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A Study of the Effects of a Career Counseling Seminar on Self-Efficacy in Displaced Homemakers

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**A STUDY OF THE EFFECTS
OF A CAREER COUNSELING SEMINAR
ON SELF-EFFICACY IN DISPLACED HOMEMAKERS**

Mary B. Knopf, B.A.

**An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Lindenwood College in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts**

1994

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate issues relevant to divorced displaced homemakers and to measure the effects of a career counseling seminar (Seminar for Success) on levels of self-efficacy. The design was Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest with a nonequivalent control group. The control group consisted of 30 adult female students attending Lindenwood College (Masters of Counseling Program) in June, 1994. Levels of self-efficacy were tested and re-tested with a one week interval between testings with no intervention. The experimental group included 30 adult females attending "Seminar for Success" at Florissant Valley and Meramac Community Colleges in St. Louis, Missouri in April and May of 1994. Levels of self-efficacy were measured before and after the seminar with a five day interval between testings via a survey questionnaire consisting of the Self-Efficacy Scale (SES). The experimental group participated in exercises and received information designed to increase self-knowledge, to integrate self-knowledge with career knowledge, and to create a career plan. The question posed: Can a three day career counseling seminar designed for displaced homemakers raise the level of self-efficacy? A non-directional independent t-test

was performed on the mean gain scores to test the hypothesis that there would be no difference in self-efficacy at .05 alpha level for the displaced homemakers who participated in the career counseling workshop versus the control group who did not participate in the workshop. The results of the research supported the hypothesis that there was no significant statistical difference between the groups. However, the question posed can be answered in the affirmative as the experimental group mean gain scores were higher than the control group mean gain scores.

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**Dedicated in memory
of my friend Jan.**

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Today in the United States, Berger (1988) noted that about half of all marriages end in divorce shattering lives and breaking up family units leaving the displaced homemaker with both emotional and career counseling issues. The term "displaced homemaker", coined in 1975 by a group of California women who drafted the first piece of legislation, is defined as:

women (or men) who have lost their source of economic support through divorce, separation, widowhood, ineligibility for public assistance or the disablement of their spouses, and are forced to enter the work force after spending a substantial number of years at home caring for their families (McAllister & Ponterotto, 1992, p. 29).

It is estimated that the size of this population is between 206,000 and 4.1 million people (mostly women) depending on the definition of the population (McAllister & Ponterotto, 1992).

Divorce is the second highest life stressor (death of spouse is first), according to the Social Readjustment Rating Scale developed by Holmes and Rahe (Franken, 1988). Divorce touches every facet of one's life and can be both devastating and a great catalyst for personal growth (Fisher, 1989).

Morris (1990) suggested that the six overlapping and complex issues of a marriage ending are: emotional

divorce, legal divorce, economic divorce, coparental divorce, community divorce, and psychic divorce. For the homemaker, divorce is a major transition of the family unit, social relationships, financial security, and work. The multifaceted losses can lead to feelings of helplessness and low self-esteem depending on how the individual perceives the situation (Wood, 1989). Losing one's marriage, job, and financial support can be devastating as these factors are closely linked to one's identity, self-esteem, and self worth (Isaacson & Brown, 1993; Morris, 1990). In regard to the displaced homemaker, who had little or no experience working outside the home, the job was the family and home.

A counselor must be prepared to deal with personal development needs, as well as, career development needs. It is of vital importance for the counselor to be sensitive to the issues surrounding divorce and knowledgeable in career counseling theories that apply specifically to women and are inclusive of factors that are significant to women's career development (Isaacson & Brown, 1993).

According to Wolfe, (1988) there are fifty million women in the work force, either willingly or under some compulsion as emphasized in the following quote:

With irreversible changes in the culture in response to all facets of the women's movement,

the revolution in the status of women can most simply be summarized in the fact that these women can't go home again. Many can't go home again because of the economic demands which are made upon them, and many others won't go home again because now their aspirations have become linked with the rewards associated with employment. The bottom line is that fifty million women are seeking equality in the world of work (Wolfe, 1988, p. 156).

Over the past decade, due to the effects of the changing social conditions, women have attracted the attention of those who provide career counseling services. Betz (1992) suggested that a counselor's first task is to ascertain areas that are blocking the client's career options, decisions, or implementation due to perceived low self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is perceived as the belief in one's own competence.

The issues center around the client's goals to become both emotionally and economically self-sufficient. These goals are effected by various factors investigated in the literature including a history of social conditions, attitudes and gender-based theories, personal developmental needs, career developmental needs, and self-efficacy theories.

The purpose of this present study was to explore the complex counseling issues relevant to the divorced displaced homemaker and to examine the effects of a counseling seminar on levels of self-efficacy. The following question is posed: Can a three day career

counseling seminar designed for displaced homemakers raise the level of self-efficacy? Hypothesis: There is no difference in self-efficacy test scores for displaced homemakers who participated in the career counseling workshop versus the control group who did not participate in the workshop.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Conditions

Over the past century, significant improvement has occurred in the status of women; however, the expectations held by women have also dramatically risen. According to Wolfe, (1988) in spite of the gain, there has been no greater congruence than one century ago. However, Kaminer (1993) stated that a recent Redbook Magazine survey found after over three decades of feminism, the majority of American women think that the women's movement has altered their lives for the better. Wallis (1989) confirmed that the results of a Time Magazine poll on women's issues showed that 94% of the 1000 women surveyed felt that the women's movement helped make women more independent, 77% felt life was better, and 84% said feminism was still improving the lives of American women (See Appendix A).

From the 1940's to the 1980's the social role of the middle-aged woman changed dramatically (Ackerman, 1990). Women were preoccupied with home, family concerns, and community activities in the 1940's and 1950's. During the transitional decades of the 1960's and 1970's the number of women in the work force

increased (Ozawa, 1976). The 1960 United States Department of Labor statistics showed that the trend from domesticity toward economic independence had begun with 37.7% of the women (ages 16-70) employed outside the home (Wolfe, 1988). In 1980, women in the work force doubled that of 1970 (Ackerman, 1990).

The Industrial Revolution reshaped work, society, and the family. The family shifted from producing to consuming as the economy shifted from manufacturing to a service emphasis. Projections for the 1990's are that 70% of all women will be employed or looking for a job. Currently 70% of the women who work, do so because of economic necessity because they are single, widowed, divorced, or married to men who earn under \$15,000 annually (Wolfe, 1988).

Berger (1988) stated that married couples are divorcing four times as often as fifty years ago. Reasons for divorce given by men and women include communication problems, unhappiness, incompatibility, emotional and physical abuse, financial problems, sexual problems, infidelity, alcohol abuse, in-laws, and women's liberation (See Appendix B).

The social factor of the no-fault divorce law permitting divorce on the assertion of incompatibility clearly impacted the rising numbers of divorces. The

divorce rate rose by 34% in California in 1971 (the year following the no fault law); as other states followed, their divorce rate also soared (Berger, 1988). In 1990, according to the United States Census Bureau (1993), women (ages 30-44) were expected to end up with the highest divorce rate (40-42%), women under 30 were expected to have a divorce rate of 38-39%, and women age 45-54 were expected to have a divorce rate of 30-36%.

McAllister and Ponterotto (1992) assessed that the no fault divorce code of the 1970's leaves women with fewer financial resources following the breakup of the marriage. It is estimated that women and their minor children experience a 73% decline in their standard of living in the first year after divorce, while the former husbands experience a 42% rise in their standard of living. The courts do not typically require the husband to pay maintenance and often the only recognized asset in the division of property is the home. Often the divorced wife and children are forced to sell the home, move, and change neighborhoods and schools. Placing the burden of child support on both partners caused many women to be caught between a generation which revered domesticity and a generation which relied on economic independence of both sexes (Hewlett, 1986).

In the 1960's and 1970's, Wolfe (1988) felt there was a general apathy for women's career counseling needs. The increased female enrollment in higher education, changes in gender stereotypes depicted in elementary school textbooks, the initiation of legislature to help women, and integration of women into the work force unions and professional societies increased the visibility of women. All of these factors represent a greater commitment from society to meet the needs of women.

Attitudes and Gender-Based Theories

In the 1960's, when more than 13,000 female graduates were asked to define success, the two most frequent replies were to be a mother of several accomplished children and a wife of a prominent man (Wallis, 1989). The sentiments of the "American dream" are represented in the following quote by Maggie Tripp:

The American ideal was to catch a man
before you were too old, say twenty two,
and to take a deep breath,
disappear into a suburban ranch house
and not come up for air until your children
("a boy for you and a girl for me")
were safely married (Weitz, 1977, p. 131).

This vision was perpetuated by our culture through the media and socialization of the children at home and in school. The "American dream" of material comforts and psychological security had a tremendous hold on

individuals and was a definite factor in shaping of life plans. Weitz (1977) stated that these life plans were sharply demarcated by sex, and form the core of the American sex role system of the division of domestic and occupational labor.

Employed women's issues center around child bearing and child rearing issues. Currently, nine million preschoolers require care while their mothers work (Wolfe, 1988). "For many women, perhaps most, motherhood versus personal ambition represents the heart of the feminine dilemma" (Wolfe, 1988, p. 158).

Franken (1988) claimed that studies suggest there are sex differences in competitiveness that are culturally based. Boys tend to attribute failure to luck and girls tend to attribute failure to lack of skill. Austin (1984) proposed in her sociopsychological theory that women's career choice was need-based on motivation, expectations, sex-role socialization, and opportunity. Motivation appeared to be similar in men and women, based on primary needs of survival, pleasure, and contribution. Because sex-role socialization and opportunities differ between males and females, she suggested different expectations for women.

According to Franken, (1988) studies have shown

that a large part of our society, men as well as women, may still view intellectual activities as masculine. However, as reported in Career Opportunities News (1993) the number of master's degrees awarded was four times higher in 1990 than 1960 and about 60% of them were earned by women. The typical master's student was female, over 30, attended college part-time, and received no financial aid.

Franken (1988) reported that perhaps the fear of success attributed to women is a perception of lack of the ability required to succeed. This perception could account for women's tendency to select tasks that depend on luck, rather than on skill, to be less persistent than men, to attribute failure in competition with men as lack of ability, and to blame themselves when they fail. Research from a variety of sources suggested that this low ability perception is learned from parents (especially the mother) and may be reinforced by teachers. There is also evidence that this perception may vary depending on culture and socioeconomic factors.

Gottfredson (1981) proposed in her theory that childhood developmental stages accounts for gender differences as to how an individual views occupations according to gender, level of work, and field of work.

The suitability of occupation is based on self-concept which has been influenced by experiences in childhood from approximately ages 3-16.

Based on the social learning theory of Bandura, Hackett and Betz (1981) developed a theory on self-efficacy. This theory suggested that women have lower career expectations than men because gender-role socialization has prevented women access to information that would help create higher expectations.

Gilligan (1982) thought that women's developmental models are different from male developmental models, but not deviant. Women's judgments may be based on a relational bias, as females tend to define their identity through relationships of intimacy and care.

The need to reduce sex-stereotyping in career planning is demonstrated by the following:

1. In 1985, women represented only 2% of the membership of the U.S. Senate and 5% of the House of Representatives, less than 2% of school superintendents, and 9% of college presidents, 10% of full professors, and 5% of top executives in American corporations.
2. At least 75% of jobs in the higher paying professions are still held by men.
3. The inactivity rate (not employed, in school, or in the military) for non-white men was 27% in 1983, but for non-white women it was 45.6%.
4. The college educated women in 1983 did not receive as much money in wages as a man with only a high school diploma.

5. Women continue to be overrepresented in occupations growing most slowly, and underrepresented among those growing fastest (Hoyt, 1989).

Kaminer (1993) proposed that the feminine weaknesses that were presumed to accompany feminine virtues justified the two-tier labor force that kept women out of executive positions, politics, and high paying manual labor jobs. Painton (1993) noted that women will never be truly equal in the work force until men assume significantly greater responsibility for child rearing. It is perceived that the value of parenting and housework will increase the more men get involved. Fagenson (1990) stated studies have suggested feminine characteristics to be relatively detrimental to careers, although this perception is beginning to change among female middle managers. The research revealed that there is a relationship between individuals' perceptions of the attributes or identities, their gender, and organizational position.

McAllister and Ponterotto (1992) claimed that research suggested there are differences between men and women in their career development. Men and women base their decisions about working and pursuing training on different sets of values. Women's decisions are tied to their marital status and child bearing, whereas men's are not.

Isaacson and Brown (1993) reported that it has been proposed that there is a great enough difference between male white American workers and both women and ethnic minorities to justify and require two separate career developmental theories. The authors felt more research needs to be completed and evaluated before that step could be taken.

Personal Development Needs

Counseling the divorced displaced homemaker whose needs are multifaceted is a challenge for the career counselor. The displaced individual is dealing with the complex and overlapping losses of the marriage which include loss of spouse, financial support, property, the family unit, married friends, support, and (for some individuals) loss of identity (Morris, 1990).

Fisher (1989) pointed out many people suffer a loss of identity through divorce and are dealing with the issue of gaining new autonomy. The self image has been bruised. It is common for newly divorced people to say they do not know who they are; individuals often have to reconstruct their self-confidence, self-esteem, and self-worth. Following the ending of a marriage, it is not uncommon for individuals to experience feelings of a sense of failure, loneliness, and fear from loss

in all aspects of their life. The displaced women is not often able to think in terms of the future until her immediate basic needs are met. The basic needs of meeting house and car payments and providing food often loom as one of the largest pressing problems (Dean & Dowling, 1992). Another need is to grieve. As Morris (1990) stated the natural response to loss is grief and the counselor needs to have an understanding of the grieving process and stages of denial, anger, bargaining, letting go, and acceptance.

Wood (1989) proposed that counselors will be more effective in working with divorced displaced homemakers if they examine the effects of learned helplessness. "Learned helplessness is a phenomenon that results when repeated life experiences are interpreted by people to be an indication that they are not in control of their own fate" (Wood, 1989, p. 4). Success in making the transition from homemaker to paid worker in the job force may well depend on the attributions or reasons given for their failed marriages.

Wood (1989) found the helplessness-prone individual may experience deficits in the areas of cognition, motivation, emotion, and self-esteem. Displaced homemakers who seek assistance in entering the work force may bring with them residual effects of

a failed or ended marriage. They will need sensitive counselors in changing their maladaptive attributions and expectations if they are to become mastery-oriented, productive workers. "Their most important challenge is to believe in themselves as persons who are capable of exercising control over their own lives and making things happen" (Wood, 1989, p. 10).

McAllister and Ponterotto (1992) recommended a group process to enhance the therapeutic value of the experience for displaced homemakers. The primary factors of the group experience are as follows: instillation of hope, universality, imparting of information, altruism, development of socializing techniques, and interpersonal learning. Group counseling is effective for providing support to one another which women in transition need to discuss plans and goals. They need to understand that communication skills, including self-promotion, are part of the labor force participation. Professional counselors can help women project their confidence through group interaction (Wolfe, 1988).

The following observations were made by Ackerman (1990) in career development and transitions of middle aged women:

1. Choice in job leaving and job procuring is a most favorable situation. Psychological

adjustment is superior when choice is inherent in the transitional process. However, concurrent stress levels are likely to be high. Creative coping skills help lessen the strain of transition.

2. A moderate degree of optimism and healthy proportion of high self-esteem ease the transition adjustment. Too little or too much optimism appears to generate reactive, rigid, or homeostatic coping styles, and results in lower levels of psychological adaptation.
3. Social support networks (family, community, and professional) are vital in perceived emotional, financial, and task management efficacy.
4. The key to creative coping style is the ability to generalize old learning to new situations in flexible ways (Ackerman, 1990).

Fisher (1989) stated that the trauma of divorce motivates people to take an inventory of their life. They tend to dwell on the past, are in a great deal of emotional pain, and have little hope. People in emotional pain cannot make plans and set goals for the future. The sensitive counselor is aware that personal needs must be addressed, and in the process of resolution, before action can be taken to plan for the future.

Dean and Dowling (1992) stressed that when counseling the displaced person to develop future orientation, the following factors need to be addressed: (1) help clients focus on past successes, (2) build on the strength of their support systems, (3) help develop an increased awareness of options, (4)

help clients to detach from the past, (5) help develop an active and positive use of time, and (6) help increase levels of self-esteem through the first five interventions. Future orientation and increased levels of self-esteem are needed to reduce psychological barriers and allow movement forward into successfully meeting career developmental needs.

Career Developmental Needs

Wiberg and Mayor (1985) noted that during the last decade, over 400 programs were developed nationwide to serve displaced homemakers. Because of the limited financial resources of the displaced homemaker, programs funded under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act and the Vocational Education Act are attempting to reach these women offering a wide variety of services. These services include testing, career planning, education and training information, assessment of transferable skills, non-traditional job information, interviewing techniques, resume writing, job market information, goal setting, and assertiveness training (Lee & Smiley, 1981). Career counseling is designed to help the displaced homemaker make an informed decision and develop a career plan (Wiberg & Mayor, 1985).

Career planning is just as important for women as

it is for men, but because women tend to have a history of short-range planning, they may initially have difficulty with sequential long-range planning. The counselor can inform and help integrate the long range view into the client's career decision making process (Wolfe, 1988).

It is essential to encourage realism, while remaining optimistic, in counseling the divorced displaced homemaker to coordinate the present financial situation, career choices, necessary education or training, and child-rearing (Wircenski, 1983). For example, it may be possible for the displaced homemaker to work part-time while continuing her education or training full-time if receiving maintenance and or child-support via the divorce settlement. Others are forced to work full-time, in less than desirable jobs, while continuing their education to later gain employment in their desired careers. It is vital for the counselor to give encouragement and support the client's decisions.

Wolfe (1988) suggested that discussion of the developmental life stages and supplemental reading material may help counseling women in transition. According to Isaacson and Brown (1993), Super's life span approach regarding the process of change consists

of a sequence of the following stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. These stages have subdivisions of (1) fantasy, tentative, and the realistic phase of the exploratory stage, and (2) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage. When destabilization occurs in transition of life events, a mini cycle takes place causing new growth, reexploration, and reestablishment.

According to Wolfe (1988), interest, ability, and aptitude tests have less relevance for mature woman than for mature men due to gender differences, and thus care should be taken to choose assessing tools appropriate to the population. Several of the tests suggested to improve career decision making were the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS), and the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) (Miller, 1992).

Miller (1992) stated the MBTI seems useful for application of psychological self-awareness. It yields scores of four bipolar scales: extroversion-introversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling, and judgement-perception. The SCII can be used to identify many specific careers for consideration while the MBTI will give a better understanding of "why" those careers are attractive within the framework of the client's

life pattern. Isaacson and Brown (1993) described the SDS as an instrument which is self-administered, self-scored, and self-interpreted into three letter codes representing realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. The code letters correspond to an Occupational Finder to help locate careers which should be of interest to the client.

Miller's (1993) research showed that people with dissimilar MBTI-type preferences and Holland three letter codes generally differ in attitudes and behaviors in the work place. Knowledge of type and code can be useful information for the counselor and displaced homemaker in career making decisions (See Appendix C).

Gathering occupational information of career choices, education needed, skills needed, work environment, future of the job market, and salary is necessary to help clarify, generate new alternatives, and eliminate others. Wolfe (1988) suggested educating the displaced homemaker in nontraditional fields is important because the outlook for some of the traditional occupations for women is bleak. Galassi, Jones, and Britt (1985) reported the majority of women are still in relatively few occupational positions.

They reported that 80% of all clerical, 70% of all retail sales clerk positions, 98% of all domestic service jobs, and approximately 60% of nonhousehold service jobs are filled by women. This data suggested that little progress has been made to broaden the career horizons of women entering the labor force.

On the other hand, Pollard and Tordella (1993) documented a sizable female presence has emerged in many traditionally male occupations. During the decade of 1980 to 1990, women became a majority of workers in the professional and specialty occupations. Women made major gains as professional workers in male dominated occupations such as doctors (135% gain), dentists (233% gain), and lawyers (205% gain) during the 1980's. Wolfe (1988) advised it is fundamental for career counselors to help women see real alternatives so that they can move beyond traditional barriers in the work place.

Another option some displaced homemakers want to explore is owning their own small business. Lee and Smiley (1981) reported that some counseling centers offer programs focused on an overall business program for those who want to begin a business. Bamford (1993) stated that more people are now employed by women-owned businesses than by the Fortune 500. It is estimated

that women-owned businesses have increased by at least 20% last year alone, to more than 6.5 million. It is vital for the counselor and client to assess transferable skills from the home and community activities to the market place. These include skills such as communicating, writing, fund-raising, scheduling, managing, and public speaking (Isaacson & Brown, 1993). More technical skills such as sewing, cake decorating, floral arranging, and cooking could be adapted to owning a small business. (e.g. bridal, catering).

To give women hope and encouragement, role modeling is another significant aspect in counseling the displaced homemaker. A short presentation may be given by women in the community as to how their job was obtained, skills needed, pay level, hours, and opportunities in the field. The programs also offer inservice workshops for faculty and seminars to community employers and agency personnel to explain goals and objectives and to promote cooperation (Lee & Smiley, 1981).

The counselor needs to be aware of possible barriers to the client making a smooth transition from school to work. Labor market expectations require that the women have good communication skills, competent job

hunting skills, and know how to develop an effective resume. According to Wolfe (1988), many times women will include too much information in their resumes such as date of birth, marital status, and number of children.

In order for programs facilitated by community colleges for the adult disadvantaged to be effective, they must embody several characteristics. Wircenski (1983) stated the counseling process should include accurate assessment, be geared to immediate needs, not operate in isolation, provide social, emotional, and academic support, provide tutorial programs to supplement classroom instruction, continuous staff and faculty development to maintain high standards, and a commitment to society.

Self-Efficacy Theories

Self-efficacy is perceived as the belief in one's own competence. Bandura developed a theory which proposed self-efficacy expectations develop through and are also modified by four sources of experiential information. These sources include performance accomplishments, vicarious (observational) learning, emotional arousal, and verbal persuasion (encouragement) (Betz, 1992; Eden & Aviram, 1993). The consequences of perceived self-efficacy are choice

versus avoidance, performance in the domain, and persistence in the face of obstacles (Betz, 1992) (See Appendix D).

Research by Locke, Frederick, Lee, and Bobko (1984) found that self-efficacy effected goal level, task performance, and goal commitment (when goals were self-set). Their study also showed that self-efficacy is influenced by training in task strategies. These results gave strong support to Bandura's claim that self-efficacy is a key causal variable in performance.

Organizational psychologists have successfully treated self-efficacy as a causal variable adaptable to manipulation. In a laboratory experiment, Garland and Adkinson (1985) used goal setting and verbal persuasion to raise expectations and performance based on Bandura's theory. A study by Caplan, Vinokur, Price, and van Ryn (1989) showed that self-efficacy training for the unemployed in a workshop setting, increased reemployment. A benefit-cost analysis gave evidence that the long-term benefit to the participants and the dollar return to the state for the investment was highly cost-effective.

Brockner (1988) found that persons with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external influence, such as by experimenters, managers, mentors, than are

individuals with high self-esteem. Eden and Aviram (1993) suggest that interventions that are beneficial for individuals with low self-efficacy are not as beneficial for those with high self-efficacy. They suggest that if it can be shown that behavioral modeling helps low general self-efficacy, but not high self-efficacy, training costs could be saved through a screening process. They propose that training effectiveness could be improved by finding what is effective for those with high self-efficacy.

Unemployment researchers agree that self-esteem declines with job loss and is regained with reemployment. The more prolonged the unemployment, the greater the erosion of self-efficacy. An intervention that raises self-efficacy should trigger a positive self-fulfilling prophecy process whereby the unemployed intensify their job search and find work quickly (Eden & Aviram, 1993; Betz, 1992). Betz (1992) suggests that individuals with self-efficacy deficits may procrastinate (avoidance in Bandura's theory) making career decisions or may delay implementing a decision that has been made.

In regard to career counseling, Betz (1992) suggested that the counselor's first task is to ascertain areas that are blocking the client's career

options, decisions, or implementation due to perceived low self-efficacy. The counselor can design interventions that increase expectation of efficacy once the domain of interest is identified. Gender-role socialization may have led to limited efficacy causing women to underestimate and underuse their abilities.

Betz (1992) recommended that career counseling programs for women should attempt to use all four sources of efficacy information in the design of the intervention. Some ways to implement these procedures would be to structure successful performance accomplishments, demonstrate role modeling, teach anxiety and stress management, and use verbal persuasion and encouragement through goal setting techniques.

In summary, the displaced homemaker's self-efficacy is influenced by multifaceted issues concerning socialization, gender-based attitudes, personal developmental needs, and career developmental needs. It is vitally important for counselors to be sensitive to the issues surrounding divorce and knowledgeable in career counseling theories that apply specifically to women. Effective career counseling unblocks problem areas resulting in a higher belief in one's own competence, thus stimulating the process of employment.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects participating in the experimental group were 30 women attending a three day seminar for displaced homemakers at Florissant Valley Community College and Meramac Community College in April and May of 1994. Those present at the beginning of the session on the first day were asked to participate on a voluntary basis, thus using self-selected sampling. On the fifth day following the intervention "Seminar For Success" the group was retested. All present chose to participate in the testing. Of the 34 matched sets of tests, 30 were chosen using a random number table. One pretest and two posttests were eliminated due to the absence of these subjects to take the test two times.

The control group consisted of 30 volunteer female M.A. in Counseling students at Lindenwood College attending Theories, Statistics, or Psychological Testing classes in June of 1994. This group was tested and again retested at a one week interval with no intervention. No incentives were given to either group. The following information displays the demographics for both groups (See Table 1).

Demographics n = 30	TABLE 1 Experimental Group	Control Group
White	27 (90.0%)*	28 (93.3%)*
Black	3 (10.0%)	2 (06.7%)
Age		
18-30	3 (10.0%)	9 (30.0%)
31-40	9 (30.0%)	9 (30.0%)
41-50	15 (50.0%)*	12 (40.0%)*
51-60	3 (10.0%)	0 (00.0%)
Marital Status		
Married	12 (40.0%)*	17 (56.6%)*
Separated	9 (30.0%)	2 (06.7%)
Divorced	4 (13.3%)	6 (20.0%)
Widowed	2 (06.7%)	0 (00.0%)
Single	3 (10.0%)	5 (16.7%)
Years Married		
0	3 (10.0%)	5 (16.7%)
1-5	0 (00.0%)	8 (26.7%)*
6-10	7 (23.3%)*	7 (23.3%)
11-15	5 (16.7%)	7 (23.3%)
16-20	4 (13.3%)	0 (00.0%)
21-25	5 (16.7%)	1 (03.3%)
26-30	4 (13.3%)	2 (06.7%)
30+	2 (06.7%)	0 (00.0%)
Years of Education		
12	14 (46.7%)*	0 (00.0%)
13	6 (20.0%)	0 (00.0%)
14	7 (23.3%)	0 (00.0%)
14+	3 (10.0%)	30 (100.0%)*
Years of Work Experience		
1-5	7 (23.3%)	1 (03.3%)
6-10	10 (33.3%)*	9 (30.0%)*
11-15	9 (30.0%)	8 (26.7%)
16-20	2 (06.7%)	4 (13.3%)
20+	2 (06.7%)	8 (26.7%)
Worked Outside Home		
Part-time	4 (13.3%)	1 (03.3%)
Full-time	4 (13.3%)	15 (50.0%)*
Both	17 (56.7%)*	14 (46.7%)
None	5 (16.7%)	0 (00.0%)

* = majority in each category

Materials

A questionnaire consisting of the Self-Efficacy Scale (SES) (Sherer, Maddox, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, & Rogers, 1982) was administered by the researcher in a group setting to the subjects before and after the "Seminar For Success" to measure levels of self-efficacy. The survey included a cover page giving an explanation, demographic questions, and instructions followed by 30 statements to be answered according to a Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." (See Appendix E and F).

The SES is a scale designed to measure general expectations of self-efficacy that are not tied to specific situations or behavior. The underlying assumptions of this scale are that personal expectations of mastery are a major determinant of behavioral change. The SES scale was originally normed on 376 undergraduate psychology students and 150 Veterans Hospital alcohol treatment inpatients. It was used as an index of progress measuring self-efficacy before and after the intervention (Seminar For Success).

The SES consists of subscales which measure general and social self-efficacy on an interval level of measurement. It was reported to have internal

consistency with alphas of .86 (general subscale) and .71 (social subscale). The SES was shown to have good criterion-related validity by accurately predicting that those subjects with higher self-efficacy would have greater success than those who scored lower in self-efficacy in past vocational, educational, and monetary goals. The SES scale has correlated significantly in predicted directions with the Ego Strength Scale, the Interpersonal Competence Scale, and the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale demonstrating construct validity (Sherer, et al., 1985).

Seven items are fillers and not scored. Items presented in the negative fashion are reverse-scored and then all items are summed. The higher the score, the higher the level of self-efficacy expectations. (See Appendix G).

Procedure

The research was based on a Quasi-experimental design with an experimental group (pretest-intervention-posttest) and a nonequivalent control group (test-retest). The experimental group was tested on the first day (Monday), experienced the intervention (Monday, Wednesday, and Friday), and was re-tested on the fifth day (Friday). The control group was tested and re-tested one week later with no intervention.

After a short explanation of the program by the counselor facilitating the seminar on the first day, the researcher explained that data was being gathered for a study. All of the subjects were willing to participate and the surveys were handed out. Upon completion, the surveys were collected and the subjects were thanked for their cooperation. On Friday, following the graduation exercise, the group was retested. All present chose to participate and were thanked again for their cooperation. Neither group had knowledge that the test was going to be repeated.

The control group was surveyed both times at the beginning of Theories class, on the break in Statistics class, and at the conclusion of the Psychological Testing class. This group was given the same information as the experimental group and was retested one week later in their respective classes.

The intervention "Seminar for Success" goals were to increase self knowledge relevant to the development of an employment plan, integrate self knowledge with career knowledge, and create a career plan. The program was designed for displaced homemakers to help clarify needs, interests, skills, values, and personality type, to give information about careers, education, financial aid, job interviewing, resume

writing, goal setting, and assertiveness training, to demonstrate role modeling, and to provide support. (See Appendix H).

After the introduction and overview of the program, to help clarify needs and practice interaction, each woman was asked to introduce another and indicate reasons for being in the group. The following assessment tools were administered and processed for self knowledge. The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) was chosen to help clarify interests, skills, and values. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was utilized to promote psychological awareness and understanding of personality types. The Holland Self Directed Search was used to assess environmental comfort in various work force settings. Types of careers and education needed were discussed and correlated to personality types, interests, skills, and values of the participants.

Interpersonal communication skills, as they relate to the job interview were introduced, discussed, and practiced. Careers were discussed in terms of skills, personality, settings, fears, interpersonal dynamics, needs, talents, and financial realities. The participants were introduced to the career information

center at the college.

Resume writing was taught using hand-outs explaining effective ways to write and interview skills were role-played. Identifying employment goals and the factors about the self utilized to arrive at those goals were processed.

Participants were interviewed on video tape telling the interviewer about themselves, their goals, and what kind of a job they were looking for. This exercise emphasized interpersonal communication skills and focused on listening for clarification of what the interviewer was asking. The tape was critiqued for feedback from peers and staff identifying strengths and areas of difficulty.

Guest speakers included a past participant of the program and a business woman from the community. These people talked about their training, skills, job descriptions, and opportunities in their respective fields.

Each participant gave and received feedback from peers and staff on positive qualities which were written out to help enhance self-esteem and self-confidence. The graduation exercise and program evaluation were completed at the end of the workshop. The program was evaluated by the participants at

the conclusion of each seminar on a Likert scale rating each category. There also was opportunity to write program improvement comments.

The Florissant Community College facilitator holds a Masters degree in Guidance and Counseling and an Ed. S. in Education and Psychological Studies; the Meramac Community College facilitator holds a Masters degree in Counseling. The seminar for displaced homemakers is a state funded program; there was a charge of \$5.00 to the participants to cover materials. After completing the seminar, additional individual counseling was offered to those who were interested.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

All pretests and posttests were coded by date of birth in order to match the two tests for scoring purposes. A total of 120 tests (30 pretests and 30 posttests for 2 groups) were hand scored and ranked in order from the greatest positive difference to the greatest negative difference (See Tables 3 and 4). Testing for equality of variances in the control and experimental group pretests using SPSS showed no significant difference between the groups, therefore homogeneity and equal means were assumed.

Control Group

The control group pretest mean score was 90.77 with a SD of 8.87 compared to the posttest mean score of 89.53 with a SD of 9.07. The minimum pretest score was 66 and the maximum score was 104 with a range of 38, opposed to the minimum posttest score of 72 with a maximum score of 107 with a range of 35 (See Table 3).

The majority (16) of the scores fell in the fourth interval (90-99) with the curve skewed to the left in the pretest. The posttest curve was skewed to the right with the majority (13) of the scores also in the 90-99 interval. The shape of the curves and the frequency distribution can be viewed by the stem and leaf plot (See Table 5).

Table 3
Distribution of Paired Raw Score Differences
Control Group
N = 30

SUBJECT	TEST SCORES	RETEST SCORES	DIFFERENCE
1.	85	92	+7
2.	66	72	+6
3.	97	101	+4
4.	95	99	+4
5.	80	84	+4
6.	104	107	+3
7.	102	105	+3
8.	95	98	+3
9.	95	98	+3
10.	80	83	+3
11.	76	78	+2
12.	90	91	+1
13.	93	93	0
14.	100	99	-1
15.	92	91	-1
16.	85	84	-1
17.	81	80	-1
18.	99	96	-3
19.	95	92	-3
20.	103	99	-4
21.	99	94	-5
22.	86	81	-5
23.	93	87	-6
24.	91	85	-6
25.	90	84	-6
26.	81	75	-6
27.	94	87	-7
28.	98	90	-8
29.	83	75	-8
30.	95	86	-9
Totals:	2723	2686	-37
Means:	90.77	89.53	1.23
Medians:	93.00	91.00	-1.00
Modes:	95.00	84,99	+3.00
SD:	8.87	9.07	
Minimum:	66.00	72.00	-9.00
Maximum:	104.00	107.00	+7.00
Range:	38.00	35.00	16.00

Table 4
Distribution of Paired Raw Score Differences
Experimental Group
N = 30

SUBJECT	PRE-TREATMENT SCORES	POST-TREATMENT SCORES	DIFFERENCE
1.	67	94	+27
2.	65	87	+22
3.	67	88	+21
4.	81	100	+19
5.	67	85	+18
6.	85	103	+18
7.	72	89	+17
8.	85	100	+15
9.	74	88	+14
10.	72	85	+13
11.	90	97	+ 7
12.	73	79	+ 6
13.	88	92	+ 4
14.	82	86	+ 4
15.	79	83	+ 4
16.	78	82	+ 4
17.	68	72	+ 4
18.	87	90	+ 3
19.	81	84	+ 3
20.	98	99	+ 1
21.	86	87	+ 1
22.	77	78	+ 1
23.	89	89	0
24.	88	86	- 2
25.	106	103	- 3
26.	91	88	- 3
27.	79	74	- 5
28.	88	82	- 6
29.	101	94	- 7
30.	79	70	- 9
Totals:	2443	2634	191
Means:	81.43	87.80	6.37
Medians:	81.00	88.00	+4
Modes:	67,79,88	88.00	+4
SD:	10.73	8.57	
Minimum:	65.00	70.00	-9
Maximum:	106.00	103.00	+27
Range:	41.00	33.00	36

Table 5
Stem and Leaf Plot
Pretest-Control Group

Frequency	Stem	Leaf
1.00	6	6
1.00	7	6
8.00	8	0,0,1,1,3,5,5,6
16.00	9	0,0,1,2,3,3,4,5,5,5,5,5,7,8,9,9
4.00	10	0,2,3,4

Posttest-Control Group

Frequency	Stem	Leaf
4.00	7	2,5,5,8
10.00	8	0,1,3,4,4,4,5,6,7,7
13.00	9	0,1,1,2,2,3,4,6,8,8,9,9,9
3.00	10	1,5,7

Stem width: 10.00
Each leaf: 1 case

Table 6
Stem and Leaf Plot
Pretest-Experimental Group

Frequency	Stem	Leaf
5.00	6	5,7,7,7,8
9.00	7	2,2,3,4,7,8,9,9,9
11.00	8	1,1,2,5,5,6,7,8,8,8,9
3.00	9	0,1,8
2.00	10	1,6

Posttest-Experimental Group

Frequency	Stem	Leaf
5.00	7	0,2,4,8,9
15.00	8	2,2,3,4,5,5,6,6,7,7,8,8,8,9,9
6.00	9	0,2,4,4,7,9
4.00	10	0,0,3,3

Stem width: 10.00
Each leaf: 1 case

Experimental Group

The experimental group pretest mean score was 81.43 with a SD of 10.37 compared to the posttest mean score of 87.80 with a SD of 8.57. The minimum pretest score was 65 and the maximum score was 106 with a range of 41. The minimum posttest score was 70 and the maximum score was 103 with a range of 33 (See Table 4).

The majority of the test scores (11) fell in the third interval (80-89) with the curve skewed to the right in the pretest. The posttest curve was also skewed to the right with the majority (15) of the scores falling in the 80-89 interval. The shape of the curves and the frequency distribution is displayed by the stem and leaf plot (See Table 6).

A nondirectional t-test for independent samples of the mean gain scores was calculated using SPSS. The control group mean gain score was -1.2333 and a SD of 4.651 with the standard error of the mean of .849 compared to the experimental group mean gain score of 6.3667 and SD of 9.694 with the standard error of the mean of 1.770. The mean difference was -7.6000. Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was calculated with $\alpha = .05$. Results indicated that the variances were not equal, $P = .000$ which was less than α . The t-test for non-homogeneous groups

yielded -3.87 with 41.68 degrees of freedom and SE of difference of 1.963. The value of -3.87 fell within the 95% confidence interval for mean difference of (-3.638, -11.562) (See Table 7).

Table 7
SPSS t-tests for Independent Samples

Variable	Number of cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
DIFF				
Control	30	-1.2333	4.651	.849
Experimental	30	6.3667	9.694	1.770

Mean Difference = -7.600

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F = 15.608
P = .000

t-test for Equality of Means

Variances	t value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	95% CI for Diff
Unequal	-3.87	41.68	.000	1.963	(-3.638, -11.562)

The null hypothesis was accepted. There were no significant mean gain score differences in self-efficacy for displaced homemakers who participated in the career counseling workshop versus the control group who did not participate in the workshop.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The results of this study showed that there was not a significant statistical difference at .05 alpha level in mean gain scores of self-efficacy in displaced homemakers who participated in the workshop versus the control group who did not participate in the workshop. The question posed: Can a three day career counseling seminar designed for displaced homemakers raise the level of self-efficacy? This question can be answered in the affirmative and supports previous studies (Eden & Aviran, 1993; Caplan et al. 1989). The experimental group mean was 6.3667 and the control group mean was 1.2333, however, the data is not statistically significant at .05 using a nondirectional t-test for independent samples.

This study attempted to investigate issues relevant to the displaced homemaker and to measure the effects of a career counseling seminar on levels of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is perceived as the belief in one's own competence and is intimately involved with unemployment. Individuals derive a major portion of self-efficacy from work. Betz (1992) recommended that career counseling programs for women should attempt to use four sources of efficacy

information in the design of the intervention. These sources include performance accomplishments, vicarious (observational) learning, emotional arousal, and verbal persuasion (encouragement).

In a study by Eden and Aviram (1993), the impact of an eight day behavioral modeling workshop boosted general self-efficacy which in turn increased job-search activity. It was noted that treatment increased employment among those with low general self-efficacy (GSE), but not among those with high GSE. It was concluded by the authors of the study that those individuals with low GSE should be given priority access to behavioral-training modeling resources.

Procedures to raise self-efficacy include structuring successful performance accomplishments, demonstrating role modeling, teaching anxiety and stress management, and using verbal persuasion and encouragement through goal setting techniques (Betz, 1992; Eden & Aviram 1993; Lock, et al. 1984). The "Seminar for Success" was designed to help increase self-esteem and self-confidence, to help clarify interests, skills, values, and personality type, to give information about careers, education, financial aid, job interviewing, to demonstrate role modeling, and to provide support. The seminar appears to include

all of the sources Betz (1992) suggested develop self-efficacy. Experimental evidence shows that devising interventions to arm practitioners to help build self-efficacy is within our professional competency. Previous studies have shown that self-efficacy interventions raise levels of self-efficacy and improve reemployment rates (Eden & Aviram, 1993; Caplan, et al, 1989).

The Quasi-experimental design with a nonequivalent control group may have threatened the internal validity of this study. Two conditions need to be met to strengthen this type of field study. They are 1) the control group is "like" the experimental group and 2) both groups are pretested and posttested; one with treatment and one with no treatment. The following confounding variables are noted.

Using the self-selected design could have weakened the study because the two groups are dissimilar in education. The demographics of the two groups showed equivalencies in all categories except for years of education. The majority of the subjects in the experimental group had a high school degree, whereas, all of the subjects in the control group had more than fourteen years of education.

The control group mean pretest SES score was

higher than the experimental group pretest SES score. However, at .05 alpha level, there was not a significant difference, therefore, homogeneity and equal means were assumed.

Sampling was also a concern within the experimental group as subjects were tested at two different locations and the workshops were facilitated by different people, thus making control for conditions impossible. Even though the information and format of testing conditions were the same, the experience for the participants would have been different.

The interaction of selection and maturation could be a source of invalidity as the treatment group was self-selected (attending the seminar was exposure to treatment) and the comparison group was from a different population (adult female Lindenwood College students). The experimental group had a five day interval between testing and the control group was tested seven days later, thus making the passage of time unequal.

Test-retest designs may be confounded by the testing. In the second administration of an attitude scale, the ratings may be higher or lower than in the first test; it is impossible to know if the results of the second test can be attributed to the intervention.

The experimental group pretest mean was lower than the control group mean. Due to differential statistical regression, regression toward the mean was to be expected. The researcher cannot know if the intervention was the cause for the increase. An interesting observation which confirms the study by Eden and Aviram (1993) is that those with the lowest pretest SES scores had the greatest increase of SES scores on the posttest in the experimental group.

The Self-Efficacy Scale which reportedly measures general expectations of self-efficacy was originally normed on 375 undergraduate psychology students and 150 Veteran Hospital alcohol treatment inpatients with alpha levels of .86 for internal consistency. There was no information given regarding gender of subjects and no test-retest data reported. The scale could have weakened the study because the subjects were exclusively female engaged in a pretest and posttest design.

It is suggested that further research developed in measuring the effects of interventions on self-efficacy in displaced homemakers be in a more controlled setting. A preferred situation would be that 1) the control group sample be selected from the population of divorced displaced homemakers, 2) the experimental

group intervention take place at one site with one facilitator, and 3) examine follow up measures on rates of employment. According to the study by Eden and Aviram (1993), those individuals with low self-efficacy scores are most helped by a self-efficacy behavioral modeling workshop.

Counseling the divorced displaced homemaker is a unique challenge to the career counselor due to the multifaceted issues surrounding life transitions of divorce and entry into the work force. It is essential to keep in mind that the goals are to help the client to become emotionally and economically self-sufficient meeting both personal and career developmental needs. Displaced homemakers have been growing in numbers for the past decade. Women who never planned to be part of the labor force are thrust into the job market emotionally and vocationally unprepared to support themselves. Helping the client to assess interests, values, and abilities in a supportive environment, is essential to develop a successful, realistic, yet optimistic plan for the future.

Aspects of achievement and career motivation appear to be different in women than in men. Sex-role orientations on issues of fear of success, home-career conflicts, lower risk taking, decreased academic self-

confidence, and myths about women being inhibited in the world of work impact on women's career success (Wolfe, 1988)

Self-evaluation should be an on-going process for counselors. It is appropriate for helping professionals to reevaluate their knowledge of the developmental stages of older returning women and learn more about their needs, capabilities, interests, and desires. Career counselors must also be willing to examine their attitudes toward nontraditional careers and to advise the client of careers best suited for the individual giving gender-free information. Counselors and career educators must make sure that they offer services tailored to the special needs of this population and realize their role in present society. It is also desirable for helping professionals to examine their personal prejudices and stereotypes concerning marriage, divorce, and single life styles that may stand in the way of personal growth and adjustment for the client.

Eden and Aviran (1993) suggest that helping people regain their self-efficacy is the most noble type of help and ultimately the most effective; it truly helps people help themselves. The following quote by a 57 year old displaced homemaker sums up the feelings of

despair often observed in this population and the desired result of career counseling. "I felt I wasn't capable of anything and that life was over for me. I had no skills or profession, but with the encouragement of the college I've become independent" (Wirzenski, 1983, p. 39).



Appendix A

Important Issues To Women

1989 Survey

Equal Pay.....	94%
Day Care.....	90%
Rape.....	88%
Maternity Leave.....	84%
Job Discrimination....	82%
Abortion.....	74%
Sexual Freedom.....	49%

Appendix B

Reasons Given For Divorce

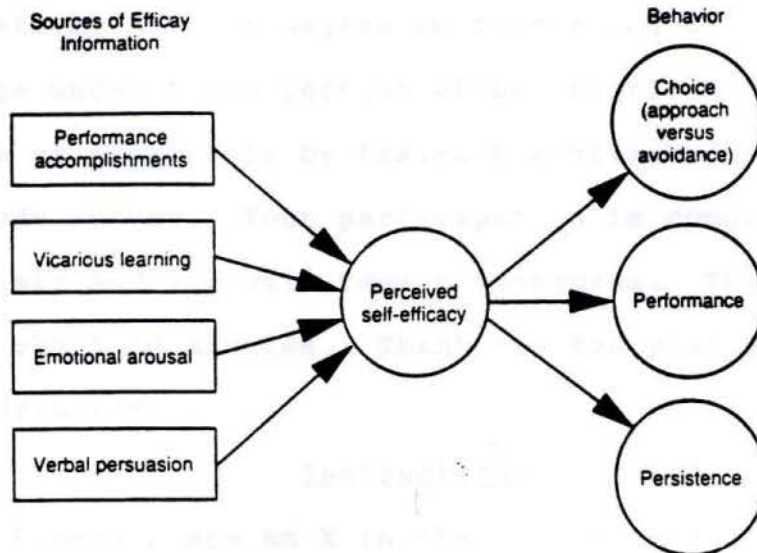
<u>Women</u>		<u>Men</u>	
1. Poor Communication	70%	Poor Communication	59%
2. Basic Unhappiness	60%	Basic Unhappiness	47%
3. Incompatibility	56%	Incompatibility	45%
4. Emotional Abuse	56%	Sexual Problems	30%
5. Financial Problems	33%	Financial Problems	29%
6. Sexual Problems	32%	Emotional Abuse	25%
7. Alcohol Abuse (mate)	30%	Women's Liberation	15%
8. Infidelity (mate)	25%	In-laws	12%
9. Physical Abuse	22%	Infidelity (mate)	11%
10. In-laws	11%	Alcohol Abuse (self)	9%

Appendix C
Relationships Among Personality Types

SDS SCII	MBTI
Realistic	Sensing Thinking
Investigative	Intuitive Thinking
Artistic	Intuitive Feeling Perceptive
Social	Extroverting Feeling
Enterprising	Extroverting Thinking
Conventional	Sensing Judging

Appendix D

Bandura's Model of Perceived Self-Efficacy



Appendix E

Survey

Explanation

I am gathering research data for purposes of writing a thesis on women and career development to complete my Masters degree in counseling at Lindenwood College under the direction of Dr. Pamela Nickels. You can be of great help by taking the attached personal attitude survey. Your participation is completely voluntary and you will remain anonymous. The survey takes about 10 minutes. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Instructions

Please place an X in the appropriate blank:

Birth Date: _____

AGE: 18-30____, 31-40____, 41-50____, 51-60____, Over
61____

Married____, Separated____, Divorced____, Widowed____
Single____

Years Married: 1-5____, 6-10____, 11-15____, 16-20____,
21-25____, 26-30____, Over 30____

Years of Education: 1____, 2____, 3____, 4____, 5____, 6____,
7____, 8____, 9____, 10____, 11____, 12____, 13____, 14____,
Over 14____

Years of Paid Work Experience: 0____, 1-5____, 6-10____,
11-15____, 16-20____, Over 20____

Worked Outside the Home: Part-time____, Full-time____,
Both____

Volunteer Work: school, church, clubs Yes____ NO____

Appendix F

This questionnaire is a series of statements about your personal attitudes and traits. Read each statement and decide to what extent it describes you. There are no right or wrong answers. Mark the letter that honestly describes your attitude or feeling as you really are.

A = Disagree Strongly
B = Disagree Moderately
C = Neither Agree or Disagree
D = Agree Moderately
E = Agree Strongly

- ___ 1. I like to grow house plants.
- ___ 2. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.
- ___ 3. One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.
- ___ 4. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.
- ___ 5. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
- ___ 6. It is difficult for me to make new friends.
- ___ 7. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.
- ___ 8. I give up on things before completing them.
- ___ 9. I like to cook.
- ___ 10. If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person, instead of waiting for them to come to me.
- ___ 11. I avoid facing difficulties.
- ___ 12. If something looks too complicated, I will not bother to try it.
- ___ 13. There is some good in everybody.
- ___ 14. If I meet someone interesting who is very hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying.

- ___15. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.
- ___16. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.
- ___17. I like science.
- ___18. When I decide to do something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.
- ___19. When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up very easily.
- ___20. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.
- ___21. If I were an artist, I would like to draw children.
- ___22. I avoid trying to learn new things.
- ___23. Failure just makes me try harder.
- ___24. I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.
- ___25. I very much like to ride horses.
- ___26. I feel insecure about my ability to do things.
- ___27. I am a self-reliant person.
- ___28. I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.
- ___29. I give up easily.
- ___30. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.

Appendix G**SES Scoring Key**

1. Filler (not scored)
2. Scored as is
3. Reverse-scored
4. Scored as is
5. Filler (not scored)
6. Reverse-scored
7. Reverse-scored
8. Reverse-scored
9. Filler (not scored)
10. Scored as is
11. Reverse-scored
12. Scored as is
13. Filler (not scored)
14. Reverse-scored
15. Scored as is
16. Scored as is
17. Filler (not scored)
18. Reverse-scored
19. Scored as is
20. Reverse-scored
21. Filler (not scored)
22. Reverse-scored
23. Scored as is
24. Reverse-scored
25. Filler (not scored)
26. Reverse-scored
27. Scored as is
28. Scored as is
29. Reverse-scored
30. Reverse-scored

After items are reverse-scored, letters are keyed as follows: A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, and E=5. The scores are then summed; the higher the score, the higher the self-efficacy.

Appendix H

Seminar for Success Schedule St. Louis Community Colleges

Monday

- 9:00-9:30 A.M. Introduction to program and staff
Overview of week's activities
- 9:30-12:00 P.M. Job Talk: What to consider when
pursuing training and development
- 12:00-1:00 P.M. Lunch Break
- 1:00-3:00 P.M. Communication: How to speak and
listen effectively
Assertiveness: How to protect your
rights

Wednesday

- 9:00-11:30 A.M. Selecting a career: Interests,
aptitudes, and values
- 11:30-12:00 P.M. Introduction to career information
center
- 12:00-1:00 P.M. Lunch Break
- 1:00-3:00 P.M. A Life Review: The Resume Human
Relations: The Interview

Friday

- 9:00-10:00 A.M. Motivation: Setting Goals
- 10:00-12:00 P.M. Confidence Building: Spotlight
- 12:00-1:00 P.M. Lunch Break
- 1:00-1:45 P.M. Guest Speakers
- 1:45-2:30 P.M. Film on nontraditional career and
training opportunities on St. Louis
- 2:30-2:50 P.M. Graduation and Program Evaluation
- 2:50-3:00 P.M. Closing Group Exercise

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