleges. In 1912 AHEA appointed a committee on legislation whose purpose was to provide guidance to the organization on the issue of Federal support for vocational education (Editorials, 1912).

Mary Schenck Woolman (1916), a member of the AHEA legislative committee and a member of the committee on the Smith-Hughes Bill of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, recommended support with comments such as:

The United States is an increasingly important industrial nation. Success will depend largely on her working people. Neither the public schools nor systems of apprenticeship are meeting the need of adequate education for workers. Therefore the majority are able to obtain only unskilled jobs. Some means must be provided by which the call of the skilled industries must be met. (p. 241)

The Commission gave serious thought to the question of training girls in Home Economics. It was felt that every girl no matter what her future calling was to be, should be prepared for the varied duties of the home as an integral part of general education in the elementary and high school. (p. 245)

One area of concern to AHEA that had to be settled had to do with equal pay for women in vocational education. An early version of the Smith-Hughes Bill provided that the Federal specialists in agriculture and industry would receive salaries of \$7,000 apiece while the specialist in home economics would receive a salary of only \$6,000. When challenged on this point, Senator Hoke Smith commented, "I ... understand that the very ablest teachers of home economics make a salary of but \$5,000 a year ..." and "A great leader of industrial education could take the superintendence of a big plant and command a high salary; his knowledge gives him an opportunity to make more: and my advice was that the very highest salary should be paid to a teacher of home economics ..." (*Congressional Record*, 1916, p. 11874). The final version of the Smith-Hughes Act did not specify salaries for service area specialists.

General Federation of Women's Clubs

In 1914 the General Federation of Women's Clubs asked Charles Prosser to write about vocational education for its membership. In his article Prosser (1914) emphasized such points as a definition of vocational education which included preparation to be intelligent producers of the goods of life – including the understanding of the work done. He viewed general education as preparing people to be intelligent consumers. Prosser went on to emphasize that the nation needed vocational education because the country's prosperity and the well-being of wage earners were at stake. The first suggestion he made to members on how to support the funding of vocational education was to co-operate with other agencies. Prosser described the coalition as, "All kinds of organizations, national, state and local in scope, and commercial, agricultural, civic, social, philanthropic and educational in aim are working at the problem of vocational education" (1914).

Helen Louise Johnson (1915), chair of the home economics department of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, wrote a letter to Alvin Dodd, executive secretary of NSPIE, emphasizing her organization's position on the inclusion of home economics in the Smith-Hughes Bill:

I had a most interesting conversation with the members of the Bureau of Education when in Washington, in relation to the Smith-Hughes Bill, and am glad to report that they are very ready to insert the term home economics where it is omitted from the bill. (p. 1)

One of the things which astonishes me is that after all these years of strenuous work and endeavor on the parts of those who are leading the home economics movement is this common misunderstanding of what we include under this term. Cooking and sewing, as such, are such minor parts of home economics that every endeavor must be used by those who represent this group of subjects to prevent any move which would seem to emphasize the activities of the household as being of major importance, instead of means to a very much greater end, which home economics definitely teaches. (p. 2)

Wallace's Farmer

Before the days of radio and television, a very influential form of mass media was magazines. One prominent rural magazine was *Wallace's Farmer*. This magazine was an early critic of the status quo in public education and supporter of vocational education. For example, "If the director could induce the teacher to lay aside the book and present problems likely to come up in farm life, it would tend to make a good deal better farmers out of the next generation" (A Word, 1908, p. 338).

A suggestion to combine general education and aspects of vocational education was also made:

It would be a great thing for the next generation of farmers if the pupil were taught in the common school a number of terms which they will be obliged to use as farmers hereafter. It is very hard for many a middle aged farmer to get a clear idea of what is meant by protein, carbohydrates, fats, nitrogen free extract, etc. Now, these terms are no harder than many which the pupils learn and which are of no earthly use to them in their every-day lives. (A Word, 1908, P. 338)

Hoard's Dairyman

This influential magazine was published by W. D. Hoard, who served a term as governor of Wisconsin and as a member of the board of trustees of the University of Wisconsin. As early as 1895, Hoard noted a need for vocational education to help prepare farmers:

We are in a strange state, agriculturally speaking, in this country. We have a great army of farmers, and not one in ten thousand has been given the advantage of any special course of study, or systematic course of reading in behalf of his chosen life work. No other business has such a record as that and no other business, except farming, could stand it for a single year. Indeed, the farmer would soon perish at his task were it not a kind Providence does most of the work. May be (*sic*) that is the reason why he believes so little in the advantages of special agricultural study. If he was situated like the carpenter, shoemaker, or blacksmith, having to frame and fashion the outgrowth of his own work, with no intervention of Providence to help him out, in the shape of a "good season," we believe he would be more keenly alive to the cultivation of thought and study. (Hoard, 1895, p. 419)

Farmers Union

In a 1909 publication Barrett noted that the Farmers Union "has led an unprecedented fight within the ranks of its own membership for schools that would train the farmer boys in practical farm science" (p. 89). The Farmers Union was an early supporter of an agricultural

school known as the cotton school. Barrett (1909) noted that Alabama held a most successful cotton school at Auburn in 1907:

The purpose of these cotton schools was to teach the farmers how to grade cotton. Boys from every section of the state in which the school was held flocked in droves to the schools. They were eager to learn. The agitation which had been going on for several months; the debates in the conventions and other meetings of the Union, and numerous newspaper articles, by farmers and others interested in these schools had created a thirst for this kind of knowledge that was little short of marvelous. (p. 91)

At its annual convention in 1912, the Farmers Union endorsed all pending vocational legislation before Congress (Blauch, 1933).

National Grange

The National Grange took stands on education as early as the 1870s. In 1879 the Grange advocated compulsory education (Buck, 1913). Several state Granges worked on educational issues during this decade. Chief among them were Wisconsin, Indiana, Maine, and Michigan (Buck, 1913). Buck also noted the chief concern was uniform textbooks to be offered at cost.

Concerning vocational education, Blauch (1933) stated "the greatest interest among farmers was expressed through the Grange" (p. 82). He further noted that numerous state Granges and local organizations were active in promoting the Page-Wilson Vocational Bill of 1912. The National Grange encouraged every state Grange to assist with the enactment of the Page-Wilson Vocational Bill and to make the influence "rigorous and continuous" (Blauch, 1933, p. 82). The National Grange claimed a degree of credit for passage of the Smith-Hughes Act when it stated that the Grange "Fathered legislation creating the Vo-Ag program – and consistently supported advancement of the work since it was established ..." (Robinson, 1967).

Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations

This organization had two concerns with Federal support of vocational education. One had to do with the location of experiment stations which the organization feared would be attached to Congressional District Agricultural Schools, as they were in Alabama. The second concern had to do with merging of the co-operative extension service and vocational education. Both the Dolliver Bill of 1910 and the Page-Wilson Bill of 1912 made such a proposal. As soon as this organization was assured that experiment stations would not be allied with schools and that the extension service was separated from vocational education in the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, it became a supporter of the Smith-Hughes Bill. Wirth (1980) noted the importance of passage of the Smith-Lever Act, "A period of fascinating politicking went on until the enactment of Smith-Hughes, including a *quid pro quo* agreement whereby the Smith-Lever Act for the farmers was passed in return for support of agriculturists for Smith-Hughes, which became law in 1917" (pp. 91-92).

Dr. A. C. True, president of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, read a statement to the 1914 Commission which had passed at its 1912 convention:

Resolved, that this association reaffirms its declaration favoring "Federal aid for public schools of secondary education in agriculture, home economics, the trades and industries, including manual training of teachers for these schools in the several states, as may be determined by the legislature." (Report, 1914, p. 223)

Other Interests

A few other members of the coalition played lesser roles in guaranteeing passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, but were, nonetheless, members of this truly remarkable coalition.

Settlement house reformers, such as Jane Addams, supported vocational education as a way to permit the downtrodden to participate more fully in the nation's economic system. The *National Vocational Guidance Association*, led by Frank Parsons, favored the alternative careers permitted by vocational education. In fact, by 1912 this organization had started to hold national conventions in conjunction with the NSPIE. *The Women's Trade Union League* supported vocational education as establishing career opportunities for women. *Normal schools* were interested in the possibility of providing training for vocational teachers and were mentioned prominently in bills preceding the Smith-Hughes Act.

Summary

Seldom has any segment of the political scene at the Federal level witnessed a coalition as diverse and as successful as the one that supported the Smith-Hughes Act. Its diversity was one of its major strengths. When normally antagonistic groups such as the United States Chamber of Commerce and the American Federation of Labor; two rival political parties; land-grant universities and normal schools; rival agricultural organizations; rival agricultural magazines; and normally inactive women's organizations worked together, they were certain to accomplish a great deal.

Diversity was also one of the coalition's weaknesses. It existed only long enough to ensure passage of the Act. Disintegration started as soon as the NEA became concerned with the possibility of a dual school system. The National Association of Manufacturers and the American Federation of Labor quickly agreed that again there was little on which to agree. Other natural rivalries re-emerged.

One of the important lessons of the coalition is that when selfish interests can be put aside, even temporarily, much can be accomplished. Federal vocational legislation passed since 1917, especially in recent years, has often represented a patchwork quilt of special interest groups that refused to compromise. Coalition members were willing to compromise and did so for the benefit of vocational education.

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Social Welfare and Vocational Education – in Progressive Era Cincinnati

Richard D. Lakes

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Synopsis

Previous studies on the origins of the field underplay Progressive era reforms in the formation of occupational education for girls and boys. Two social welfare reformers in Cincinnati, Edith Campbell and Helen Woolley, using research they gathered on sex-typed jobs, influenced local policymakers to establish industrial training programs for females. Today's vocational educators should recognize the historic precedence for gender analysis while attempting to create job training programs that really work.

This article offers an opportunity to assess the contributions of two social welfare reformers, Edith Campbell and Helen Woolley, in the emergence of local vocational education policy regarding child laborers, specifically working-class girls. Female middle-class reformers, like Campbell and Woolley, tended to view their labor from two perspectives: as an avenue to self-fulfillment and an opportunity to contribute to social change. Despite their class differences, these women shared a commonality of gender with working-class girls. In other words, their middle-class privileges did not insulate them from a sexually-segregated workforce which demeaned women by paying them less than men's wages and limited their advancement within careers.

The Progressive era signaled the entrance of an unprecedented number of working-class girls and middle-class women into paid positions. Demographically a lower marriage rate coupled with an increased divorce rate as well as higher educational opportunities provided the impetus for such a large influx of workers (Oppenheimer, 1970; Weiner, 1985; Rury, 1991).

Working within the confines of male-dominated professions, Campbell and Woolley carved a niche for themselves that was distinct from men's careers. Their interest in the vocational education reform movement was largely inspired by their own personal experiences as first-generation career women. That is, they moved into social welfare work at a time when access to other occupations for women was limited. They joined the vocational education movement in its earliest years when there was a particularly keen attention to child labor reforms (Powers, 1992). Their interest derived in part from an intellectual orientation that professional women adopted in college and was reinforced by a broader "social feminist" orientation toward human welfare issues. According to O'Neill (1968), social feminism is a feminist activity directed towards reforms affecting the health and welfare of women, home, and family rather than towards women's rights, such as suffrage.

As social welfare reformers, Campbell and Woolley brought a distinctly feminist philosophy to their understanding of the problems of disadvantaged youths. For instance, they believed that the socioeconomic problems of child labor were systematic, due to gender

and class inequalities in the workplace. As social feminists, these two women sought protective labor legislation for female factory workers. Additionally, their presence in Cincinnati educational reform movements suggests that feminists worked to gain greater control of male-dominated policy issues and began to set political agendas for themselves (Chambers, 1986; Cumber, 1980).

Historians readily acknowledge the important contributions of female social welfare workers in reform movements in the Progressive era (Lubove, 1965; Crunden, 1982). Except for a few isolated case studies, such as in Buffalo (Shelton, 1984), in Cincinnati (Lakes, 1988), in Milwaukee (Kean, 1983), and in the state of California (Kantor, 1988), investigations into the political networks of vocational educators and social welfare reformers still need to be written.

This article describes the extent to which two female social welfare reformers influenced school-based educational practices shaping vocational education in Cincinnati during the Progressive era. The next section provides a very brief overview of child labor legislation in Ohio, setting the stage for local educational reforms precipitated by Edith Campbell and Helen Woolley.

Child Labor Legislation in Ohio

In the last decades of the nineteenth century, Ohio legislators recognized the potential academic problems of child labor and enacted the first of a series of compulsory attendance laws. Ohio had a compulsory school attendance law as early as 1877 (Bossing, 1931). That law mandated schooling for children from ages eight to fourteen for twelve weeks per year during which attendance for six weeks had to be consecutive. Yet a series of loopholes, one of which allowed school boards to excuse working school-age children of indigent parents, served to undermine the effectiveness of this statute. In 1889 a more extensive compulsory school law mandated that all Ohio school-age children from eight to fourteen, in city school districts, must attend public or private school for twenty weeks per year, ten weeks consecutively, and to begin within the first four weeks of the term. Parents and guardians were heavily penalized if they failed to enroll their children or removed them during the school year. The law required employers to verify the literacy level of their under-age employees. Minors from fourteen to sixteen who could not read or write were required to attend school half-time during the day or at night. Finally, truant officers, commissioned with police powers, were organized to enforce the law by entering homes and shops to monitor school absences.

The next child labor law went into effect in Ohio in 1908, and retained the provisions of the 1889 compulsory school law relating to attendance but mandated strict compliance with an eight-hour work day for children aged sixteen to eighteen. The work day for these students was limited to the daylight hours of 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m., with a maximum of forty-eight working hours per week. Although supported by the Ohio Federation of Labor, Ohio manufacturers strongly opposed Reynolds on the grounds that the regulation of hours was "paternalistic" and "un-American." Businessmen claimed the bill created a widespread reduction in the employability of minors leading to "child-idleness."

A child labor law in 1910 required the establishment of part-time schools (continuation schools) for working minors, who had not already completed an eight-grade education or reached sixteen years old (Lovejoy, 1910). The continuation schools in Cincinnati, designed for compulsory attendance for four-hours weekly, began service in September, 1911, with three full-time teachers and forty part-time staff, and with a budget of \$15,000. Over 1,100 students attended the school that first month, registering with the school system the place and time arranged by their employer. The students were grouped by the last grade completed and arranged into classes averaging twenty-five students. A course of study was formulated with two-thirds of the time devoted to academic study in math, spelling, English, hygiene, civic and moral instruction. The remainder of the time was set aside for manual training and domestic science related to the students' present occupation.

Compulsory continuation school attendance rose steadily every month. Despite impressive enrollment figures, however, local educators admitted that these schools offered little academic incentive for youths because child labor essentially was temporary, low-paying employment. Many youths were forced to contribute their meager earnings to the family income. Local public school educators knew that the continuation schools could never offer these youths saleable skills, much less change the social and economic conditions that drove children into the workplace.

The next section introduces Edith Campbell and Helen Woolley, and describes their work in establishing the Vocation Bureau within the Cincinnati Public Schools. Both social welfare reformers promoted increased vocational training and career education for girls in order to counteract the pernicious effects of child labor on early school leaving.

The Vocation Bureau

A supplemental provision of the 1910 child labor law provided relief for indigent youths forced to attend school. The Child Labor Relief law, as it was called, authorized local truant officers to report cases of indigency to the school board. Then, the school board was required to supply these youths with free textbooks or personal items, such as eyeglasses, shoes, and clothing needed for school (Cincinnati Board, 1910).

Edith Campbell was instrumental in influencing such reforms and in resolving the conflicting networks of city support services (Campbell, 1910; Bliss, 1970). She was a progressive activist – and social feminist – who devoted her life to social service and educational work in the city. In 1906, after completing the master of arts degree at the University of Cincinnati (UC), Campbell was asked by the banker and philanthropist Jacob Schmidlapp to direct a fund for the education of young girls. The Charlotte R. Schmidlapp Fund, established in memory of Schmidlapp's nineteen-year-old daughter killed in an auto accident in France, was a scholarship loan program and, later, an employment bureau for needy girls and working women in Cincinnati. Campbell, a former research assistant in the UC Department of Economics, served as “investigator” of local educational and employment conditions of girls and women, as well as loan interviewer for the Schmidlapp Fund. In 1911, Campbell was elected to the Cincinnati board of education as member-at-large, receiving a last-minute political endorsement from fellow Cincinnati and U. S. President, William Howard Taft. In 1912, Campbell helped organize the Grand Rapids, Michigan, meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA), and she served on its executive council as well. In 1921, Campbell became director of the Cincinnati Vocation Bureau of the public schools—an office she helped create in 1910 (Zapoleon, 1985). In later years, she was appointed to numerous executive boards devoted to social welfare and vocational education.

From its earliest years, the Vocation Bureau issued work certificates; however, Campbell realized that the office could also collect valuable data on working youth – more than the usual vital statistics. In 1915, for instance, the Vocation Bureau of Cincinnati Public Schools opened an office for career counseling and job placement; the office registered over 1,000 students and found jobs for about one-half of them that year. In most cases, a placement officer reviewed each student's case history, family background, and guidance record card in order to assess job potentiality. At other times, students were requested to participate in mental testing as well. Vocation Bureau officials conducted monthly follow-up studies on each students' wages and advancement in industry for a period of three years (Cincinnati Board, 1915).

In March, 1911, Helen Woolley, a trained psychologist was hired to conduct assessment tests of working youths. Woolley received her Ph.D. from the University of Chicago, where she studied philosophy and neurology. Her dissertation “Psychological Norms in Men and Women,” was a pioneering study of sex differences. By subjecting fifty university undergraduates (two equal groups of males and females) to a battery of laboratory tests for manual dexterity and sensory awareness, Woolley concluded that, overall, men and women

were "less unique," that is similar to both emotionally and intellectually. After a post-doctoral fellowship in Paris and Berlin, Woolley returned for a promising academic career at Mt. Holyoke College. Yet she left after one year to follow her husband-to-be on a succession of jobs furthering his medical career. In 1909, Woolley finally settled in Cincinnati with her husband, then newly-appointed to the staff of the UC medical school (Rosenberg, 1982).

Helen Woolley's work at the Vocation Bureau consisted of administering psychological and physical tests to working children. With a staff of assistants, she examined almost 1,000 fourteen and fifteen-year-olds over a five-year period. From her study of the comparison between working and non-working children, Woolley believed that there was a relationship between children's mental and physical tests and their success or failure at work. She subdivided the total population of tested pupils into two equivalent groups and immediately began testing the "treatment" group of working minors. In November, 1912, one-and-one-half years later, she began testing the "control" group of full-time students. Each child was given a battery of mental tests, and a case history was compiled on his or her age, physical characteristics, industrial history, home and occupational life. Additionally, she noted exactly how much manual training and domestic science (in continuation schools) each working student had received prior to leaving school (Cincinnati Board, 1911).

The Woolley (1926) study was published as *An Experimental Study of Children*. Woolley (1913a) concluded that the majority of children entering an occupation are "inferior mentally and physically" to the control group of school children. Her tests helped to explain the elements of school "elimination" at the point-of-departure from school which, at that time, was age fourteen. However, she did not assess the degree to which pre-vocational education (i.e., compulsory continuation schooling) affected job performance, since additional schooling, to her, was an ex post factor circumstance.

Using a variety of construction puzzles and scientific apparatus, Woolley ascertained the levels of motor coordination in both groups of children. "If the schools could lay more stress from the start on training manual dexterity of various kinds," she wrote half-way through her study (Woolley, 1913a, p. 606), "children of the class who leave the schools early ... would be the gainers in many ways." Furthermore, Woolley (1913b, 1914) used the test data to evaluate manipulative skills based upon gender differences and, most importantly, to offer predictions on vocational success. For instance, the results of a card sorting test (an index was obtained by dividing the time on completion by the accuracy in percent) laid the scientific basis, she claimed, for the employment of girls in occupations "requiring steadiness of hand, or fine motor control." "For positions requiring strength, or for mere rapidity of motion ... boys would be better" (Woolley, 1914, p. 247). Thus, Woolley's experimental study illuminated the problems of vocational guidance to a newly established profession in which she played a major role.

Child Labor Violations in Cincinnati

In 1913, the Ohio School Survey Commission initiated a study of over-age elementary school youth in Cincinnati. With the assistance of the Vocation Bureau, the commissioners calculated the rate of retardation of children who, they assumed, began first grade at age six and progressed at the normal rate of one grade per year. The commissioners reported that approximately 56 percent of the 31,000 school children in Cincinnati were retarded. The highest percentage of retardation, they claimed, were in the third to seventh grades. Higher retardation rates, however, existed among working school children of both sexes; approximately two-thirds of all applicants for work certificates in the years between 1911 and 1913 were classified as retarded. The state commissioners were alarmed at the figures and strongly recommended that Cincinnati educators reduce the number of over-age children in the city schools (Cincinnati Board, 1915).

"Pushing up the age limit at which pupils may leave school has increased the percentage of retardation in the group of pupils who apply for work certificates," claimed Helen Woolley (*School Index*, 1916, p. 76) in reference to the 1913 Ohio child labor law (the Greenlund Code) which raised compulsory schooling for boys and girls to age fifteen and

sixteen respectively. Work certificates were required for both sexes as well: one year, for boys from age fifteen to age sixteen; and two years, for girls from age sixteen to eighteen. Within one year after enactment of the Greenlund Code, the retardation rate of females receiving work certificates rose 24 percent. Additionally, the code's non-renewal of the compulsory continuation schools (as established in the 1910 Ohio child labor law) meant that over one-half of the 3,245 students enrolled in the Cincinnati continuation schools in 1912 would return to school full-time the next year (Cincinnati Board, 1913).

"There are hundreds of children working in factories in violation of the law," claimed Edith Campbell before an audience of labor unionists (*Labor Advocate*, 1916, December 9). Campbell, too, blamed the inadequacies in the 1913 child labor law which, she believed, failed in several important instances: first, as previously stated, the compulsory continuation school provision in the 1910 law was not renewed; second, there was an insufficient number of factory inspectors to police child labor violators; and finally, there was widespread non-compliance both among employers and minors in regard to the requirements for work certificates. City social workers and educators alike were concerned with the large number of violations among under-age females. For example, A. J. Willey, director of attendance for the board of education, estimated that in 1916 alone there were 1,800 girls employed under the legal age of sixteen. Under-age females desiring work often chose to list a fictitious Kentucky residence—across the Ohio River—that caused inspectors difficulty in unearthing the deception. In addition, employers often violated the provisions of the law that restricted the hours of female labor to fifty-four per week (*Cincinnati Enquirer*, 1916a).

Candy manufacturers, in particular, complained that the law unjustly discriminated against them by claiming that an exemption from the hours statute for female laborers was justifiable on the grounds that they were dealers of perishable goods. On December 11, 1916, one such employer, the Dolly Varden Chocolate Company, told the board of education that they were inconvenienced by the requirement that their female employees acquire work certificates. The board of education confirmed that, indeed, the names of sixty girls at Varden's had been sent to the school for age verification (Cincinnati Board, 1916b). The school authorities determined that only sixteen out of the sixty youths had proper papers and requested the company send the remaining girls to the bureau. When instructed to do so by company officials, however, the girls never arrived there or returned to work. This firm was reprimanded by school officials for employing females without prior age and schooling certificates.

Other manufacturers who directly violated the provisions of the child labor law were prosecuted. Beginning in the fall of 1916, a special corps of state inspectors reported several child labor offenses in Cincinnati. Violators eventually were brought to trial, including a clothing manufacturer who employed a fifteen-year-old girl in his mill, and a former Democratic councilman and his business partner who employed two under-age youths as pin setters in their bowling alley (*Cincinnati Enquirer*, 1916b, 1918).

The next section describes educational opportunities for working-class girls. Both Campbell and Woolley were instrumental in advising local school board officials on vocational training: the systematic occupational preparation of females, these women argued, would help girls better provide for themselves financially, so that they would not have to be dependent upon males for economic support.

Industrial Training for Girls

"We have made little advance in the vocational training of women ... we will have to have a change of attitude toward the girl," claimed Edith Campbell (School Index, 1915b, p. 235) in a March, 1915, address before the National Education Association Department of Superintendents meeting in Cincinnati; she told the predominately male audience: "You have to decide whether the woman's place is in *a* home or in *the* home." The training of girls for industrial careers, according to feminist Campbell, was an important component in female social, political, and economic independence.

Industrial classes for girls were established in the public schools, in part, due to the 1913 Ohio child labor law which required females to remain in school until age sixteen: female applications for work certificates rose 14 percent that year and, as a group, females represented almost two-thirds of all child laborers in the city (see TABLE 1). Five industrial centers offered day instruction for females. Girls were given courses in office occupations, garment-making, and other industrial trades. On March 10, 1915, a school for the sewing trades was authorized by the school board. The two-year vocational curriculum provided girls over fourteen years of age shop training in hand and machine sewing, power machine operations, trade dressmaking and millinery, art needlework, and textile design. Shop equipment consisted of fourteen single-needle, heavy-duty industrial sewing machines and twenty electric or treadle-operated domestic sewing machines. Operating along the lines of an industrial shop, the school director accepted customer orders for dressmaking and embroidery, such as sewing swimming suits for the physical education classes of the public schools and uniforms for a local hospital (Cincinnati Board, 1914, 1915, 1916a, 1917).

TABLE 1

Work Certificates Issued by the Cincinnati Public Schools

Year	# Certificates	% Boys	% Girls
1912-13	2,450	51.4	48.6
1913-14	1,207	37.9	62.1
1914-15	1,044	56.7	43.4
1915-16	1,878	45.5	54.5
1916-17	2,102	40.4	59.5

SOURCE: Adapted from annual reports of the work certificate office in the Vocation Bureau, Cincinnati Public Schools, *Annual Reports* (1912-1917).

Eighty-five girls signed up for the Sewing Trade School that first year (which increased to 113 the next year) with almost three-fourths of the students enrolled in power-machine operations. With the release of the local chamber of commerce industrial survey on garment-making in 1917, local school authorities felt justified in promoting power sewing for girls, even though there was a long standing prejudice against factory employment for females (Cincinnati Board, 1916a, 1917).

Almost one-quarter of the juvenile occupations for females with certificates in 1915 involved employment in the local garment industries, but an even larger number of girls were employed as sales clerks. In the academic year 1916 to 1917, for instance, 360 girls were employed in department stores compared to 292 in the sewing trades (Cincinnati Board, 1917). Throughout this period, however, shoe, paper, candy, and cigar factories employed more females with work certificates than industrial sewing or department store work (see TABLE 2).

In 1911, the compulsory continuation schools offered salesmanship classes to two-hundred girls employed in local department stores. Several years later—following the 1913 child labor law—the school board created a visiting teacher position for bi-weekly salesmanship classes in several local stores. This measure was meant to accommodate the training needs of girls who were over the compulsory school age of sixteen and required to hold work certificates until age eighteen. Each participating employer supplied a classroom (for a minimum of twenty girls) on their own premises. The curriculum consisted of principles of merchandising, marketing, and sales, as well as, customer relations and

employee conduct. In the former category, the girls were instructed in "pushing profitable lines," "forcing the sale," and "pleasing fussy customers," while in the latter there were lessons on "working with the right spirit," "using tact," "earning confidence," and "loyalty." The local board of education sanctioned the salesmanship schools even though private trade training traditionally generated hostility from organized labor. These corporation schools—or vestibule schools, as they were called—were a significant departure from prior vocational practices that operated within the city's public school system (Cincinnati Board, 1914, 1915).

TABLE 2

*Occupations of Child Laborers with Work Certificates
(in Percentages)*

Occupation		1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17
ERRANDS ^a	(M)	42.4	48.9	52.2	46.2	44.8
ERRANDS ^b	(F)	2.8	0.5	3.5	3.6	4.0
FACTORY ^c	(M)	25.8	21.3	18.6	24.6	22.6
FACTORY ^c	(F)	24.8	30.7	29.6	36.2	29.0
DEPT ST.	(M)	10.6	6.9	12.3	8.7	9.9
DEPT ST.	(F)	22.6	26.6	26.6	25.6	28.8
OFFICE	(M)	6.4	3.9	6.5	10.0	10.5
OFFICE	(F)	2.2	8.1	7.9	6.7	10.7
SEWING	(M)	1.5	2.2	0.6	1.7	2.7
SEWING	(F)	16.6	22.4	23.8	24.0	23.3
MISC ^d	(M)	10.3	16.8	9.7	8.7	9.5
MISC ^d	(F)	31.0	11.7	7.1	3.5	3.9

SOURCE: Adapted from annual reports of the work certificate office in the Vocation Bureau, Cincinnati Public Schools, *Annual Reports* (1912-1917).

^a messenger boys, newsboys, or wagon boys;

^b indoor messengers for private firms;

^c shoe, paper goods, candy, metal goods;

^d home industry, trade apprentices, engraving & printing, laundry & domestics (female only).

Vocational training for girls did not come cheap. Vocational shops were costly enterprises because operations, maintenance and equipment purchases, shop supplies, and teacher salaries required unprecedented expenditures. By the end of the decade, greater allocations of funds for expanding industrial education programs arose due to matching Smith-Hughes monies. Yet, when a national post-war recession hit the local economy in 1918, retrenchment measures in education were initiated. By the 1920s, taxpayers were reluctant to approve additional expenses for vocational education, and most local school board members advocated fiscal and pedagogical conservatism. The heady days of progressivism had ended.

Conclusion

Nationally, feminist women operated in policymaking arenas through an interlocking directorate of like-minded progressives, widely represented in organizations such as the National Child Labor Committee, a reformist group investigating conditions of under-age

children at work in the country. Edith Campbell and Helen Woolley followed in the footsteps of other prominent and outspoken social welfare reformers, such as Jane Addams and Ella Flagg Young, who used their influence to secure national recognition for the educational problems of their gender.

Though industrial training for girls had been articulated to some degree in the executive council meetings of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (Lloyd, 1979), Campbell and Woolley addressed those issues at a local level and refined an approach related to solving problems within their own venue. For instance, the use of a scientific research approach using local youths in controlled experimental settings helped legitimize their social welfare and vocational education reform agendas—as did their connections with power-holders at all levels of city government, school board, and social service arenas.

The early feminist, social welfare reform movement should not be lost upon today's vocational education policymakers. Despite past efforts, occupational segregation by sex still exists, subjecting female employees to discriminatory wages and unfair laboring practices. Since the beginning of this century, women have continuously increased their representation within the labor force. Yet females are marginalized by gender, still unable to access higher paying positions of authority within each occupational sector (Blumberg, 1991; Bose, Feldberg, & Sokoloff, 1987; Kelly, 1991).

Vocational educators need to address inequities in the workplace, and illuminate for policymakers curricular reforms that address social and structural conditions of job segregation (Ahola-Sidaway & McKinnon, 1993; Burge & Culver, 1990, 1994; Carter, 1994). By elevating gender and class to a level of critical social analysis that reveals bias in organizational settings, vocational educators can raise the levels of current reform discourse about education for work, and build upon the progressives' advancement of economic and industrial democracy (Lakes, 1994).

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Career Plateauing: A Survey of Technical College Employees

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Synopsis

A questionnaire that measures attitudes towards plateauing was administered to employees at a public technical college. Significant differences were found among staff groups with support workers experiencing significantly greater levels of both content and structural plateauing, and professional/technical employees having greater structural plateauing than teachers and administrators. Suggestions for further research and implications for vocational education are discussed.

The inability to climb the career ladder is an emerging concern for employees in the 1990's. With aging of the baby boom generation and shrinking of middle management positions brought about by recession, improvements in office technology, and mergers and acquisitions, there are fewer opportunities for advancement (Weiner, Remer, & Remer, 1992). One significant vocational effect is plateauing, "a unique form of career stall" (Milstein, 1990b, p. 325) which can result in a feeling of malaise on the part of upwardly mobile individuals. This phenomenon is labeled plateauing because it resembles a long flat uninterrupted expanse with minimal contours and a sameness that stretches endlessly.

If people's jobs are filled with routine and boring tasks or if desired promotions are blocked, then they are likely to feel an intrinsic sense of loss and become skeptical about finding fulfillment in their careers. (Milstein, 1990a, p. 48).

Bardwick (1986) developed three categories of plateauing. **Structural plateaus** represent occupational situations where advancement is unavailable due primarily to the pyramidal nature of organizational hierarchies. People experience a **content plateau** when no challenge remains in their job. Tasks have been mastered and little new or exciting remains to be learned. Boredom may follow. **Life plateauing** occurs when individuals believe they are trapped in their ongoing everyday routines, cycles, obligations, and relationships. This may lead them to have "the sense that there's little fulfillment left in any area of life" (p. 100).

Bardwick suggests that three to five years of tenure in the same position is a precursor to plateauing. However, the effects of extended time in a job are varied and not all veteran employees experience plateauing. Of those who do, many show a decrease in organizational commitment and a diminishing concern with their own career issues such as promotability and marketability. A decline in job performance may or may not follow (Stout, Slocum & Cron, 1988). In others, plateauing leads to intense feelings of personal dissatisfaction (Viega, 1981).

Plateauing research has been relatively limited in scope and breadth. Studies of plateaued corporate managers appear in the professional literature (Viega, 1981; Near, 1984; Stout, Slocum & Cron, 1988; Weiner, Remer, & Remer, 1992). University faculty career plateaus

have been addressed (Patterson, Sutton & Schuttengberg, 1987; Simpson, 1991). Public school teacher and administrator plateauing was the object of work done in New Mexico (Milstein, 1990b, Milstein & Bader, 1992). While a small number of community college teachers and administrators were a part of the 1992 Milstern & Bader educator study, support staff were not included.

The focus of this project was to expand the knowledge about plateauing by having employees at all levels of a public technical college take the Plateauing Survey (Milstein 1991). Of specific interest were the relationships between position, years in the job, and plateauing. The following questions were explored: a) Are there differences in plateauing among the various levels of technical college staff? b) Are there differences in plateauing based upon the number of years spent in the position? c) Do the employee groups demonstrate different levels of content, structural and life plateaus? d) Do the variables of employee age, gender, and marital status affect plateauing? e) Can this survey provide useful suggestions for college staff development and training?

Study Design & Methodology

Employees at a publicly-funded suburban area technical college voluntarily completed the Plateauing Survey in 1993 in response to the researcher's request for participation. Eighty-three of the 100 surveys distributed were returned. The instrument, containing 50 items, was developed in a study of 216 educators (Milstein, 1990b) and validated on 120 educational respondents in 1991 (Milstein & Bader, 1992). Thirty of the questions are designed to assess plateauing with 10 items each in the categories of content, structural, and life. Each query is ranked by the respondents according to a five point Likert scale. The remaining 20 questions tally vocational and personal information. Reliability analysis for the content, structure, and life plateauing scales using this data set found normal distributions and alpha levels of .83, .74, and .70, respectively, using SPSS Release 4.1. Table 1 summarizes the demographic make up of the respondents by their position, years in job, age, gender, and marital status.

Table 1

Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Position	n	Years in Job	n	Age	n	Gender	n	Marital Status	n
Teacher	40	1-3	41	21-30	10	F	55	Mar	56
Admin.	12	4-6	20	31-40	18	M	25	Sgl	26
ProfTec	10	7+	18	41-50	27				
Support	21			51+	26				
Total N	83*	**		Total N	81*	Total N	80*	Total N	82*

*some respondents chose not to supply all data

**Total N not applicable in this category

Statistical Procedures

As indicated in Table 1, staff positions consisted of four types; years in job had three levels; four groupings were set up for age; and gender and marital status had two. The plateauing scores were grouped according to the three categories. Differences were tested

using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The MANOVA technique involved two steps. To explore staff position, years in job, and age, gender, and marital status as they affect plateauing, the first assessment looked at a combination of the categories (multivariate). The differences were then analyzed on each category separately (univariate). If significant differences were found, post hoc comparisons between selected levels of each variable were conducted. Differences with $p < .05$ were considered significant.

Results

Table 2 reports the means on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high) and standard deviations obtained for age, sex, marital status, years in job, and staff position on content, structural, and life plateauing.

Table 2

Plateauing – Group Means

Variable	n*	Content Plateauing		Structural Plateauing		Life Plateauing	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Gender							
Male	24	2.071	.479	2.708	.586	2.383	.613
Female	52	2.375	.698	2.979	.632	2.444	.501
Marital Status							
Married	52	2.260	.702	2.838	.670	2.344	.546
Single	25	2.332	.501	3.004	.510	2.592	.499
Age							
21-30	10	2.580	.748	3.120	.553	2.730	.611
31-40	17	2.200	.662	2.747	.686	2.371	.492
41-50	27	2.267	.614	2.959	.553	2.485	.578
51+	23	2.200	.635	2.826	.677	2.222	.447
Years in Job							
1-3	40	2.310	.657	2.930	.573	2.495	.549
4-6	18	2.406	.761	2.917	.769	2.294	.513
7+	17	2.271	.654	2.892	.629	2.405	.541
Position							
Teacher	35	2.174	.520	2.709	.580	2.343	.498
Administrator	12	1.833	.507	2.533	.545	2.383	.778
Prof/Tech	10	2.130	.633	3.056	.615	2.330	.406
Support Staff	21	2.273	.644	2.886	.622	2.418	.541

*Some respondents chose not to supply all data

Table 3 demonstrates the results of the multivariate statistical investigation.

Table 3**Plateauing – Multivariate Analysis**

Variable	MANOVA**		ANOVA:	
	F	Content F	Structural F	Life F
Sex	.241	.057	.080	.648
Marital Status	.219	.646	.279	.059
Age	.431	.438	.425	.073
Years in Job	.425	.213	.694	.311
Position	.001*	.000*	.000*	.326

* p<.05
** Pillais formula

Multivariate analysis (MANOVA), as shown on Table 3, demonstrated no significant relationships between age, gender, and marital status and the degree of plateauing experienced by the respondents. Similarly, the number of years served in the job did not impact the degree of plateauing in this sample. There was a significant multivariate difference ($p<.05$) among levels of positions across the plateauing variable.

Table 4 shows group means and standard deviations for total plateauing and post hoc comparisons between the specific staff groups on content and structural plateauing.

Table 4**Group Means & Contrasts**

Total Plateauing		
Position	M	SD
Teacher	7.226	1.59
Administrator	6.749	1.83
ProfTec	7.516	1.65
Support Staff	7.577	1.80

Content Plateauing			
Group Contrasts	t value	df	t probability
Teacher x Administrator	-1.583	77	.117
Teacher x ProfTec	-0.008	77	.994
Teacher x Support Staff	4.044	77	.000*
Administrator x ProfTec	1.218	77	.227
Administrator x Support Staff	4.487	77	.000*
ProfTec x Support Staff	2.869	77	.005*

*p<.05

Structural Plateauing			
Group Contrasts	<i>t</i> value	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i> probability
Teacher x Administrator	-1.086	76	.281
Teacher x ProfTec	1.580	76	.118
Teacher x Support Staff	3.728	76	.000*
Administrator x ProfTec	2.158	76	.034*
Administrator x Support Staff	3.812	76	.000*
ProfTec x Support Staff	1.186	76	.239

* $p < .05$

Univariate analysis (ANOVA), on Table 3, demonstrated significant differences among positions for content and structural plateaus ($p < .05$). The post hoc comparisons (Group Contrasts), shown on Table 4, found support workers had significantly higher scores for content and structural plateauing than did professional/technical staff, teachers, or administrators ($p < .05$). Professional/technical staff also showed significantly higher structural plateauing than administrators ($p < .05$). Unlike the results reported in the New Mexico study with community college educators, (Milstein & Bader, 1992), no significant plateauing differences were found between college teachers and administrators.

Conclusions

Results of the survey found that teachers and administrators at this technical college were not significantly different in their self-perceived levels of plateauing. Support staff felt more content and structural plateauing, while the people occupying professional/technical positions experienced more structural plateauing. Age, gender, and marital status did not have measurable effects, nor did the number of years in the same job.

This study adds to the literature about career plateauing. It demonstrates that the Plateauing Survey instrument can be successfully used to assess plateauing among all types of employees of postsecondary educational organizations. Additional surveys in other two year colleges will expand the sample size and possibly highlight other effects. Qualitative research may reveal new insights and further the understanding of this phenomenon.

Discussion

The positions that employees at this technical college occupy are the best predictors of whether or not plateauing will be present. Age, gender, and years in job were irrelevant for these respondents. The higher levels of both structural and content plateauing found among support staff may be related to the nature of the positions such individuals occupy. Support workers perform important assignments across the campus in instructional assistance, building maintenance, clerical/secretarial, and food services. They are not highly paid, their job status is low, and the entry level skills required for many of the positions are minimal. Support staff duties tend to be routine and performance closely monitored. Little opportunity for advancement exists and only limited staff development and training is offered.

Support staff are not alone in their perceptions of plateauing. A less well-known type of position exists in this technical college. Called "proftecs" or professional/technical employees, these people are involved in contract training projects outside the school and in specialized industry-consulting. They bring higher education backgrounds and years of prior employment experiences with them to their positions. Their significantly increased levels of structural plateauing may occur because they have less direct contact with teachers and campus administrators due to the unique focus of their jobs and the necessity for frequent offsite travel. Lacking ongoing involvement in the day to day activities of the college, and possessing specialized skills, their opportunities for vertical career advancement may be limited.

Milstein (1993) suggests that further research take a close look at the individual characteristics of plateaued and non-plateaued educators. He is particularly interested in the characteristics of those respondents whose highly unusual responses classify them as outliers. The author of this article is currently conducting employee focus groups in an effort to learn more about plateauing. In the groups, participant information is obtained through loosely structured questions and probes initiated by a moderator (Morgan, 1988). Analysis of the data obtained from these sessions will lead to a richer understanding of the meanings technical college workers attach to their jobs and provide keys to how they can be helped to avoid/cope with plateauing.

Implications for Vocational Education

Static organizational growth, as well as, labor market constraints and changes may indeed limit career advancements and lead to structural plateaus. Concomitant content plateaus need not occur. Capable employees who are provided opportunities to choose new activities that are appropriate to their skill levels can continue in the same positions indefinitely, enjoying work for its own sake, rather than only for its remuneration or status (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Vocational educators are ideally-suited to assist both institutions and staff groups with programs to avoid content plateauing. Expertise in occupational analysis, curriculum development, hands-on instruction, and customized delivery of technical coursework can facilitate the ongoing skills acquisition which will allow lateral movement of employees and functions across entire occupational classifications within organizations. Seemingly endless worklife plateaus can give way to jobs with contours, creativity, and challenge.

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Manufacturing Management The Head-Waters for Technical/Vocational Education

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Synopsis

Global competitive pressure is causing manufacturing management in the United States to adopt new methods for organizing and controlling the factory. These new methods of management will redefine the knowledge and skills people need to work in these industries. Consequently, changes in management ultimately determine the educational needs of those working in industry. The issues raised for vocational education can be illustrated by examining the changes that swept through industry at the beginning of this century. At that time Taylor and Ford introduced two new concepts for organizing and controlling the workplace that together radically changed the skills, knowledge, and work habits needed by those employed in manufacturing industries. Nearly a century has passed, and industry is once again changing its approach to management. Understanding the different approaches to manufacturing management and how each approach defines work provides vocational and technical educators with insights to educational needs of those seeking careers in manufacturing.

Introduction

The pressure for continuous improvement is causing significant change in the way manufacturing companies are managed (Gibson, 1990). Many industries are rapidly downsizing to adjust to changes in the markets they serve. Some changes are in response to the defense industry's need to reorient to commercial and industrial markets. However, most changes are directed at meeting global competitive pressure requiring: (a) increased productivity, (b) the introduction of "breakthrough" methodologies, and (c) newly developed technologies (McLagan, 1989, 1991). To support change, manufacturing management is altering the ways it organizes and controls workplaces (Gibson, 1990). Changes in management will ultimately determine educational needs of those working in industry. Understanding the different approaches to manufacturing management and how each approach defines work provides vocational and technical educators with insights to educational needs of those seeking careers in manufacturing. More importantly, educators can detect shifts in educational needs if they are able to recognize when significant changes are underway in management methods.

To illustrate, consider a period of significant change in manufacturing management that occurred at the end of the last century. At that time manufacturing shifted from a craft to a factory-based system of production. This change in manufacturing significantly altered skills and knowledge workers needed to be productive. Vocational educators responded by providing programs that taught needed skills and knowledge (Evans & Herr, 1978). John Dewey, however, was deeply concerned about these changes in education. He challenged the approach taken by vocational education as too specific to the technology of the time and too limiting for a democratic society (Wirth, 1972).

Manufacturing management systems are again undergoing significant changes. The magnitude of the effects may be assessed by understanding how management systems define the knowledge and skills required. Also Dewey's insight on the relationship between industry and education provides another view on manufacturing management's impact on vocational education.

Manufacturing Management

At the turn of this century, the United States had a well established industrial base that was serving an expanding national market (Marcus & Segal, 1989). Although the nation was growing in size and prosperity, industry was having difficulty finding qualified people to work in manufacturing plants. Therefore, manufacturing management was being pressed to consider new ways to increase capacity and productivity (Babcock, 1990). This led to methods that required management to change approaches to the factory system of the nineteenth century.

Factories, Systemization, and Technical/Vocational Education

The factory system of the nineteenth century came into existence because of eighteenth century innovations (Babcock, 1990). Five of these innovations were inventions that facilitated the manufacture of textiles which essentially eliminated the commercial need for the crafts associated with making cloth. The other three innovations: the steam engine, the screw-cutting lathe, and the concept of interchangeable assembly influenced manufacturing in general. Specifically the steam engine, along with the concept of interchangeable parts, made possible the factory system which created complex work-places that substantially increased the number of people working within organizations (Babcock, 1990; Borgmann, 1984).

The work-place created by these inventions was not the cottage industry that the seventeenth and eighteenth century philosophers had envisioned as the means that men and women would use to earn a living (Hall, 1967). The change over from local cottage industries to centralized factories significantly changed the nature of work both in skills required and constraints on personal activity (Marcus & Segal, 1989). Consequently, the factory created a need for two forms of training. Factory managers had to train workers to acquire manufacturing skills and to develop the "habits of industry" such as regular attendance and punctuality (Babcock, 1990, p. 23). During the later half of the nineteenth century, industry recognized that (a) normal education was not supplying these vocational skills and habits and (b) this training would need to be an ongoing process to support the country's economic expansion (Miller, 1987).

Redefining the Nature of Work

By the end of the nineteenth century, the factory system had a problem more serious than acquiring trained workers. Managers found it difficult to organize and control their plants in part because the factory system significantly increased the complexity of organization. With the possible exception of the textile industry, which was more process oriented, most manufacturing was labor intensive, relying on many craft and skill groups. Each of these skill groups confounded management by retaining control of the work-place (Noble, 1984). Specifically the skill groups were able to significantly influence the rate of production and the use of resources such as material and labor.

In the film *Clockwork: The Making of a Modern American Work-Place* (Breitbart, 1982), actual film footage of factory scenes from the beginning of this century illustrate the chaotic nature of the work-place. It's apparent from the scenes in the film which show vast amounts of work-in-process, that the activity of the organization was not under any system of coordinated control – the skill and craft groups were operating independently of each other.

The film goes on to demonstrate how control was reestablished by the introduction of Frederick Taylor's concept of "Scientific Management." Although the film emphasizes time study, this was only one part, albeit a significant component of Taylor's theory of management. His major contribution was the recognition that jobs could be broken down into simple elemental tasks. This fragmentation of work created jobs that were repetitious, less skilled, and easily sequenced (Gibson, 1990). The result helped management eliminate skill and craft groups while improving the means to assess the rate of production. Taylor's complete work, "Shop Management," was presented at the Saratoga meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in June of 1903 (Niegel, 1958). This paper on manufacturing management was well received and widely read (Babcock, 1990).

In 1913, Ford Motor Company expanded on Taylor's methods by introducing a new approach to manufacturing. Ford began by applying Taylor's concepts of scientific management to assembly of automobiles. Next, Ford rigidly sequenced and paced manufacture by linking all the assembly tasks together with a moving conveyor (Marcus & Segal, 1989). When placed in operation this method created an integrated manufacturing system called the assembly line. The result caused Ford's output to increase dramatically. When other companies adopted this system, they also experienced the benefits of reduced skill requirements and improved productivity and control.

The two concepts (Taylor's concept of work and Ford's concept of mechanically sequencing and pacing of production) may be considered in combination as one technique and will be characterized in the context of this paper as the "Taylor-Ford" approach to manufacturing management. The Taylor-Ford approach resulted in significant reductions in the degree of skill and responsibility required in workers and redefined the nature of factory work. The result enabled management to wrest control from skilled and craft workers by transforming their jobs into elemental tasks which were sequenced and paced by manufacturing machinery and equipment (Noble, 1984). With the Taylor-Ford approach, management was able to create and control larger manufacturing facilities (Niegel, 1958).

Manufacturing Management's Influence on Educational Needs

Although the Taylor-Ford system reduced skill levels significantly and simplified organization, there was still a very strong need for worker education. The response to this need for education can be viewed as two separate components. First there was a training component that is described by Babcock (1990) as the learning of skills and habits of industry. Currently the responsibility for this component is increasingly being recognized as belonging to industry (McLagan, 1989). However, at the turn of the century, industry was looking to public education to accept this responsibility (Evans & Herr, 1978).

The second aspect focuses on the impact the Taylor-Ford approach had on the nature of work. The success of this approach caused it to become a paradigm for manufacturing that defined skills, knowledge, and habits needed by factory workers as very job specific. Therefore, vocational education at the turn of the century reflected the needs of the Taylor-Ford approach.

The constraints that this paradigm placed on vocational education and industry may be demonstrated by consideration of an alternative and more contemporary system for managing factories. Richard Schonberger (1986), a widely read author on manufacturing management, put forth a very different approach on how factories should be operated. In essence his approach places a portion of management responsibility on each worker while emphasizing teamwork, just-in-time manufacturing, and continuous improvement. If Schonberger's approach to manufacturing management and control had been chosen 90 years ago, the knowledge and skills needed would have been very different.

Another Perspective

If manufacturing managers had been implementing Schonberger's (1986) concepts for world-class manufacturing at the beginning of this century, Dewey's proposals for

vocational education as described by Wirth (1972) would certainly have been more relevant. However, at the beginning of this century vocational education's response to industry as put forward by Prosser and his colleagues was more appropriate for that period. The essence of Prosser's philosophy of vocational education is contained in his 16 theorems (Camp & Hillison, 1984). These theorems have very specific aims such as providing job skills and work habits that enable persons to move directly into the work place from school. Prosser and Quigley (1949, pp. 11-12) provided a descriptive assessment of vocational education when they compared it directly to general education. In this discussion they saw six areas that differentiated the two forms of education. These points are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

***Comparison of Vocational Education to General Education
(Prosser & Quigley, 1949)***

Controlling Purpose –

General education: prepares one to live more intelligently, understand life, and enjoy life.

Vocational education: prepares one to work more efficiently.

Subject Matter Taught –

General education: should give the general information needed to help one learn about life and vocations.

Vocational education: gives specific training in the usable skills and knowledge for each occupation.

Groups Served –

General education: designed to serve everyone while they are compelled to be in school. After that period is passed, anyone may continue if they are benefiting from it.

Vocational education: given successfully only to those who are preparing for such employment or who are already employed in the field.

Methods of Instruction –

General education: reading and reciting.

Vocational education: experiential and skill development.

Sequence –

General education: precedes vocational education and serves as a foundation.

Vocational education: gives point, purpose, significance, and application to general education.

Fundamental Psychology –

General education: advocates believe general mental faculties can be developed best by the mastery of traditional subject matter and taught as formalized disciplines. The course of study that prepares a student for college is also suitable for preparing one for life.

Vocational education: the mind is a habit-forming machine which learns through practicing habits of doing and thinking to accomplish ends in which the learner is interested.

An examination of the comparisons in Table 1 shows, not surprisingly, that subject matter taught for vocational education is job specific. This approach to vocational education conceptually supports and parallels the Taylor-Ford approach to manufacturing management. However, it is difficult to envision how the job-specific subject matter, methods, and psychology could support Schonberger's approach to manufacturing.

Dewey challenged this educational process from the onset and continued to oppose Prosser's approach to vocational education even though it was gaining public, state, and federal support that culminated in passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 (Wirth, 1972). Two of Dewey's concerns were undemocratic tendencies and the two-tiered society that he thought would develop when general education was separated from vocational education. Dewey also made direct challenges of industry's use of the Taylor-Ford approach. Dewey questioned fragmentation of jobs and called for redesign of industry's definition of work and education (Wirth, 1974). Dewey in *Reconstruction in Philosophy* (cited in Wirth, 1974) saw specialization resulting from this fragmentation as a way of tracking and limiting the all-around growth of individuals in society. He believed that this fragmentation could ultimately destroy democracy.

Snedden (cited in Wirth, 1974), Prosser's colleague and mentor, provided a counter argument by observing that industry's growth was the foremost means for human progress. Industry, in Snedden's view, did subject men and women to fragmented and routine tasks, but this specialization was allowing them to improve standards of living. Snedden's reply was that good jobs and good pay couldn't harm democracy and that, thus, the educational process was justified.

Dewey, *Liberalism and Social Action* (cited in Wirth, 1974), however, was still concerned about the pecuniary motives and the "corrosive" materialism of society that this whole concept of work fragmentation and specialization brought to education and industry. In *Democracy and Education* (cited in Wirth, 1974) Dewey indicated that educational reorganization should not be directed toward providing technical preparation for industries as they currently operate, in part because this job-specific education will perpetuate current conditions and inhibit change. The difficulty in instituting change to new technologies and methodologies is the very problem that industry is trying to overcome today. Dewey's solution called for social reconstruction based on collaborative participation between industry and education and aimed at liberating the mind.

Dewey's comments are relevant to current approaches to manufacturing organization and control. Many of the current approaches to manufacturing management and control, such as self-directed work teams, etc., are causing reconsideration of basic definitions of work (Gibson, 1990). The skills needed for new forms of work include problem solving, decision making, and interpersonal behavior skills coupled with broad technical skills. Manufacturing work as it is currently evolving is not unlike Dewey's observations, particularly those in his later writings.

During World War II, Dewey began to develop a philosophical approach to manufacturing and examined this topic in several essays. Dewey observed that industrial technology had outstripped social knowledge and our ability to use it for the benefit of society (Dewey, 1944b). In another essay Dewey (1944a) saw the development of the arts of production as being technologies which should be viewed as part of a system of knowledge needed by each worker.

Conclusion

From a manufacturer's point of view there are two separate issues, training and education. At the turn of the century industry managed to combine these issues into one. The result thrust the responsibility for training onto vocational education. Furthermore, the concept of work devised by manufacturers also dictated a very specific approach to education.

Nearly a century has passed and industry is again changing its approach to management. These changes are causing manufacturers to redefine the nature of work. However, after 90

years, manufacturing has begun to accept more responsibility for providing job-specific training (Miller, 1987). Consequently, vocational education will not have to concentrate on teaching habits and practice but may focus on developing the system of knowledge that Dewey (1944a) proposed.

To assure success of this approach, vocational educators must understand the principles and the body of knowledge that governs manufacturing and manufacturing management. This is particularly apparent when manufacturers, based on their current approach to manufacturing management and control, are again trying to impose educational methods and content such as the NCMS's manufacturing curriculum for the year 2000 (National Center for Manufacturing Sciences [NCMS], 1990). Understanding different approaches to manufacturing management and how each defines work provides vocational and technical educators with insights to the educational needs of those seeking careers in manufacturing. This understanding also provides opportunities to work collaboratively with industry to provide education.

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Effective Teaching: Perceptions of Secondary Business Education Teachers

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Synopsis

A profile of the effective secondary business education teacher as determined by the perceptions of both teaching award recipients and non-recipients in business education was developed. This study, which was a modified replication of the Ruff (1989) study, used an ethnographic approach to interpret a particular topic or phenomenon from participants' frames of reference. There is much agreement between the award recipients and the non-recipients with regard to the fact that their career centers around the success of their students in the classroom and beyond. There is, however, considerable disagreement between these two groups with regard to support from faculty outside vocational education, commitment to professional organizations, and teacher preparation experience.

Teacher education programs have been the subject of much criticism. Both *Tomorrow's Teachers* (1986), by the Holmes Group, and *A Nation Prepared* (1986), by the Carnegie Forum, seek to abolish undergraduate degree programs in education. These groups hypothesize that any person with a degree in arts and sciences could enter the teaching profession by first interning at schools designated as "clinical sites," thus eliminating the need for teacher education programs. The National Governors' Association in its report, *Time for Results* (1986), offered another suggestion for improving secondary teachers' education. They proposed creating a national board to define standards for teachers which would specify what teachers need to know and be able to do.

Though the intentions of these groups and others are admirable, they concentrate only on the knowledge base that teachers should possess. They do not attempt to define the intangible qualities which effective teachers exhibit, such as, instilling self-confidence in students (Roush, 1987); promoting autonomy and encouraging creativity (Simmons, 1987); and possessing fairness, empathy, and humor (Rose, 1989). Thus, the development of a profile of an effective teacher is of particular importance.

Historically, a variety of criteria have been used to determine teacher effectiveness. As indicated by the following literature review of business teacher education effectiveness research, these studies have been quantitative in nature. In fact, a review of the following sources yielded no qualitative studies in business teacher education to date: *Educational Resources Information Center* (ERIC), *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *Psychological*

Abstracts (PsychLIT). In addition, a manual search was conducted using the following sources: *Encyclopedia of Education*, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, *Business Education Index*, *Education Index* and *Teacher Effectiveness Bibliography*.

It should be noted that from the 1920's through the early 1970's, educational research was replete with teacher effectiveness studies. Interest in teacher effectiveness studies appears to have resurfaced in the mid-1980's and continues.

Messenger (1979) surveyed 577 high school business students in California regarding their perceptions of "good" and "poor" business teachers. The questionnaires were categorized into four areas: personal traits, teaching traits, teacher-student relationships, and grading assignments. These students determined that good teachers were those who had a sense of humor, made learning interesting, and were able to relate to students. They likewise determined that poor teachers were those who did not explain subject matter well and did not care about students.

Wilkinson (1979) surveyed 517 high school business law students, from various high schools in Philadelphia, on effective and ineffective behaviors of secondary business law teachers. Analyzing the questionnaires using the chi-square test for independence, effective teachers were found to be the ones who organized and presented materials at paces appropriate for student learning, allowed for student participation, controlled classroom behavior problems, and listened to the opinions of students. Ineffective teachers were ones who only used the lecture method of teaching, did not provide sufficient guidance in terms of expected results, did not control classroom disruptions, and criticized and/or embarrassed students in class.

Self-perceptions of faculty and teaching behaviors were the criteria used by Hyslop (1988) in his study of teacher effectiveness. Twenty-one business faculty, who had received teaching awards from 1982 to 1987 at Bowling Green State University, responded to questions regarding methodology and overall philosophy of teaching. Respondents' most common perceptions about effective teaching included: possessing high concern for students, possessing high expertise in the discipline, willingness to be flexible, projecting enthusiasm for teaching, and creating caring classroom environments.

Choi (1988) also used teacher perceptions in his study of teacher effectiveness. He surveyed 465 secondary business teachers in New York State, excluding New York City. He asked them to rank the teaching competencies, identified by the National Business Education Association as effective, in order of perceived importance. Competencies in the management and instruction categories, which included being able to control classrooms and being able to give feedback, was ranked highly. The evaluation and student organization categories were ranked lowly.

Brandenburg's (1985) approach differed. He studied the relationship between instructor communicator styles and teacher effectiveness. He defined teacher effectiveness as student attainment of instructional objectives as measured by subject matter mastery. Fifty-one College of Business faculty at two midwestern universities participated. One section of students for each faculty participant completed *Norton's Communicator Style Questionnaire*. The instructor communicator style "friendly/animated" was the only one found to have a relationship at the .05 level of significance with student attainment of instructional objectives.

There is also precedent for looking to award recipients for characteristics of teacher effectiveness. Ahern (1969) surveyed 83 recipients of local and national Outstanding Teaching awards from New England institutions of higher education and determined that the majority of award winners chose teaching as a first career and continued to teach for the sheer joy of it.

Kelly and Kelly (1982) conducted in-depth interviews with each of nine university professors who had won prestigious teaching effectiveness awards since 1972. It was determined from the interviews that these award winners stressed enthusiasm for teaching, commitment to students, thorough knowledge of subject matter, and maintaining a sense of humor.

Tursman (1981) also chose to interview 11 teachers who had won Teacher of the Year awards regarding their perceptions on effective teaching. These teachers viewed effective teachers as those who were flexible, student centered, and democratic. In addition, they were always willing to grow personally and professionally and were willing to change teaching styles to meet the needs and skills of students while creating supportive and caring classroom climates. Effective teachers also encourage problem-solving and critical-thinking skills as students learn the subject matter.

As indicated earlier, there is precedent for using teaching award recipients as a standard. However, previous studies did not attempt to contrast opinions of teachers who have not won awards to look for similarities or differences. This study addresses that dimension.

Ruff (1989) found that the most common criteria used in evaluating teacher effectiveness were (a) teacher preparation, (b) personal motivation and abilities, (c) the teacher-student relationship, (d) professional roles and practices, and (e) teaching environment. These criteria are consistently reported in the business education literature (Messenger, 1979; Golen, 1980; Gruber, 1978; and Wilkinson, 1979).

With the exception of the Ruff (1989), researchers used quantitative methods to determine effectiveness and survey instruments predominated. Results of quantitative research, for the most part, generated lists of competencies that defined effectiveness; but they failed to provide any depth of understanding about teacher effectiveness.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992, p. 32), qualitative research can provide depth because it is essentially concerned with what people and events mean; i. e., the why as well as the what. Using a naturalistic inquiry paradigm, Ruff (1989) was able to create a profile of an effective secondary marketing teacher, giving a new dimension to effective teaching.

Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of this study was to analyze perceptions of business education teaching award winners in order to create a profile of the effective business education teacher. The second purpose of this study was to compare and contrast those perceptions with the perceptions of non-recipients in order to discover whether or not specific similarities or differences exist between the two groups.

As this is a modified replication of the Ruff: (1989) study, the following research questions closely parallel those used by Ruff.

1. How do award recipients and non-recipients perceive their personal motivation and abilities?
2. How do award recipients and non-recipients perceive their students?
3. How do award recipients and non-recipients perceive their teaching environment?
4. How do award recipients and non-recipients perceive their professional roles and practices?
5. How do award recipients and non-recipients perceive their teacher preparation?

Methodology

Research Design

“The basis of qualitative research is to discover patterns in the data and to interpret their meaning in a natural setting” (Erickson, 1986, p. 119). Tuckman (1988) reports that, based on Bogden and Biklen’s work, qualitative research exhibits these features: “(1) the natural setting is the data source and the researcher is the key data-collection instrument; (2) it attempts primarily to describe and only secondarily to analyze; (3) the concern is with process, that is, with what has transpired, as much as with product or outcome; (4) its data is analyzed inductively, as in putting together parts of a puzzle; and (5) it is essentially

concerned with what things mean, that is, the why as well as the what" (pp. 388-389).

This study used an ethnographic approach. In an ethnographic approach, a particular topic or phenomenon is interpreted from the participants' frames of reference. "This approach relies on interviews or observations of participants to discover patterns and their meanings which form the basis for generalizations" (Tuckman, 1988, p. 389). The topic of this research was effective teaching. By interviewing each teacher, similar patterns of data about effective teaching appeared. From these patterns, a profile of an effective secondary business education teacher emerged.

Instrumentation

"The use of an interview guide maximizes the neutrality of the researcher's approach and improves the consistency of the findings" (Tuckman, 1988, p. 393). The interview guide used in this study was a modified version of the one used by Ruff (1989). The contents of the guide were modified to reflect the emphasis of this research study on secondary business education teachers.

The following demographic data were also gathered from each participant: undergraduate degree and major, other degrees held, total years teaching experience, present position, non-paid involvement in school activities, number of current memberships in professional organizations, number of past and present office(s) held in professional organizations, gender, and race. These data were not included in the formal qualitative data analysis.

Reliability and Validity

A semi-structured interview was used to ensure greater consistency in data collection. "In qualitative research, validity refers to the researcher's ability to capture precisely the participant's view of the world and accurately portray it to the reader" (Wolcott, 1990, p. 130). To ensure that the data was interpreted correctly, each participant was contacted by telephone a few days after the interview; and the transcribed responses were read to him or her. Any needed corrections, additions, or clarification to the responses were made at that time.

Sample

Purposeful sampling was used to select the participants for this study. Purposeful sampling involves selecting a sample that will yield the most comprehensive understanding of the subject (Babbie, 1986, p. 247). Purposeful sampling differs from random sampling in that the findings from the data cannot be generalized to a larger population. (Statistical generalizability is not a goal of qualitative research.) Because one goal of qualitative research is to better understand human behavior and experience (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 49), random sampling would have been inappropriate for this study. The study participants formed two groups of six teachers. Patton (1987, p. 54) found that if there is a targeted subject and the sample is relatively homogeneous, five to eight subjects per sample will normally provide enough data. One sample consisted of this criterion: each participant was a secondary business education teacher, who had won either the Southeastern Business Education Secondary Teacher of the Year award or the Georgia Business Education Secondary Teacher of the Year award. The other sample consisted of secondary business education teachers who had not received awards. Both groups contained rural, suburban, and urban teachers.

Letters were sent to the selected individuals requesting an interview. All agreed to participate. Telephone calls determined convenient times for face-to-face interviews.

All interviews, from 45 minutes to 2 hours in length, were conducted in quiet settings of the participant's choice, most often in a classroom.

Treatment of the Data

To create the profile of an effective secondary business education teacher, the data from each transcribed interview were organized and synthesized so that patterns could be discovered and interpreted. This process was started immediately after each interview was transcribed. The five research questions guided the interviews: personal motivation and abilities, students, teaching environment, professional roles and practices, and teacher preparation. These five topics also served as the major core categories under which the data were logically coded and analyzed. Each major core category was assigned a number from one through five. These numbers correlate with the numbers of the research questions.

Data from teaching award recipients were marked according to the five core categories. Data from non-recipients were similarly marked according to the five core categories. As data became larger in each category, subcategories emerged until all the data were coded and patterns among the data were formed.

Table 1

Demographic Profile of the Participants

	Award Recipients	Non-Recipients
Gender		
Female	6	5
Male	0	1
Race		
Caucasian	6	5
African American	0	1
Teaching Experience		
Least number years	11	8
Most number years	34	30
Highest Degree Held		
Bachelors	0	2
Masters	2	3
Specialist	3	1
Doctoral	1	0
Type of School		
Urban	3	2
Suburban	2	2
Rural	1	2
Present Position		
Teacher only	1	4
Teacher/Department head	3	1
Teacher/CPE coordinator	2	0
Teacher/other	0	1
Non-Paid School Involvement	6	6
Professional membership	6	6
Offices held	6	0

Findings

A demographic profile of the two participants groups is presented in Table 1. This provides general background information.

Using an ethnographic approach to data analysis where a particular topic is interpreted from the participants' frame of reference or viewpoint, the responses of the teachers were coded under the five core categories. Patterns of responses emerged under each category to form conceptual categories. The category that emerged as the strongest, i.e., the one that had the most similar responses, is presented first under each core category. Others follow in order of strength. Excerpts from the transcribed interviews are included for illustration of the conceptual categories. To protect the identity of respondents, each teacher from each group was assigned a number, 1 or 2, representing the group, and a code letter, A-F, representing individuals within the group.

Question 1: How do award recipients (Group 1) and non-recipients (Group 2) perceive their personal motivation and abilities? Five conceptual categories surfaced for Group 1: career choice dilemma, rewards of teaching, personal strengths, external barriers, and barriers from within. Though teaching was not their first career choice, the award recipients all expressed much satisfaction from their careers. Satisfaction and the motivation to continue teaching came mostly from working with students and watching them grow, mature, and succeed in and out of the classroom. Teacher 1A stated this regarding student achievement:

The thing I find most satisfying about teaching is working with students, seeing students learn skills, and go out and use them. You get to see what they've learned from you that they are able to use out in the world.

They also value their organizational skills, a personal strength, which frees them to be creative in their teaching. They did, however, believe that their ability to be effective teachers is hampered by three factors. The first, and one with which they expressed most concern, was students' poor attitudes toward learning. The second was the increasing amount of classroom and administrative paperwork. The third was the never-ending effort to stay current with rapidly changing technology. These teachers also perceived loss of patience with students as a personal barrier to success in the classroom.

Four conceptual categories emerged in Group 2 teachers: career influence, student accomplishment, student rapport, and external barriers. These teachers chose teaching as a career because of influences of important people in their lives, i. e., a parent, friend, or teacher. As a group, they were very satisfied with their career choices and attributed longevity in teaching to being able to help students succeed in the classroom. Teacher 2E stated:

Sometimes kids have potential, and don't realize it. I like finding something in their lives, whether it is in the classroom or through extracurricular activities, that will help them use their potential to the fullest. I enjoy seeing them succeed.

The effectiveness of Group 2 teachers was also hindered by several factors. The biggest source of frustration was poor attitudes toward learning on the part of some students. This group also expressed concern about staying abreast of changing technology.

Question 2: How do award recipients (Group 1) and non-recipients (Group 2) perceive their students? Three conceptual categories regarding student perceptions surfaced for Group 1: professional relationship, student needs, and fulfilling potential. Group 1 teachers believed that students wanted to feel important and that they, as teachers, could help with their self-esteem development by letting the students know that they cared. They also reiterated, however, that in order to maintain identity as teachers, they had to keep a certain emotional distance from students. Teacher 1A said:

We have a partnership—a teamwork atmosphere. We have the same sort of caring relationship you would find in the business world.

These teachers were also of the opinion that students needed to learn skills that would enhance chances for employment. In addition, they believed that students wanted to be active participants in learning; so Group 1 teachers involved students via practical, hands-on activities. Recognizing that learning is not a one-way endeavor, Group 1 teachers always expected students to work to potential, accepting nothing less than best effort from each student.

These same three conceptual categories, professional relationship, student needs, and fulfilling potential, surfaced in Group 2 participants. These teachers were critically aware of the need of many students to be recognized as individuals, so these teachers worked diligently to ensure that students knew they had someone with whom they could discuss problems. This group of teachers also always expected students to work to the best of their ability. They felt students would be successful if teachers could make coursework relevant to students' lives and involve students in the learning process; therefore, they spent almost as much classroom time explaining the "why" as they did the "what." As teacher 2E stated,

You have to make everything relevant. If they don't think it affects them, they've lost interest.

Question 3: How do award recipients (Group 1) and non-recipients (Group 2) perceive their teaching environment? Analysis of the perceptions of Group 1 regarding teaching environments revealed three conceptual categories: congenial atmosphere, administrative support, and parental support. Group 1 teachers said their schools had friendly, open atmospheres wherein teachers liked and respected one another. Teacher 1F stated:

We have a very good teaching environment. We are friendly and open. Teachers get along well with each other. The math and science people have really come together with the vocational teachers in combining applied projects.

These teachers held the perception that the support they received from administrators played a large part in creating relaxed teaching environments. This same kind of support was also found when working with students to correct problems.

Analysis of Group 2 perceptions also revealed three conceptual categories: departmental support only, open administration, and parental support but not involvement. While Group 2 teachers believed they had good working relationships with other vocational education teachers, they did not believe there was support for business education from faculty outside vocational education. A statement from teacher 2F reveals this perception:

The business department stays together. Other faculty groups have a problem with us because we are not "academic." They try to talk our kids out of our classes. Everything is academic, and we are not included—it's a struggle.

Group 2 teachers also did not believe they had the support of their administrators. In addition, they felt that while parents were not inclined to become involved with PTA or open house, they would work with teachers to correct student problems when called upon.

Question 4: How do award recipients (Group 1) and non-recipients (Group 2) perceive their professional roles and practices? Perception analysis for Group 1 revealed four conceptual categories: classroom mission, professional enhancement, shaky future, and retirement. Group 1 teachers believed their classroom goal was preparing students to enter the business world. They were also of the opinion that in order to best reach this goal they must continually upgrade their knowledge base in business education via professional conferences and staff development workshops. Teacher 1B said this:

I belong to many professional organizations. I try to attend as many conferences as I can. By making wise use of my time, I can discover a lot of new areas in business ed, especially in computers.

All of the Group 1 teachers agreed that the future of business education appeared to be unsure. In spite of this opinion, only one from this group planned to leave the classroom for administration prior to retirement.

Four conceptual categories surfaced for the Group 2 teachers: classroom mission, professional enhancement, academic emphasis, and staying current. Group 2 also held the belief that their classroom mission was preparing students for employment. Tied closely with this is the need for continuing education. This group chose staff development workshops and independent learning as the primary vehicles for updating their knowledge base in business education. These teachers expressed much concern with focus on academic courses in secondary curriculum. Teacher 2B stated:

Next year students have to have an extra math and an extra science. That is bad for business ed because it is hard for these kids to get electives. We are going to have to push our programs.

Question 5: How do award recipients (Group 1) and non-recipients (Group 2) perceive their teacher preparation? The analysis of the perceptions of Group 1 regarding teacher preparation revealed two conceptual categories: positive experience and student organization involvement. All award recipients gave high marks to their teacher preparation programs, agreeing that methods courses provided strong foundations for both student teaching and full-time teaching. Teacher 1A stated,

I feel I was really prepared when I started teaching. I got a good foundation in teaching methods. I saw a lot of good teachers. My student teaching was a very positive experience.

This group was also of the opinion that participation in student organizations, particularly Phi Beta Lambda, while in college, positively contributed to success in classrooms. For many this experience inspired involvement in Future Business Leaders of America in their respective schools.

Perception analysis for Group 2 teachers revealed three conceptual categories: inadequate methods courses, positive student teaching, and business experience. Five of these six teachers believed they were inadequately prepared by the professors who were supposed to teach them how to teach. Teacher 2F said:

The professors did a very poor job in my methods courses. Writing papers did not prepare me to be a teacher. They never talked about the paperwork involved or how to deal with discipline problems.

Group 2 teachers did, however, express satisfaction with student teaching experiences. This statement from teacher 2E is representative:

My student teaching was the most valuable thing I've ever done. I learned more in those 10 weeks than I did during the whole time I was in college.

The majority of Group 2 teachers stated that they worked while going to school, and believed that experience was of great benefit to them in the classroom. Teacher 2Cs statement reflects this sentiment:

I worked several jobs while in school. My students can ask me questions that I can answer based on my experiences.

Conclusions

From an historical perspective on teaching effectiveness, Barr (1948) determined that an effective teacher is one who is enthusiastic, can manage a classroom, give attention to individual needs, motivate students, stimulate thought, and cooperate with other teachers. Barr's findings are supported by this study. An effective business education teacher is one whose career centers around his/her students. His/her mission is to facilitate students' successes in the classroom and beyond, and the teacher's greatest career satisfaction comes from witnessing the same.

While neither group of teachers came to teaching in a direct way, a key motivator for staying in the profession was successes of students both in and out of the classroom. These

groups of business teachers treat their students as individuals working toward professional growth and development. They also willingly embrace the challenge of extracting best effort from every student.

While all study participants had good working relationships with administrators, all did not feel that their administrators would always be supportive of their efforts.

With regard to professional roles and practices, all teachers believed that classroom performance hinged on staying up to date with the latest information and technology. Staff development workshops played key roles in helping teachers stay current. None, however, were optimistic about the future of business education, primarily because of increased emphasis on academic courses.

Both groups of teachers had positive student teaching experiences which they strongly felt prepared them well for careers in teaching. Not all, however, felt as strongly about undergraduate methods courses.

Summary

Participants provided insight to their perceptions of motivations and abilities, students, teaching environments, professional roles and practices, and teacher preparation. While there is much agreement between award recipients and non-recipients, there is considerable disagreement with regard to: support from faculty outside vocational education, commitment to professional organizations, and teacher preparation experience.

This is, perhaps, not surprising. One might anticipate that an individual who earned an award for teaching excellence would not only be motivated primarily by students' successes, but would also be committed to working with all faculty to ensure the best educational experiences for students and to continuing professional growth and development.

These results are in agreement with the findings of Roush (1987), Simmons (1987), and Rose (1989) which focused on intangible qualities of effective teachers; such as, instilling self-confidence, encouraging creativity, and possessing fairness, empathy, and humor. This information is especially important to teacher educators. Daily they should reinforce that teaching effectiveness requires both affective and cognitive skills.

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